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Leadership Strategies for Employee Retention in Small Lodging Establishments

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Walden University
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Abstract

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by

Adi Raz

MS, Pepperdine University, 2008

BS, James Madison University, 2000

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

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Abstract

In 2015, turnover in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, accounting for 6.5 million incidents of voluntary quits. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between antecedent independent variables and employee turnover in bed and breakfasts (B&Bs) and inns. The independent variables were ethical leadership, organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, employee empowerment, employee voice, and work schedule. Organizational support theory provided the theoretical framework for the study. Survey data were collected from 105 B&B and inn managers in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, a correlation matrix, chi-square tests, and logistic regression. Correlational analysis and chi-square tests indicated significant positive relationships between organizational support and retention, between coworker support and retention, between reduced work–family conflict and retention, between empowerment and retention, and between work hours and retention. The logistic regression was statistically significant, $\chi^2(7, N = 583) = 32.507$, $p < .001$, and the independent variables of organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, and work schedule significantly predicted employee turnover. The study has implications for social change: when turnover will drop, B&B managers and employees achieve an improved standard of living gained through stability in the workplace, unemployment will drop, and the U.S. economy will see growth.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

In 2015, turnover in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, accounting for 6.5 million incidents of voluntary quits (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2016a). In the same year, the lodging accommodations and food services industry generated $243.4 billion in economic output (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2016). Multiple researchers illustrated the negative association between employee turnover and organizational performance (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013; Kwon & Rupp, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013). In a study of the relationship between turnover, service quality, and organizational performance, Hancock et al. (2013) found significant negative relationships between them. Hancock et al. applied the findings of their study to the top 1,000 Fortune companies in 2009 and estimated that one standard deviation decrease in turnover equated to $151 million in increased profits. Given the significant losses due to turnover, my aim in this correlational study was to examine the antecedent variables associated with employee turnover at small lodging establishments.

Background of the Problem

Employee turnover, reflected through decreased productivity, service quality, customer satisfaction, and employee attitudes, is significantly and negatively related to business financial performance (Park & Shaw, 2013). Brandmeir and Baloglu (2005) found an association between employee turnover and both immediate and long-term negative impacts on performance. Park and Shaw (2013) illustrated that one standard

deviation increase in turnover was associated with a 40% decrease in workforce productivity.

In 2015, turnover in the accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, 8.1% higher than in 2014 (BLS, 2016a). According to Vasquez (2014), high turnover contributes to overall higher national unemployment rates. The 2015 U.S. national unemployment rate of 5.3%, as compared to the 7.9% unemployment rate in the leisure and hospitality industry sector, supports that assertion (BLS, 2016b). Only the unemployment rate in the mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction industry was higher than the unemployment rate in the leisure and hospitality industry sector (BLS, 2016b).

In the leisure and hospitality industry sector, there are over 65,000 traveler accommodations, out of which 3,020 are B&Bs (U.S. Census, 2016c). Accommodations are establishments providing consumers with lodging or food for consumption (U.S Census, 2016c). There are an additional 20,000 inns in the United States (Morales, 2015). Park and Shaw (2013) illustrated that organizational size was a significant moderator between turnover and organization performance; thus, in larger organizations, the association was negative but weaker (Park & Shaw, 2013). Also, the meta-analysis by Park and Shaw (2013) indicated turnover was more disruptive to organizational performance in service industries, such as tourism, because of the high dependence on human capital. This constitutes the business problem of turnover on the national and industry-specific levels.

Problem Statement

Employee turnover, reflected through decreased productivity, service quality, customer satisfaction, and employee attitudes, negatively influences financial performance of businesses (Hale, Ployhart, & Shepherd, 2016). In 2015, turnover in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, which is 74% higher than average U.S. turnover rate of 41.5% (BLS, 2016a). The general business problem is that small business owners incur high costs related to employee turnover, affecting their financial results. The specific business problem is that the managers of some small lodging establishments have limited information about the relationship between employee retention at small lodging establishments and (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and employee retention at small lodging establishments. The list independent variables were common antecedent variables established by the tourism industry. The dependent variable was employee retention; its complement being voluntary turnover rate, defined as a percent of the workforce who leave their jobs

voluntarily in a given period. The population consisted of B&B establishments in four southwestern U.S. states: California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington.

Employee turnover contributes to higher unemployment and lower economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Alternatively, improved retention lowers unemployment and increases economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Given the tourism's industry contribution to the U.S. economy—$243.4 billion in economic output in 2015 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2016)—the specific social change implication of improved retention is increased economic growth. Park and Shaw (2013) noted that a decrease of one standard deviation in turnover rate was associated with a 26% increase in the organization's financial performance. Extending these results to the *tourism industry* corresponds to $63 billion in additional economic output.

Nature of the Study

Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods have specific strengths (Chowdhury, 2014; Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). Quantitative methods produce factual, reliable results that can be generalizable to a larger population, while qualitative methods generate rich, detailed data that include contextual considerations (Chowdhury, 2014). Qualitative methodology, is emergent, inductive, and contextual (Yilmaz, 2013), and was therefore not appropriate for this study. The nature of the study was to examine the relationships between common antecedent variables established by the tourism industry and employee retention at small lodging establishments. The purpose was to test and extend existing theories to a new population and to generalize the results to all small

lodging establishments, a strength of the quantitative method and a limitation of the qualitative method (Yilmaz, 2013). My requirement to generalize the results favored the selection of the quantitative method and excluded the qualitative method. As the mixed method design is a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Venkatesh et al., 2013), the exclusion of the qualitative approach automatically precluded the mixed method.

I used a correlational modeling-based design to examine the relationships between the independent and dependent variable (see Green & Salkind, 2014). Unlike experimental and quasi-experimental designs, correlational studies do not examine causality (Orcher, 2014). Since the purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between seven antecedent variables and employee retention, and not to assign a treatment randomly, or assess resulting reactions, the experimental and quasi-experimental designs were not appropriate for this study.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The primary research question for this study was, *What is the relationship between common tourism industry established antecedent variables and employee retention at small lodging establishments?* Common antecedent variables established by the tourism industry are (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. Based on the research question, the following hypotheses were developed:

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between one or more of the following independent variables of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and the dependent variable of employee retention at small lodging establishments.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between one or more of the following independent variables of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and the dependent variable of employee retention at small lodging establishments.

Theoretical Framework

Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986) developed the organizational support theory (OST), based on the concept of *perceived organizational support* (POS), in 1986 (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS is defined as the employee's beliefs concerning how the organizational leaders value them, their contributions, and their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). OST researchers explain employee behavior using social exchange and POS, meaning that employees feel obligated to work and attain organizational objectives to reciprocate organizational leaders perceived organizational support (Caesens, Stinglhamber, & Ohana, 2016; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Researchers most commonly assess POS with the Eisenberger

et al. (1986) scale called the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between employee retention and the following independent variables: (a) empowering ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, and (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. The OST aligned with ethical leadership and employee retention because ethical leadership and support is an antecedent variable of POS and is vital to the OST theory as employees evaluate the organization based on the behavior of its leaders (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The OST researchers explain organizational support and coworker support as they relate to the well-being and socialization of the employee resulting in POS, fulfilling socioemotional needs, and providing social identity (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OST researchers view work schedules and work–family conflicts as related to work-conditions required to support POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Finally, Afzali, Motahari, and Hatami-Shirkouhi (2014) examined employee voice and empowerment as mediators between POS and job performance. Increased POS was associated with increased affective commitment (Karatepe, 2015), job satisfaction, positive mood, desire to stay with the organization, and lower turnover intentions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Operational Definitions

For clarity and proper term understanding, I defined the following terms used throughout this study.

Constituent attachment: Constituent attachment represents the employees' attachment to key constituents, such as coworkers and supervisors (Tews, Michel, & Allen, 2014).

Job/Organizational embeddedness: Job and organizational embeddedness represent the attachment between the employee and the organization. Researchers determine organizational embeddedness primarily on fit and compatibility of value and abilities between the employees and the organization, the number of links and relationships between employees, coworkers, and supervisors, and the sacrifice the employee would make if he or she chooses to leave the organization (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

Mediator effect: A mediator effect is present if the following conditions are true (a) the independent variable is significantly predictive of the mediator; (b) the mediator is significantly predictive of the dependent variable, controlling for the independent variable; and (c) the relationship between the independent and dependent variables becomes insignificant (complete mediation) or significantly lower (partial mediation) if the mediator is removed (Tews et al., 2014).

Moderator effect: A moderator effect is present if (a) the independent variable is a significant predictor of the dependent variable and (b) the size of the effect changes when

the independent variable interacts with the moderator variable (Kao, Cheng, Kuo, & Huang, 2014).

Perceived organizational support (POS): POS represents the employee's beliefs concerning how the organization values them, their contributions, and their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Psychological empowerment: Psychological empowerment refers to the psychological state of being empowered; feeling control over one's work and environments, assumed responsibilities, and increased autonomy (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015).

Social exchange theory: Social exchange theory represents the relationship between the employee and the organization and between the employee and the supervisor (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). The relationship between the employee and the organization is founded on POS, and the relationship between the employee and the supervisor is founded on leader-member exchange based on information sharing, respect, and loyalty (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015)

Value-congruence: Value-congruence represents the degree to which the employee's personal values align with those in the organization (Tang et al., 2015).

Voice: Voice represents the employee expressions of change-based ideas motivated by the desire to improve work conditions (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

Work–family conflict: Work–family conflict represents the conflict between the employee's home roles and responsibilities and their work roles and responsibilities, adding pressure to both environments (Blomme, Sok, & Tromp, 2013).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are those factors presumed, but not proven, to be true and are necessary as the foundation of the research (Wargo, 2015). I assumed the participants were honest and accurately provided the information necessary to test my hypothesis. I also assumed that the participants accurately reflected their feelings regarding the independent variables and turnover rates. Self-reported data are limited to the participants' perceptions and honesty (Connelly, 2013).

Limitations

Limitations in research are weaknesses that are out of the researcher's control; through the limitations, the researcher focuses on internal and external validity (Connelly, 2013). Regarding internal validity, the research was a cross-sectional study, not a longitudinal one. Therefore, the results of the study are limited to the participants' knowledge and information during a specific period. If the participants provided inaccurate and misleading answers, it represents a limitation of the study.

A further limitation is bias I may have demonstrated during the data collection, analysis, and reporting phases of the research. I addressed selection bias and the confounding effects of the extraneous variables on the dependent variable by using

simple random selection during the participant sample selection process (Englander, 2012; Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). I also mitigated bias by exposing my biases and conducting research in ways productive to the participants and the community (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). To mitigate personal bias, I did not serve the role of a participant or an observer in the study. I collected data electronically, through a survey, and without further communication or interaction with the participants.

Delimitations

Delimitations are factors controlled by the researcher, such as the definition of the population in terms of geographic location and type of establishment that limit the scope of the study (Simon, 2011). This study looked at the turnover rate at small lodging establishments, such as B&Bs. The population consisted of B&B managers in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. Possible participants were (a) managers of the lodging establishments, (b) establishments identified as a B&Bs, and (c) establishments having more than four rooms. I restricted the sample to properties with a minimum of four rooms to ensure the B&Bs were large enough to employ individuals beyond the owner and manager. Crawford et al. (2013) found the number of guest rooms ranged from four to 80, with an average of 13 guest rooms. Adding the four rooms criteria restricted the generalizability of the results to similar size establishments but improved the validity of the results.

Respondents included only those working at B&Bs in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington; therefore, the generalizability of the results is limited to

hospitality lodging establishments in the same geographic location or similar in demographics. Quantitative methods produce factual, reliable results that can be generalizable to a larger population (Chowdhury, 2014). I improved the generalizability of the results by following the quantitative method and by the process of participant selection. By using random selection, I minimized bias and removed the influence of external variables (Sargeant, 2012).

Generalization of results is also improved when the study is founded on sound and proven theories. The theoretical underpinning for the research was the OST, which was developed in 1986. The OST provides a basis for understanding how the relationships between the organization, leadership, and employees affect employee retention.

Significance of the Study

Hancock et al. (2013) have demonstrated that turnover is significantly and negatively related to firms' performance. Hancock et al. illustrated how the negative relationship is stronger in organizations offering a higher level of customer service. The results of the study are expected to contribute to both business practices and social change.

Contribution to Business Practice

Small organizations, especially those focused on customer service, can benefit from additional information on employee retention techniques. Without the knowledge of the variables and practices that could contribute to retention, managers of small business

are at a disadvantage (Park & Shaw, 2013). It was my goal to identify significant variables and practices for predicting employee retention. Business owners and managers who promoted retention practices could reduce expenses, reduce productivity loss, and improve overall business profitability.

Implications for Social Change

Social implications transcend the organization. The tourism industry contributes significantly to the U.S. economy, with $243.4 billion in economic output in 2015 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2015). Employee turnover leads to higher unemployment and lower economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Alternatively, reduced turnover and increased retention lowers unemployment and increases economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Beyond economic improvement, an implication for social change is an improved standard of living for both business owners and employees due to workforce stability.

Through the survey, I identified which business practices significantly improved employee retention at B&Bs. If leadership follows effective employee retention strategies, retention should be improved and thus, economic growth in the tourism industry should improve.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

In 2015, turnover in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, 74% higher than the average U.S. turnover rate (BLS, 2016a). Multiple researchers (e.g., Hancock et al., 2013; Kacmar et al., 2006; Kwon & Rupp, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013) noted the negative relationship between employee turnover and

organizational performance. The relationship between turnover and organizational performance is especially strong for measures of customer service, quality, safety, and productivity (Hancock et al., 2013). Perceived organizational support is a predictor of job satisfaction, turnover intentions (Cheng, Yang, Wan & Chu, 2013), organizational commitment, and service quality (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016).

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment with employee retention at small lodging establishments. The dependent variable was employee retention; its complement being voluntary turnover rate. The theoretical framework guiding the study was the organizational support theory. The purpose of the literature review is to present a robust and extensive synthesis of historical and current research about employee turnover antecedent variables, theoretical framework, the hospitality sector, customer service, and the cost of turnover.

The following databases were used in the searches: Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Collection, Hospitality & Tourism Complete, and SAGE Premier. The following keywords were used: (a) *turnover,* (b) *retention,* (c) *hospitality,* (d) *work–family conflict,* (e) *voice,* (f) *ethical leadership,* (g) *organizational support,* (h) *coworker support,* (i) *organizational climate,* (j) *perceived organizational support,* (k) *psychological empowerment,* (l) *constituent attachment,* (m)

employee commitment, (n) *employee engagement*, (o) *autonomy,* (p) *flexible schedules,* and (q) *turnover costs*.

The literature review included peer-reviewed articles, books, and government websites. I used multiple sources to demonstrate research rigor and depth. Out of the 76 references in the literature review, 72 are peer-reviewed or government sources (95%). Also, 65 of the 76 references are within 5 years of expected graduation in 2017 (85%). See Table 1.

Table 1

Frequency and Percentage of Sources Used in Literature Review

	Publication age of references			
Resources	Within 5 years	Older than 5 years	Total	%
Books & other resources	3	1	4	5%
Peer-reviewed articles & government publications	63	10	73	95%
Total	66	11	77	100%

I organized the literature review to include a synthesis of research concerning the independent variables, then a review of the theoretical framework and its relationship to the independent variables and dependent variable. I included an analysis of supporting and contrasting theories and an analysis of the tourism industry and the customer-service component of tourism and how it relates to employee retention. Finally, I assessed the cost of employee turnover to business organizations.

Antecedent Factors or Retention Strategies

Antecedent factors and retention strategies are reciprocals concepts, serving as the source of employee turnover or employee retention. Researchers have examined the relationship between employee retention and coworker support (Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013), supportive leadership (Kim, 2014), work–family balance (Blomme, Van Rheede, & Tromp, 2010; Hechanova, 2013), short workweeks (Ryan, Ma, Hsiao, & Ku, 2015), employee empowerment (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015), and voice. Although the researchers presented some conflicting evidence, most research results revealed managerial practices likely to promote retention.

Organizational support. Organizational support, or lack of support, includes various sources of support, or potential antecedent factors for turnover. For example, organizational support includes (a) the supervisor-employee relationship (Kao et al., 2014; Kim, 2014; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013), (b) coworker support (Tews et al., 2013), (c) organizational climate (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015; Hechanova, 2013), and (d) caring relationships (Tews et al., 2014). Organizational support from supervisors, coworkers, organizational climate, and relationships, can directly affect employee retention (Kim, 2014).

Organizational support can also moderate (Hechanova, 2013), or mediate (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015) the effect between other antecedent variables and turnover. A relationship moderated by organizational support means that the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable (employee retention) varies as

organizational support varies from high to low (Hechanova, 2013). A relationship mediated by organizational support means that the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable relies on organizational support intervening between the independent and dependent variables, so that the relationship relies on organizational support (Tews et al., 2014).

Previous researchers (Kao et al., 2014; Kim, 2014) noted the importance of the supervisor-employee relationship on turnover intentions. A positive relationship between leaders and employees may serve as a retention strategy (Kim, 2014), or as an antecedent factor of turnover (Kao et al., 2014). Kao et al. (2014) examined the relationship between work-related social stressors and the resulting behaviors of frontline employees. The results indicated that stressors from supervisors, coworkers, and customers related to (a) work withdrawal, (b) sick leave, and (c) service sabotage in different strengths (Kao et al., 2014).

Results by Kao et al. (2014) indicated that while both supervisor-caused stress and customer-caused stress were significantly related to turnover intentions, supervisor-caused stress was a stronger predictor of turnover intention than customer-caused stress (Kao et al., 2014). Similarly, while both colleague-caused stress and customer-caused stress were significantly related to sick leave, colleague-based stress was a stronger predictor of sick leave (Kao et al., 2014). Finally, both supervisor-caused stress and customer-caused stress were significantly related to service sabotage, but customer-caused stress was a stronger predictor of service sabotage (Kao et al., 2014). Similarly,

Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, and Zagenczyk (2013) studied the impact of abusive supervision on perceived organizational support and counterproductivity at work. As proposed by the organizational support theory, Shoss et al. validated employees attributed abusive supervision with negative evaluation of the organization. Results indicated abusive supervision was associated with lower perceived organizational support and negative retribution against the organization in the form of lower in-role and extra-role performance (Shoss et al., 2013). By contrast, Kim (2014) studied organizational support, instead of supervisor-related stress, and found that supervisor support had a significant relationship with turnover intentions for certain types of employees. Kim studied turnover antecedent factors in two different employee populations: neophyte newcomers (employees without any or similar work experience) and veteran newcomers (employees who have prior occupational work experience but are new to the specific organization). The results indicated that different antecedent factors were related to turnover intentions in the two different groups (Kim, 2014).

For neophytes, in addition to compensation, career advancement, job stress, job clarity, and external causes, Kim (2014) noted that organizational support was a significant negative predictor of turnover intentions. For veterans, in addition to compensation, career advancement, and external causes, Kim found that supervisor support was a significant negative predictor of turnover intentions. Kim's results support the conclusion that supervisor support can improve employee retention, while supervisor-caused stress can increase turnover intentions.

Blomme, Van Rheede, and Tromp (2010) also examined the relationship between organizational support and turnover. Blomme et al. surveyed highly educated employees in the hospitality industry and found there was a negative significant relationship between organizational support and turnover intentions. In addition, organizational support moderated the relationship between workplace flexibility and work–family conflict (Blomme et al., 2010).

Other components of organizational support are coworker-employee relationships, support, and fun. Previous researchers (Tews et al., 2013; Tews et al., 2014) noted the positive relationships between fun, supportive coworker relationships, emotional coworker support, and employee retention. Kim (2014), however, did not find coworker support to be a significant factor affecting turnover.

Tews et al. (2013) studied 188 frontline entry-level employees from a national restaurant chain and assessed the effects of emotional coworker support (person-focused) and instrumental coworker support (task-focused) on turnover. Results illustrated that emotional support was a significant negative predictor of turnover, while instrumental support was a significant positive predictor of turnover - an unexpected result (Tews et al., 2013). Tews et al. hypothesized coworker support was important for the tourism industry and entry-level employees because of other less favorable aspects of employment and the predominant young employee workforce (Tews et al., 2013).

Tews et al. (2014) conducted additional research on U.S. chain-restaurant servers to further investigate the relationship between fun, friendship, and turnover in the

hospitality industry. Results from the study indicated the importance of fun activities at reducing turnover (Tews et al., 2014). Results indicated that coworker socialization and manager support of fun were both significantly and negatively related to turnover (Tews et al., 2014).

Not all research supported the important role of coworkers on turnover intentions (Kim, 2014). Unlike the studies by Tews et al. (2013) and Tews et al. (2014), Kim (2014) studied travel agency employees in Korea and found that coworker support was not a significant factor influencing turnover intentions for neither neophyte newcomers nor veteran newcomers. Kim noted that this finding may be the result of social norms in Korea where the participants answered the question not based on their feelings regarding co-workers but rather the socially acceptable answer regarding dependence on co-workers.

Organizational support through a caring organizational climate is a moderator variable between other antecedent factors such as supervisor stressors and work-life conflict and turnover (Kao et al., 2014). Results noted that a caring work environment moderated the relationship between the supervisor- and customer-based stressors and turnover intentions such that high-caring environments resulted in lower turnover intentions given the same level of supervisor stressors (Kao et al., 2014). Similarly, service work climates moderated the relationship between supervisor and customer stressors and service sabotage (Kao et al., 2014).

Organizational support also moderates the relationship between work-life conflict and employee turnover (Hechanova, 2013). Hechanova (2013) studied the relationship of work-life conflict on turnover intent by studying call center employees in the Philippines. The results indicated both job satisfaction and work-life conflict predicted intent to leave the job (Hechanova, 2013). Hechanova fit hierarchical regression models, with age and job satisfaction in the first step, and work-life conflict and organizational support in the second step. The second-step regression model accounted for additional variance in turnover intent above the model with age and job satisfaction alone (Hechanova, 2013). These results, therefore, illustrated the importance of work-life conflict as an antecedent variable for turnover intentions (Hechanova, 2013). Organizational support moderated the relationship between work-life conflict and turnover intent such that when organizational support was high, high work-life conflict did not result in high turnover intent as it did when organizational support was low (Hechanova, 2013).

Caring relationships between employees mediate the relationship between organizational support and turnover (Tews et al., 2014). Through a survey of 296 frontline employees from 20 restaurants, Tews et al. (2014) investigated the relationship of coworker socializing and manager support of fun with turnover, and the mediating effect of constituent attachment between fun and turnover. Results illustrated that constituent attachment fully mediated the effect between the independent variables (coworker socializing and manager support of fun) and turnover (Tews et al, 2014). Hence, the dependent variable (turnover) was a significant predictor of the mediator

(constituent attachment), the mediator was a significant predictor of the independent variables (fun and socialization) but when the mediator effect was removed, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable became nonsignificant (Tews et al., 2014). Since the relationship became nonsignificant without the mediating factor of constituent attachment, it is considered a fully mediating factor. Therefore, the relationship between employees was the crucial driver between coworker support and turnover.

Blomme et al. (2010) noted similar results regarding work–family conflict, turnover intentions, and organizational support. Blomme et al. found a positive relationship between work–family conflict and turnover intentions in the hospitality sector. The negative relationship between workplace flexibility and turnover intentions was mediated by work–family conflict (Blomme et al., 2010).

Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) provided supporting results in a study on psychological empowerment and turnover intentions. Ertürk and Vurgun defined positive social exchange as organizational support and leadership-member relationships. The results indicated that positive social exchange founded on trust fully mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Relationships among the employees, leaders, and the organization mediated the relationships between empowerment and turnover, such that higher empowerment was associated with lower turnover (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015).

In summary, organizational climate, through supervisor-employee relationships, coworker support, and organizational support serves as a critical retention strategy. Emotional support, coworker support, socialization, and personal relationships directly reduce turnover and buffer the employee from undue stress associated with work–family conflict and supervisor stressors. Positive environment and social exchange founded on trust empower employees resulting in lower turnover. Leaders should, therefore, focus on expressing care for the employees and their contributions and encourage a supportive organizational structure.

Supervisor behaviors and leadership style are intertwined in the organization's climate. Even though coworker support has been found as both a significant and insignificant determinant of employee retention, multiple researchers (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015; Kao et al., 2014) illustrated the impact of the supervisor relationships with employees on turnover intentions). Additional researchers (Tang et al., 2015) focused on the quality of leadership and its effect on turnover.

Supervisor-employee relationships and ethical leadership. The relationship between leaders and employees can serve as retention strategy (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015) or as a turnover antecedent factor (Kao et al., 2013). A positive relationship between supervisor and employees, a relationship based on mutual beneficial behaviors, is negatively associated with turnover (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) found that leader-member exchange was negatively related to turnover intentions.

A positive relationship between leaders and employees also improves other work-related behaviors; for example, the leader-member exchange mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Additional research by Ng and Feldman (2013) noted that perceived manager embeddedness was significantly and positively associated with employee embeddedness and organizational trust. Furthermore, organizational trust was significantly and positively associated with employee embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 2013). By contrast, a supervisor-employee relationship based on extreme stress and unmet expectations, is positively associated with turnover intentions (Kao et al., 2014). Results indicated that supervisor-caused stress was strongly related to turnover intent (Kao et al., 2014). A caring work environment moderated the relationship between the supervisor- and customer-based stressors and turnover intentions such that high-caring environments resulted in lower turnover intentions given the same level of supervisor stressors (Kao et al., 2014).

Contrary results did not reveal a significant relationship between the employee-supervisor relationship and turnover intentions (Mohsin, Lengler, & Kumar, 2013). While the relationship was negative, meaning as the relationship between employee-supervisor improved turnover intentions decreased, the relationship was not significant (Mohsin et al., 2013). The study by Mohsin et al. (2013) focused on staff at luxury hotels in India and Mohsin et al. theorized the relationship between employee-supervisor relationship and turnover intentions was not significant due to the strong relationship culture in India.

The strong relationship culture means that many employees maintain a good relationship with their supervisors even if the supervisor is somewhat unjust or demanding (Mohsin et al., 2013).

Previous researchers (Tahernejad, Ghorban, Ariffin, & Babaei, 2015; Tang et al., 2015) found a positive effect of ethical leadership on employee retention. Tang et al. (2015) studied the impact of ethical leadership on turnover intentions with employees of a major restaurant chain in South China. The results indicated a significant positive relationship between ethical leadership and leader-follower value congruence and a significant negative relationship between leader-follower congruence and turnover intentions (Tang et al., 2015). Value congruence had a mediating effect on the relationship between ethical leadership and turnover intentions (Tang et al., 2015).

Tahernejad et al. (2015) found similar results supporting the results noted by Tang et al. (2015). Tahernejad et al. also studied the impact of ethical leadership with middle managers in the hotel industry in Malaysia. The results indicated a significant positive relationship between ethical leadership and job satisfaction and a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Tahernejad et al., 2015). Results also showed a significant positive relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment and a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions (Tahernejad et al., 2015). Therefore, ethical leadership defined by considerate, fair, caring, and honest behaviors that provide a voice

for their employees is an employee retention strategy by increasing leader-follower congruence, job satisfaction, and commitment (Tahernejad et al., 2015).

Additional researchers (Demirtas, 2015; Nasomboon, 2014) provided supporting data on the importance of ethical leadership. Research on employees in a public firm in Turkey noted a positive and significant relationship between ethical leadership and work engagement, and a significant and negative relationship between ethical leadership and organizational misbehavior (Demirtas, 2015). Demirtas (2015) indicated ethical leadership as a significant predictor of work engagement and organizational misbehavior. Similarly, Nasomboon (2014) conducted research using data from 395 managers across 26 petrochemical companies in Thailand. Results illustrated that committed leadership had a positive direct effect on employee engagement and organizational performance (Nasomboon, 2014). Medlin and Green (2014) also focused on leadership and employee engagement. Results of survey data from 166 employees in the United States noted that leaders following sound management principles and processes (fairness, justice, autonomy, availability of resources, and assessment) resulted in higher employee engagement (Medlin & Green, 2014).

Ethical leadership provides a voice for employees and is responsive to employees' needs (Tahernejad et al., 2015). As with ethical leadership, McClean, Burris, & Detert (2013) noted the importance of responsive leadership. McClean et al. (2013) characterized the leaders' responsiveness to change by their ability and willingness to respond to change noted by (a) management team change orientation, (b) manager

participation in decision-making, and (c) managerial access to organizational resources. Results indicated that manager participation in decision-making and management team change orientation were negatively and significantly related to turnover (McClean et al., 2013). Results indicated that a leader's willingness and ability to respond to the employees' voice resulted in lower turnover such that when a leader's access to resources was high (or high team change orientation or high managerial participation in decision making) employee voice and turnover were negatively related, but when a leader's access to resources was low (or low team change orientation or low managerial participation in decision making) employee voice and turnover were positively related (McClean et al., 2013).

The positive impacts of ethical leadership and responsive management are based on trust. Research by Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) indicated that trust was a moderating factor on the mediating effects of organizational trust on the relationship between psychological empowerment, leader-member exchange, and turnover intentions. Therefore, when organizational trust was high, the mediating effect of organizational support on the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions was strengthened (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). When trust in a supervisor was high, the mediating effect of leader-member exchange on the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions was strengthened (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015).

In summary, most researchers reviewed in this section noted a positive relationship between supervisor and employees, a relationship based to mutual beneficial

behaviors, ethical leadership, and trust is positively related to affective commitment and negatively associated with turnover. A positive relationship also strengthens psychological empowerment and therefore reduces turnover intentions. Enabling leadership associated with manager participation in decision-making and management team change orientation also reduces turnover by mediating the relationship between employee voice and turnover. Therefore, ethical and enabling leadership, associated with fair, caring, and honest behaviors (a) provides a voice to employees, (b) empowers employees, and (c) results in improved employee-leader relationships, job satisfaction, job commitment, and employee retention.

Work–family conflict and work schedule. Previous researchers (Blomme et al., 2010; Hechanova, 2013; Yunita & Kismono, 2014) illustrated that conflicting work and family obligations were detrimental to employee retention. The study by Yunita and Kismono (2014) assessed the relationship with 210 surveys to junior and middle managers in Bali hotels. Results indicated that work–family conflict (WFC) was statistically correlated with turnover intentions and predictive of turnover intentions such that higher conflict increased turnover intentions (Yunita & Kismono, 2014). Similarly, Hechanova (2013) found WFC predicted intent to leave the job above and the beyond the turnover intent predicted by age and job satisfaction. Hechanova studied the relationship of WFC on turnover intent by studying call center employees in the Philippines. Hechanova noted WFC, as it materialized in call centers, was higher than typical because of the collective Philippine culture misalignment with call center work schedules tailored

around Western customers (Hechanova, 2013). Typical work–life conflict associated with call centers (sleep deprivation and isolation from family and friends created by night work) is directly conflicting with cultural values where family has a direct influence over marriage, residence, and work (Hechanova, 2013). Similarly, Blomme et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between turnover intentions and work–family conflict by investigating 247 highly educated employees in the hospitality sector. Results indicated a significant negative relationship between work–family conflict and turnover intentions (Blomme et al., 2010). Using hierarchical regression models, Blomme et al. also illustrated that work–family conflict and organizational support explained a substantial amount of variance in the intentions to leave the organization.

Erkman and Esen (2014) found similar results in the study of 95 employees of insurance agencies in Turkey. Erkman and Esen noted significant positive relationship between work interfering with family and turnover intentions and between family interfering with work and turnover intentions. Further modeling results indicated only family interfering with work conflict was a significant predictor of turnover intentions (Erkman & Esen, 2014).

Additional researchers (Mohsin, Lengler, & Kumar, 2013; Ryan et al., 2015) provided only somewhat supportive results or conflicting results. Ryan et al.'s (2015) research focused on the foodservice industry. Results indicated a significant positive relationship between WFC and turnover intentions (Ryan et al., 2015). The authors elucidated, however, that WFC accounted for only 14% of the variation in turnover

intentions (Ryan et al., 2015). Mohsin et al. (2013) noted conflicting results regarding WFC and turnover when surveying employees in luxury hotels in India. Mohsin et al. did not find a significant positive relationship between work impacted by social and family life and turnover intentions (Mohsin et al., 2013).

Given most research findings that WFC negatively influences employee retention, it is crucial to identify work schedule and job characteristics associated with WFC and turnover. Research illustrated that role ambiguity contributed to WFC (Ryan et al., 2015). Ryan et al. (2015) hypothesized role conflict would positively relate to WFC. Results, however, were contrary to previously hypothesized, role conflict was significant and negatively related to WFC (Ryan et al., 2015). The negative relationship between role conflict and WFC implies that multiple roles provide excitement and balance instead of being a source of stress and conflict (Ryan et al., 2015).

Researchers who examined work schedules (Blomme et al., 2013; Kucukusta, Guillet, & Lau, 2014; Ryan et al., 2015) noted the negative effects of WFC caused by overtime, long work hours, and work on the weekend on turnover. Ryan et al. (2015) indicated that working on the weekend was significantly related to WFC. Kucukusta et al. (2014) noted that employees favored a shorter work week: a 5-day week rather than a 6-day week. Employees with shorter workweeks also demonstrated lower turnover intentions (Kucukusta, 2014). The study of hospitality workers showed that overtime was negatively associated with organizational commitment and negatively associated with turnover intentions (Kucukusta et al., 2014). The number of hours worked was a driver of

turnover intentions such that workers working longer hours had higher turnover intentions (Kucukusta et al., 2014). Similarly, Tsai, Huang, Chien, Chiang, and Chiou (2016) studied the effect of long work weeks on turnover intentions in Taiwan. Tsai et al. conducted research across 100 hospitals in Taiwan, using a sample of 2,423 physicians. Results indicated work hours was a significant predictor of turnover intentions (Tsai, Huang, Chien, Chiang, & Chiou, 2016). Also, satisfaction with pay did not moderate the relationship between work hours and intentions to leave, indicating higher pay did not eliminate the desire to leave the hospital given long work weeks (Tsai et al., 2016).

Blomme, Sok, and Tromp (2013) focused on two aspects of WFC, time-based interference when time pressure in one role prevents the ability to fulfilling the other role, and strain-based interference when fatigue in one role prevents the ability to fulfill the other role. Results showed overtime was associated with both time and strain conflict (Blomme et al., 2013). In addition, results showed that lack of work–home provisions such as flexible schedules or to arrange schedules to meet family obligations was also associated with both time and strain conflict (Blomme et al., 2013).

In summary, WFC is associated with increased job tension and turnover intentions. To improve employee retention, managers should reduce role ambiguity and assess the possible benefits of multiple roles. Also, managers should try and limit overtime, working on the weekends, and reduce weekly work hours. Another means of reducing WFC is to promote organizational support as a method of buffering employees from WFC. Positive work support, in terms of social support from coworkers, supervisor

flexibility, and moral support, weakens the positive association between work–family conflict and turnover intentions. Organizational support moderated the relationship between work–life conflict and turnover intent such that when organizational support was high, high work–life conflict did not result in high turnover intent as it did when organizational support was low.

Employee empowerment and voice. Empowerment and employee voice have an indirect effect on employee retention such that the relationship between empowerment, voice, and turnover are mediated by, or moderate the effects of, other antecedent variables such as organizational support and leadership (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015; McClean et al., 2013). Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) studied the effects of psychological empowerment, defined as the state of being empowered, noted by a sense of control over one's work and environment, perceived competence, greater responsibility and influence, and autonomy on turnover intentions of IT professionals. Although results revealed aspects of psychological empowerment were negatively associated with turnover intentions, the impact was fully mediated by organizational support, such that without organizational support the relationship between empowerment and turnover was no longer significant (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Also, the leader-member exchange partially mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and turnover intentions (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015). Similarly, McClean et al. (2013) studied the relationship between employee voice, leadership, and turnover and found comparable indirect relationship between voice and turnover. The longitudinal study included data collected

over two years from 136 restaurants focused on leaders' responsiveness to change by their ability and willingness to respond to change (McClean et al., 2013). Results showed employee voice was not significantly related to turnover (McClean et al., 2013). Rather, the relationship between voice and turnover was moderated by leadership such that when a leader participated in decision making, had access to organizational resources, and had a change orientation, employee voice and turnover were negatively related, but when a leader's access to resources was low or the leader did not participate in decision making, employee voice and turnover were positively related (McClean et al., 2013). Therefore, it was the manager's response to employee voice that caused turnover to increase or decrease (McClean et al., 2013).

There are additional relationships between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, organizational embeddedness, organizational trust, and employee voice (constructive, change-oriented actions by the employee designed to improve the business), external to turnover (Raub & Robert, 2012). Researchers defined empowerment as information sharing, delegation of authority, and autonomy and psychological empowerment as when employees feel empowered (Raub & Robert, 2012). Raub and Robert (2012) defined empowering leadership as leadership behaviors that encourage employee empowerment, and include (a) leading by example, (b) collective decision-making, (c) coaching, and (d) showing concern (Raub & Robert, 2012). Results indicated that empowering leadership was significantly and positively related to psychological empowerment and in turn, psychological empowerment was significantly

positively related to organizational commitment and voice behavior (Raub & Robert, 2012). Similarly, Ng and Feldman (2013) noted that supervisor embeddedness was significantly related employee embeddedness and organizational trust, and in turn employee embeddedness and organizational trust were significantly related to employee voice.

There are additional mediating relationships between empowerment, voice, and trust. Results indicated that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and organizational commitment (Raub & Robert, 2012). Psychological empowerment also mediated the relationship between empowering leadership and voice behavior (Raub & Robert, 2012) similarly to how employee embeddedness mediated the relationship between organizational trust and voice (Ng & Feldman, 2013).

In summary, empowering leadership, empowerment, organizational commitment, trust, and employee voice all impact one another, and all together impact employee retention. Change-motivated leadership and empowering leadership are both significantly related to organizational commitment, which is also significantly related to employee voice. Organizational support mediated the relationship between empowerment and turnover while leadership moderated the relationship between voice and turnover. Since organizational trust, commitment and support, employee embeddedness and voice, and empowering change driven leadership are negatively related to turnover, the results indicate that to improve employee retention the organization should encourage

empowerment through empowering leadership, organizational support, cultivating organizational trust and embeddedness.

Theoretical Framework – Organizational Support Theory

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed the organizational support theory based on the concept of POS in 1986 (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS is defined as the employee's beliefs concerning how the organizational leaders value them, their contributions, and their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Researchers most commonly assess POS with the Eisenberger et al. (1986) Survey of Perceived Organizational Support scale (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

OST is based on the concepts of POS and social exchange (Eisenberger et al., 1986), meaning employees feel obligated to work and attain organizational objectives to reciprocate the organizational leaders' perceived organizational support (Caesens et al., 2016; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Heightened POS, through socialization and providing social identity, fulfills socioemotional needs (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) thereby increasing the employee's further identification and commitment to the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015). OST researchers also rely on self-enhancement, where heightened POS leads to organizational commitment and shared values, resulting in stronger employee-employer relationship bonds (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

Eisenberger et al. (1986) also based OST on the humanization of the organization and the value of discretionary choice. Under the concept of discretionary choice,

employees attribute greater value to voluntarily provided resources, rewards, and favorable company actions (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2015). The organization and its leaders provide socialization tactics, thereby increasing the perceived organizational support in the eyes of the new employees, illustrating that organizational leaders are caring and willing to invest in them (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Also, because of the humanization of the organization, employees attribute supervisors' actions to the organization (Shoss et al., 2013). The employees infer that positive and rewarding actions taken by organizational leaders are a reflection of the organization itself caring about their well-being and valuing their work contributions (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Organizational support theory researchers focus on socialization tactics to increase job embeddedness by increasing the links to other employees, improving the fit within the organization, building a sense of community, and increasing the psychological benefits the employee would forgo if leaving the organization (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Allen and Shanock (2013) posed that socialization tactics should be predictive of POS and. Results indicated that POS and embeddedness fully mediated the relationship between socialization tactics and commitment, meaning that the direct path between socialization and commitment was not statistically significant without the mediating effects of POS and embeddedness (Allen & Shanock, 2013).

According to OST researchers (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), an organization-employee interaction based on fairness, supervisor support, rewarding performance, and

favorable job conditions, should increase POS. In turn, increased POS is associated with increased affective commitment by the employee, and therefore, improved work performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Further, increased POS should solidify the relationship between employee and employer, resulting in lower turnover (Afzali et al., 2014; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gillet, Gagné, Sauvagère, & Fouquereau, 2013; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Impact of organizational support on employees. Researchers (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) have noted numerous positive consequences associated with heightened POS. The benefits are to the individual employee and the organization and range from improved mood to improved job performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Multiple researchers (e.g., Afzali et al., 2014; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gillet et al., 2013; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) documented significant positive effects of increased POS on turnover intentions.

For employees, consequences of high POS are increased well-being and self-efficacy (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Caesens et al., 2016). Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) defined self-efficacy as the individual's belief in his/her ability to perform work tasks. Based on OST, employees with increased POS should also exhibit increased self-efficacy because positive evaluation of performance would encourage gaining skills, work experience, and improve physiological and emotional states (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014).

Caesens and Stinglhamber's (2014) study of 256 Belgian employees revealed that POS was significantly predictive of self-efficacy, and in-turn, self-efficacy was related to work-engagement. A study by Caesens et al. (2016) indicated that POS was statistically predictive of the employees' well-being, measured by positive affect towards the organization and lower psychological strain (Caesens et al., 2016). Supportive results from a meta-analysis conducted by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) noted increased POS was associated with employees' positive mood and increased job satisfaction.

Through socialization and socioemotional needs, employees with increased POS also benefited from reduced psychological strain (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The analysis by Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) indicated that work engagement mediated the positive relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction, and the negative relationship between self-efficacy and psychological strain. Results by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) also noted that increased POS was associated with lower strains and lower withdrawal behaviors.

Heightened POS also is also associated with increased psychological empowerment and autonomous motivation (Afzali et al.,2014; Gillet et al., 2013). In a study of 280 Iranian bank employees using questionnaires and reported POS, Afzali, Motahari, and Hatami-Shirkouki (2014) found POS was a significant predictor for psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment served as a mediator between POS and job performance (Afzali et al., 2014). In a study of French companies, Gillet et al. (2013) found that POS was a significant predictor of work autonomous motivation.

Results from Jaiswal and Dhar (2016) also indicated a significant positive relationship between POS and psychological empowerment.

Impact of organizational support on employers. For the organization, consequences of employees with high POS are job embeddedness (Allen & Shanock, 2013), job commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Casimir, Ng, Wang, & Ooi, 2014; Karatepe, 2015), and work engagement (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Caesens et al., 2016). Job embeddedness and organizational commitment are critical because they are significantly and negatively correlated with voluntary turnover (Allen & Shanock, 2013) and work behaviors (Battistelli, Galletta, Portoghese, & Vandenberghe, 2013). Allen and Shanock (2013) revealed POS and embeddedness were significant predictors of affective commitment, and affective commitment was a statistically significant predictor of turnover. Similarly, Casimir et al. (2014) noted a significant positive relationship between POS and affective commitment. Battistelli et al. (2013) found that commitment and motivation were antecedent variables for positive work attitude and behaviors.

In a meta-analysis, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) also noted that increased POS was associated with increased affective commitment and higher job involvement. Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) and Caesens et al. (2016) provided supportive results showing that POS was also directly significantly predictive of work engagement. Jaiswal and Dhar (2016) also indicated a significant positive relationship between POS and organizational commitment.

Additional benefits to the organization and employees are increased work motivation and job satisfaction (Gillet et al., 2013). Structural equation analysis results from a study of 735 employees from various French companies revealed employees' POS was positively related to employees' work autonomous motivation, and employees' work autonomous motivation was also positively statistically related to employees' work satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions (Gillet et al., 2013). Therefore, work motivation acted as a partial mediator of the relationship between POS and work satisfaction, and the relationship between POS and turnover intentions (Gillet et al., 2013).

Organizational support, turnover, and job performance. Multiple researchers (e.g., Afzali et al., 2014; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gillet et al., 2013; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shoss et al., 2013) illustrated both direct and indirect relationships between POS and employee retention, and between POS and job performance. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that increased POS was associated with increased desire to stay with the organization and lower turnover intentions. Increased POS was also associated with higher job involvement and lower withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Allen and Shanock (2013), who studied an organization's 500 newly hired employees across 27 locations in the United States, noted significant negative correlation between POS and voluntary turnover. POS was a direct predictor of turnover and an indirect predictor of turnover through job embeddedness and affective commitment

(Allen & Shanock, 2013). Shoss et al. (2013) studied the negative effects of abusive supervisor behaviors with POS and work productivity. Results indicated abusive supervision was associated with lower perceived organizational support (Shoss et al., 2013). Also, employees attributed abusive supervision with the organization, and retributed against the organization in the form of lower in-role and extra-role performance (Shoss et al., 2013).

Gillet et al. (2013) analyzed work behaviors of 735 employees from various French companies. Gillet et al. indicated that increased POS was directly and positively related to work satisfaction, and negatively related to turnover intention. POS was also an indirect predictor of turnover intentions through the mediation of work autonomous motivation (Gillet et al., 2013). Additional research by Guchait, Cho, and Meurs (2015) demonstrated a negative relationship between POS and turnover intentions, partially mediated through the fulfillment of relational psychological contracts. Likewise, analysis of hotel employees in Taiwan, noted that employees' POS was a predictor of job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Cheng et al., 2013).

Multiple researchers (e.g., Afzali et al., 2014; Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Casimir et al., 2014; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) also demonstrated the positive effects of heighted POS on job performance. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) noted increased POS was associated with higher in-role and extra-role job performance. Similarly, Caesens and Stinglhamber (2014) showed POS, mediated through self-efficacy, was predictive of improved extra-role performance.

Results by Afzali et al. (2014) indicated POS was a significant predictor of job performance, mediated through psychological empowerment and organizational learning (Afzali et al., 2014).

Additional supportive results from Casimir et al. (2014), showed a positive relationship between POS and in-role performance, the relationship mediated by affective commitment. Jaiswal and Dhar (2016) found a significant positive relationship between POS and service quality. The predictive relationship between POS and service quality was fully mediated by organizational commitment (Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016).

In summary, OST researchers base organizational support on concepts of POS, social exchange, the humanization of the organization, and the value of discretionary choice. The employees who believe organizational leaders value them, will, in turn, perform job functions to aid the organization reach its objectives. In response, the organization, through supervisors, will reward employees thereby further increasing POS. Organizational support is associated with various benefits to the employee, such as positive mood, lower psychological strain, increased well-being, increased self-efficacy, and empowerment. Organizational support is associated with numerous benefits to the employer, such as increased organizational commitment, increased job engagement, lower turnover, and improved job performance.

Alternative possible conceptual frameworks. Researchers (Harrell & Stahl, 1981; Udechukwu, 2009) argued that voluntary turnover is the result of low job satisfaction and dissonance between job expectations and job reality. When jobs do not

satisfy employees' needs and expectations, the result is turnover (Harrell & Stahl, 1981). Therefore, several motivational theories might have been appropriate as a conceptual framework to explain why employees choose certain jobs and why employees choose to leave their jobs (Udechukwu, 2009).

Udechukwu (2009), for example, used Maslow's needs hierarchy and Herzberg's motivation theory to analyze correctional officers' job motivations and turnover intentions. Udechukwu noted 42% of those who left their jobs did so because of external job opportunities, 26% because of pay, and 13% because of lack of rewards; however, 80% were willing to work for the correctional agency again. Given the high percentage of employees willing to return to work, Udechukwu's results indicated that organizational commitment was not the motivator of turnover (Udechukwu, 2009). Udechukwu postulated the results of high organizational commitment coupled with high turnover pointed to unmet needs motivating the behavior to leave the job.

One prominent needs theory is that of McClelland, outlined in his book, *The Achieving Society* (1961). The needs theory includes the need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989). McClelland (1961) described the need for achievement as the motivator of success for individuals, companies, and countries. According to McClelland, profit was not the motivator for a businessman, but the measure of success associated with achievement. Results from a study of Greek nurses by Gaki et al. (2013) provided support to McClelland's claims. Gaki et al. found that when examining four motivational factors, (a) job attributes factor

such as goals and authority; (b) remuneration factor such as salary; (c) co-worker factor including teamwork and supervisor; and (d) achievement factor, including job meaningfulness and respect, the most important motivational factor was achievement, and the least important motivational factor was remuneration (Gaki et al., 2013).

Researchers, including McClelland (1961), have posited there are two different systems of motivators, implicit motivators, and explicit motivators; the former were the originally innate drives described by McClelland, and the latter a reflection of the employees' values and goals (Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; McClelland et al., 1989). McClelland et al. (1989) described the need for power, the need for affiliation, and the need for achievement as implicit motivators gaining pleasure from the task itself, while self-attributed motivators derive responses from external incentives (McClelland et al., 1989). The implicit motive system is nonconscious and gains pleasure from the task itself, while the explicit system is conscious and gains pleasure from external incentives (Rawolle, Wallis, Badham, & Kehr, 2016).

Köllner and Schultheiss (2014) analyzed 49 papers, 56 independent samples, 6151 participants, and 157 correlations in a meta-analysis to determine the correlation between implicit motivators and explicit motivators. Research results indicated the convergence between implicit and explicit motivators were low, supporting the hypothesis of two independent systems (Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014). Overall, the correlation between the implicit measures of needs and the explicit measures of needs was small and not significant (p = .13).

Implicit and explicit motives are critical to employee retention because they have a direct effect on work-associated behaviors (Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014). Zopiatis et al. (2014) studied the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intentions in Cyprus hotel employees. Results indicated that only extrinsic job satisfaction factors such as wages and supervision were significantly negatively related to turnover intentions (Zopiatis et al., 2014). Intrinsic job satisfaction factors such as growth, recognition, and personal achievement were not significantly related to turnover intentions (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Liu and Arendt's (2016) results conflict with those presented by Zopiatis et al. (2014). Liu and Arendt's study of multi-segments within the hospitality industry found four themes that motivated employees (Liu & Arendt, 2016). The first theme was the job itself; interviewees noted the hospitality job provided them with knowledge development, flexible schedules, and future career development (Liu & Arendt, 2016). The second theme was the need for affiliation; interviewees desired a close relationship with managers and coworkers and enjoyed the work climate and family aspect of the workplace (Liu & Arendt, 2016). The third theme was the need for achievement; employees enjoyed their jobs when they provided recognition, challenges, and responsibilities (Liu & Arendt, 2016). The fourth theme was the need for power; employees noted that hospitability jobs provided a leading role and enabled them to engage with others and become empowered (Liu & Arendt, 2016).

Putra et al.'s (2015) results confirmed both the research results posted by Liu and Arendt (2016) and those from Zopiatis et al. (2014). Putra et al. (2015) reported the importance of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators on work engagement of employees in restaurants. Results of 148 employee surveys across 17 restaurants in a Midwestern U.S. town indicated that, independent of each other, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were significantly and positively related to work engagement, dedication, and absorption (Putra et al., 2015). However, when Putra et al. combined both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, the intrinsic motivators remained significantly related to work engagement, while the extrinsic motivators were no longer significantly related to work-engagement. Results indicated participants placed more emphasis on intrinsic motivators (Putra et al., 2015).

Rawolle et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between motive incongruence and job burnout when mediated by intrinsic motivation. Rawolle et al. (2016) described motive incongruence as when a person faces external motives inconsistent with implicit motives and intrinsic motivation as when a person's behavior aligns with implicit motives and faces no conflicting explicit motives. Results indicated that motive incongruence was associated with a lower intrinsic motivation and higher job burnout (Rawolle et al., 2016). Also, intrinsic motivation mediated the relationship between motive incongruence and job burnout. Rawolle et al. reported two key findings: (a) inconsistent implicit and explicit motives negatively impacted motivation and increased physical and mental exhaustion at work, and (b) intrinsic motivation and job burnout were not only impacted

by factors in the external job environment but also by processes within the individual as misalignment of implicit motivators and explicit motivators (Rawolle et al., 2016).

In the hospitality industry, managers can improve employee retention by ensuring job expectations match job reality (Liu & Arendt, 2016). According to Liu and Arendt (2016), when employees' extrinsic and intrinsic factors align, the fit between expectations and reality improves; for example, an individual who is motivated primarily by financial gain may choose to work in a different industry than someone who is motivated by challenging tasks (Liu & Arendt, 2016). Similarly, Dusek, Ruppel, Yurova, and Clarke (2014) argued that external factors such as pay and internal factors such as personality traits that did not align with the job explained employee turnover.

Dusek et al. (2014) revealed the importance of sociability (need for affiliation) and achievement as factors in job satisfaction and employee retention in the hospitality industry. Dusek et al. (2014) illustrated that service orientation (employees' attitudes, behaviors, and interactions with customers included measures for sociability, desire to make good impressions, agreeableness, resistance to stress, need for achievement, responsibility, and life satisfaction) was not only related to turnover through job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but it was directly related to turnover (Dusek et al., 2014). Results indicated that 30% of the variability in turnover was explained by service orientation (Dusek et al., 2014). These results suggested that managers who are hiring should focus on those with service orientation to reduce future turnover rates and improve customer service and customer loyalty and retention.

Researchers focused on motivators in the hospitality industry (DiPietro, Kline, & Nierop, 2014; Hemdi & Tamalee, 2005; Putra, Cho, & Liu, 2015) noted the importance of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators in work engagement and motivation. DiPietro et al. (2014) asked employees in four Aruba hotels to rank order the importance of certain motivational factors. DiPietro et al. reported that the most important motivational factor was appreciation of a job well done, an intrinsic motivator. Surveyed employees ranked good wages and job security, both extrinsic motivators, at second and fourth place (DiPietro et al., 2014). Results also indicated the most highly rated job component relating to job satisfaction was work accomplishment, aligning with the need for achievement highlighted by McClelland in 1961(DiPietro et al., 2014).

The needs theories and the organizational support theory are aligned in various instances and conflicting in other instances. The need theories are based on the various fulfillments provided by the business (Udechukwu, 2009) and the organizational support theory is based on the organizational fulfilling socioemotional needs and support (Allen & Shanock, 2013). The theories align with similarities between the need for affiliation (Dusek et al., 2014) and organizational support relating to the well-being and socialization of the employee and fulfilling socioemotional needs and social identity (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Further, there are similarities between the need for achievement providing employees with recognition, challenges, and responsibilities (Liu & Arendt, 2016) and the relationship

between POS, empowerment, and employee voice and retention (Afzali et al., 2014; Iqbal & Hashmi, 2015).

The theories are conflicting as the needs theory researchers focus on the individual's needs (McClelland, 1961) while the organizational support theory researchers focus on the dyad between the organization and the employee with the reciprocal nature of their relationship (Eisenberger et al., 1986). I chose the organizational support theory over McClelland's needs theory, for two reasons: (a) the organizational support theory better aligned with the independent variables, and (b) the need for power, from McClelland's theory, did not align well with turnover research of non-executive employees in the tourism industry.

In summary, needs-based theorists, such as McClelland, explain turnover as when certain implicit or explicit needs are not met by the employee's position. Incongruence between the implicit and explicit needs and job reality also explains turnover. The needs theories and the organizational support theory align on the need for affiliation, achievement, and the support and recognition offered by the organization. I chose to use the organizational support theory because it better aligns with the independent variables under investigation.

Hospitality Industry, Service, Organizational Support, and Turnover

The hospitality industry is heavily dependent on the human interactions between employees and customers (Jung & Yoon, 2013). The quality of service is a critical element of organizational performance (Garg & Dhar, 2014). Also, the hospitality

industry has one of the highest voluntary turnover rates across all industries (BLS, 2016b). Therefore, researchers (e.g., Garg & Dhar, 2014; Karatepe, 2014) focused on the impact of organizational support on employee behaviors related to customer service and employees' turnover intentions.

Hospitality industry. The U.S. Department of Commerce (2016) reported the travel accommodation industry generated $242.3 billion in economic output in 2015, up 7.1% from 2014. In 2014, the accommodation and food services industry (NAICS code 72) included over 679 thousand establishments (U.S. Census, 2016c). In 2014, California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington accounted for 81,819, 11,955, 10,831, and 16,505 establishments, respectively (U.S. Census, 2016b; U.S. Census, 2016a; U.S. Census, 2016d).

Within the accommodation and food services industry, the accommodation subsection (NAICS code 721) included over 65 thousand establishments in 2014 (U.S. Census, 2016c), out of which 3,022 were B&Bs, noted as NAICS code 721191 (U.S. Census, 2016c). There are an additional 20,000 inns in the U.S. (Morales, 2015). In 2014, B&Bs provided employment for almost 15,000 thousand individuals, while the overall accommodation subsection provided employment for almost two million individuals (U.S. Census, 2016c).

In 2015, turnover in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, which is 74% higher than average U.S. turnover rate of 41.5% (BLS, 2016a). In 2015, data recorded almost 7.2 million incidences of voluntary quits in the hospitality

industry sector, 6.5 million incidences of voluntarily quits in the accommodation and food services subsection of the hospitality industry (BLS, 2016a). Given the 33.4 million U.S number of voluntary quits, the hospitality sector accounted for 21% of all voluntary quits in 2015 (BLS, 2016a).

Tews et al. (2013) argued that turnover was high in the hospitality industry because entry-level hospitality employees faced lower wages, few benefits, little training, and little opportunity for advancement. Similarly, Kysilka and Csaba (2013) argued turnover in the hospitality industry is high because the average pay of many hospitality jobs is lower than other positions. According to the BLS, in 2014 the mean U.S. salary in all private organizations was $986 weekly salary or $51,296 annually, in contrast to the average weekly salary of $553 or $28,744 annually for those in the accommodations industry (BLS, 2016c). Furthermore, employees working in the B&B subsection of the accommodations industry, earned an average of $363 weekly or an annual salary of $18,879 (BLS, 2016c).

High turnover is associated with high unemployment rates (Vasquez, 2014). The fact is supported by the 2015 U.S. national unemployment rate of 5.3%, as compared to the 7.9% unemployment rate in the leisure and hospitality industry sector (BLS, 2016b). Only the unemployment rate in the mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction industry was higher than the unemployment rate in the leisure and hospitality industry sector (BLS, 2016b).

Customer service, organizational support, and turnover. In service-based organizations such as hotels, employees engage in constant customer service, and the relationship between the employee and the customer relates directly to the service quality and customer satisfaction (Jung & Yoon, 2013). Lodging establishments and restaurants in the hospitality industry are different than businesses that sell a physical product (Dusek et al., 2014). During the creating and delivery of the service, employees must engage with the customer therefore including a high degree of interpersonal interactions (Dusek et al., 2014; Kysilka & Csaba; 2013). Because of the nature of the relationship between the customer and the employee, the service orientation of the employee, their attitudes, and behaviors are critical to the customer's satisfaction (Dusek et al., 2014). In the hospitality industry, service quality is a critical element of organizational performance, driven by customer loyalty and business revenue (Garg & Dhar, 2014).

Karatepe (2014) conducted a study of 212 frontline hotel employees in four hotels in Cameroon to investigate the relationship between supervisor support and service recovery performance. Karatepe defined service recovery performance as the ability to satisfy previously unsatisfied customers, handling complaints, and turning negative customer experiences into positive ones. The results indicated a positive relationship between supervisor support, job embeddedness, service recovery, and job performance (Karatepe, 2014). Karatepe indicated supervisor support was a significant predictor of job embeddedness, which in turn was a significant predictor of service recovery performance. Job embeddedness fully mediated the relationship between supervisor support and service

recovery performance such that when the modeling equation controlled for job embeddedness, the predictive relationship between supervisor support and service recovery performance turned non-significant (Karatepe, 2014).

Garg and Dhar (2014) and Jaiswal and Dhar (2016) conducted similar studies on the relationship between POS, organizational commitment, and service quality. Garg and Dhar used data from 451 employee-customer dyads in 36 small and medium hotels in India to investigate the relationship while Jaiswal and Dhar collected survey information from 436 employees and 1,320 customers from 34 hotels in Uttarakhand. Both Garg and Dhar and Jaiswal and Dhar revealed a positive relationship between POS, organizational commitment, and service quality. In both studies, the results indicated POS was a significant predictor of organizational commitment, which in turn, was a predictor of service quality (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016). The positive predictive relationship between POS and service quality was fully mediated by organization commitment such that when the researchers controlled for organizational commitment, the relationship between POS and service quality was not long significant (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016).

Researchers (Kao et al., 2014; Tews et al., 2013) studied the impact of other types of support and stressors, such as co-workers and customer-based, on service in the hospitality segment. Tews et al. (2013) revealed coworkers' emotional support helped buffer employees from high-stress situation at work, thereby reducing turnover. Tews et al. argued that coworker support was especially important for entry-level hospitality

employees who are confronted with lower wages, few benefits, little training, and little opportunity for advancement. Kao et al. (2014) indicated that customer-based stressors were most highly related to service sabotage. Kao et al. found that customer service organizational orientation moderated the relationship between the stressors and service sabotage, meaning that an organization with a high service climate had a weaker relationship between stressors and work performance.

Researchers (e.g. Cheng et al., 2015; Hancock et al., 2013) studied the relationship between organizational support and turnover and the relationship between turnover and service quality. Cheng et al. (2013) conducted an analysis of hotel employees in Taiwan. Results illustrated employees' POS was a predictor of job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Cheng et al., 2013). Hancock et al. (2013) conducted a meta-analysis and found turnover rates were significantly and negatively predictive of service quality. Also, Hancock et al.'s results illustrated the relationship between turnover and organizational performance was mediated by quality.

In summary, the tourism industry is critical to the U.S. economy given the associated output, number of establishments, and jobs; therefore, the higher than typical turnover rate is a cause for concern. The hospitality industry is heavily dependent on the human interactions between employees and customers and customer service and service quality are important elements of organizational performance in the accommodations sector. Researchers have demonstrated organizational support improved service quality and reduced turnover intentions.

Organizational Support Theory Link to Independent Variables.

In this study, I investigated the relationship between employee retention and several independent variables (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. In this section, I demonstrate the relationship between each independent variable and the theoretical framework of organizational support. Each independent variable supports the relationship between the theoretical framework and employee retention or is a component of the theoretical framework.

Multiple researchers (e.g., Loi, Lam, Ngo, & Cheong, 2015; Turunç & Altuntepe, 2015) investigated the relationship between leadership and POS. Loi et al. (2015) examined the relationship between ethical leadership, POS, and affective commitment. Using data from 176 employees in Macau analyzed with regression analysis, Loi et al. found a positive relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment. Also, Loi et al. found POS mediated the relationship between ethical leadership and commitment.

Turunç and Altuntepe (2015) investigated the relationship between leader support, perceived organizational support, and work entrepreneurship behaviors (defined as innovative and proactive behaviors). Turunç and Altuntepe collected data from 480 Turkish employees. Results of the analysis demonstrated both leaders' support and POS were significantly positively associated with entrepreneurship behaviors (Turunç & Altuntepe, 2015).

Organizational support and co-worker support are related to the well-being and socialization of the employee, resulting in POS, fulfilling socioemotional needs, and providing social identity (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Researchers (Eisenberger et al., 1986) also based organizational support theory on the humanization of the organization. The organization and its leaders provide socialization tactics, thereby increasing the perceived organizational support in the eyes of the new employees, illustrating that organizational leaders are caring and willing to invest in them (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Also, because of the humanization of the organization, employees attribute supervisors' actions to the organization (Shoss et al., 2013). The employees infer that positive and rewarding actions taken by organizational leaders are a reflection of the organization itself caring about their well-being and valuing their work contributions (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Employees also attribute negative behaviors taken by the organizational leaders to the organization and reduce work productivity as retribution against the organization (Shoss et al., 2013).

The fourth and fifth variables are work schedules and work–family conflict, variables related to work conditions required to support POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In an analysis of hourly U.S. workers, Sturman and Walsh (2014) studied the relationship between work schedule and perceived organizational support. Sturman and Walsh illustrated that *work-hours fit*, defined as the difference between desired work hours and actual work hours, was positively associated with POS. Sturman and Walsh

also illustrated work-hours fit was negatively related to work–family conflict and turnover.

Gurbuz, Turunc, and Celik (2013) analyzed the relationship between work–family conflict, family-work conflict, and perceived organizational support. Gurbuz et al. used data from 344 Turkish employees (Gurbuz et al., 2013). Results demonstrated work–family conflict and family-work conflict were negatively associated with perceived organizational support (Gurbuz et al., 2013).

The last independent variables are employee empowerment and employee voice. Iqbal and Hashmi (2015) studied the relationship between POS, empowerment, and employee retention. In a study of 170 employees in Pakistan, Iqbal and Hashmi noted a significant association between POS and employee retention, mediated by psychological empowerment. Similarly, in a study of 280 Iranian bank employees, Afzali et al. (2014) found POS was a significant predictor for psychological empowerment. Psychological empowerment and voice served as mediators between POS and job performance (Afzali et al., 2014).

In conclusion, organizational support and co-worker support are integral parts of organizational support theory by providing for the socialization of employees resulting in perceived organizational support. POS mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and affective commitment, while both POS and leader support are associated with entrepreneurship behaviors. Desired work schedules are positively associated with POS and negatively related to work–family conflict and turnover. Work–family conflict

is negatively associated with perceived organizational support. Finally, psychological empowerment and voice mediate the positive relationship between POS, employee retention, and job performance.

Cost of Turnover

Voluntary turnover is measured as a percent, calculated as the number of employees who voluntarily left their position divided by the number of employees working for the employer at an earlier date (Tews et al., 2013, Tews et al., 2014). For example, Tews et al. (2013) noted the number of employees working for a restaurant chain as of a specific date (baseline) and the number of employees who left the organization in the following six months. Researchers (Tews et al., 2013, Tews et al., 2014) typically measure voluntary turnover within a short time period, such as six months, of the baseline employment level measurement.

Multiple researchers (e.g., Hancock et al., 2013; Kacmar et al., 2006; Kwon & Rupp, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013) noted the negative relationship between employee turnover and organizational performance. Having established the negative relationship, researchers focused on the shape of the relationship (e.g., Hancock et al., 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013) and the components of organizational performance impacted by turnover (Hancock et al., 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013; North et al., 2013). Also, researchers studied the factors moderating and mediating the negative impact of turnover (Kacmar et al., 2006; Park & Shaw, 2013), and the magnitude of the impact (Hancock et al., 2013; Kwon & Rupp, 2012; Park & Shaw, 2013).

In a meta-analysis including 48 independent studies and a total sample size of 24,943, Hancock et al. (2013) validated the relationship between turnover and organizational performance was curvilinear. A curvilinear shape means that the impact to organizational change varies in a non-constant rate as turnover rates change (Hancock et al., 2013). Park and Shaw also conducted a meta-analysis (2013) that provided supporting evidence that the relationship between turnover and performance was not linear and was most likely curvilinear.

Hancock et al. (2013), Park and Shaw (2013), and Heavey, Holwerda, and Hausknecht (2013) focused on the components of organizational performance impacted by turnover, and categorized performance into proximal measures (workforce related) and distal measures (financial performance). Hancock et al. found the relationship between turnover and organizational performance was stronger with measures of customer service, quality, safety, and productivity than measures of financial performance. In addition, Hancock et al. found turnover to be a significant predictor of customer service, quality, and safety but not a significant predictor of productivity or financial performance.

Similarly, Park and Shaw (2013) found the relationship between turnover and performance was strongest with customer satisfaction and quality, somewhat weaker for employee work attitudes, and even weaker with workforce productivity and financial performance. Overall, Park and Shaw illustrated the relationship between turnover and performance was stronger for proximal performance measures, weaker for less proximal

measures, and weaker still for distal measures. When examining only voluntary turnover, the relationship between turnover and distal measures was no longer significant (Park & Shaw, 2013).

Heavey et al. (2013) noted similar results when investigating the effects of collective turnover. Collective turnover is the aggregated rate of employee departure for a group, department, or organization (Heavey et al., 2013). Heavey et al. found significant relationships between higher collective turnover and proximal measures of (a) lower customer satisfaction, (b) lower production efficiency, (c) higher error rates, and (d) higher counter productivity. Also, results indicated the relationships between collective turnover and distal organizational performance metrics of (a) return-on-assets (ROA), (b) return-on-equity (ROE), (c) operating profit, (d) sales, and (e) sales growth were not significant (Heavey et al., 2013). Only two distal measures, sales efficiency and profit margin, were significantly related to collective turnover (Heavey et al., 2013). As noted by Park and Shaw (2013), the strength of the relationships was stronger for proximal performance outcomes than for distal performance outcomes.

By contrast, Kwon and Rupp (2013) found a significant negative relationship between voluntary turnover rate and financial performance measures of Return on Assets (ROA) and Return on Equity (ROE). Kwon and Rupp conducted robust research with a sample of 155 firms across multiple industries with a focus of the impact of high-performing employees' turnover on performance. The focus on high-performing

employees, defined as the top 20% performing employee, may account for the differences in results.

Turnover itself, the process of employees leaving the organization and the organization's response to employees leaving, includes various costs including hiring and training costs (North et al., 2013; Vasquez, 2014). Turnover is associated with direct and indirect costs such as the cost of advertising, headhunting, loss of productivity, training new employees, negative impact to the brand, customer services interruptions (Kysilka & Csaba, 2013). Lashley (2001) studied turnover in English pubs. Lashley noted managers estimated direct costs such as time spent on recruitment, training, and interviewing. However, managers had greater difficulty addressing the indirect costs such as service disruption and customer dissatisfaction (Lashley, 2001).

Analysis of nurses' turnover in New Zealand by North et al. (2013) included (a) hiring costs, (b) advertising and recruitment costs, (c) training costs, and (d) costs associated with finding temporary means of covering the work otherwise done by the employee who left the organization. According to North et al., the highest cost components included the resources needed for temporary cover and the initial lower productivity associated with new employees. Similarly, Lashley (2001) noted the indirect costs of reduced sales and customers due to service degradation contributed equally or more than direct costs to the overall costs of staff turnover. Tracey and Hinkin (2008) purported turnover (a) compromises customer service and product quality, (b) increases hiring and training costs, and (c) includes opportunity costs such as missed sales and lost

customers. In an analysis for cost components, Tracey and Hinkin noted more than half of the total turnover costs originated from productivity loss.

Additional researchers (Kacmar et al., 2006; Vasquez, 2014) noted the relationship between turnover and reduced productivity and efficiency. Vasquez (2014) proposed productivity declined as a result of turnover because new employees were initially less productive than those they replaced and because experienced employees were spending time and effort on training the new employees instead of focusing on other job duties. Similarly, Kacmar et al. (2006) studied the mediating effect of employee efficiency on the relationship between employee turnover and firm performance at 262 fast-food restaurants. Kacmar et al. measured employee efficiency by customer wait-time and firm performance in terms of sales and profits. Results indicated that turnover was a predictor of efficiency, which, in turn, was predictive of firm performance (Kacmar et al., 2006). Therefore, efficiency mediated the relationship between employee turnover and firm performance (Kacmar et al., 2006).

Researchers (Hancock et al., 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013) focused on factors moderating and mediating the relationship between turnover and organizational performance. Hancock et al. (2013) demonstrated that safety and quality mediated the relationship between turnover and financial performance. The mediated association meant the relationship between turnover and quality and safety was significant, and the relationship between quality and safety and financial performance was significant, but the

direct relationship between turnover and financial performance was not significant when controlling for quality and safety (Hancock et al., 2013).

Hancock et al. (2013) also illustrated industry type moderated the relationship between turnover and organizational performance. Hancock et al. noted that industries associated with higher knowledge or skills, such as service industries, had a stronger relationship between turnover and performance. Similarly, Park and Shaw (2013) noted the negative relationship between voluntary turnover and organizational performance was stronger in industries with higher human capital utilization, such as the service industry.

By contrast, Kwon and Rupp (2013) noted conflicting results about the moderating effect of firms investing in human capital. Kwon and Rupp noted firms that invested highly in human capital had a weaker relationship between voluntary turnover and firm performance. Regarding the moderating effects, Kwon and Rupp asserted that companies that invest highly in human capital incur high costs associated with high performers leaving the organization but also maintain a large pool of high performer employees who mitigate the effects of turnover (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). The conflicting results may be the result of focused attention on high-performing employee turnover, not the effect of company-wide turnover.

Multiple researchers (e.g. Hancock et al., 2013; Kwon & Rupp, 2013; Park & Shaw, 2013) did not stop after having identified turnover as costly to the organization. Rather, these researchers attempted to quantify the magnitude of the problem based on the results of their study. Hancock et al. (2013) applied the significant association

between turnover and performance noted in their study to the top 1,000 Fortune companies in 2009 and estimated that one standard deviation decrease in turnover equated to $151 million in increased profits (Hancock et al., 2013). Similarly, Park and Shaw (2013) applied their research results to a representative sample of U.S. organizations and noted that an increase of one standard deviation in turnover rates, from 12% to 22%, was associated with a decrease in productivity of 40% and a decrease in financial performance by 26% (Park & Shaw, 2013).

Similarly, Kwon and Rupp (2013) noted that when high-performing employees' turnover increased 1% from the mean, ROA decreased by 3%, while ROE decreased 8.2% (Kwon & Rupp, 2013). Kwon and Rupp found that high-performing employees' turnover accounted for 6% to 20% of the variance in firm performance. These results suggest that voluntary turnover is costly to the organization, while employee retention can create competitive advantage.

Vasquez (2014) purported higher employee retention improved employee satisfaction and customer service (Vasquez, 2014). Further, Poulston (2008) noted employee retention was associated with improved organizational image and reputation. On a national level, employee retention contributes to economic stability and growth through job security, increased disposable income, and increased expenditures on goods and services (Vasquez, 2014).

In conclusion, turnover is costly to an organization in terms of customer service, quality, safety, productivity, error-rate, and efficiency. The negative effect is stronger for

proximal measures but turnover impacts overall company performance through the mediated factors mention above. Turnover is also costly in terms of direct costs associated with advertising, headhunting, and training. The magnitude of turnover is very large in terms of lost profits, decreased productivity, and decreased financial performance. Employee retention, in addition to improving company performance, is critical for economic stability and growth.

Summary and Transition

In Section 1, I reviewed the foundation of the study, background of the problem, the problem statement, and the purpose statement. The foundation of the study is based on the cost of voluntary turnover in the travel accommodations industry. The background section included details on the negative effects of turnover in terms of decreased productivity, business performance, industry performance, and higher unemployment rates.

The problem statement included a hook, anchor, general business problem, and a specific business problem of small lodging establishment managers have limited information about the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment and employee retention. In the purpose statement, I noted the use of a quantitative correlational study, the population of interest being B&Bs in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. Section 1 included discussion of the positive business and social impact expected from the research.

In Section 1, I outlined the reasoning for using a quantitative correlational modeling-based research design, and included a summarization of the theoretical framework, the organizational support theory. The section also included the primary research question and hypothesis, operational definitions of terms used throughout the document, and a section on assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Finally, this section included the significance of the study for the businesses in the travel accommodation industry and positive social change.

The remaining portion of Section 1 included a detailed analysis and synthesis of existing literature to support the research topic. In the literature review, I summarized the relationship between the proposed antecedent variables (ethical leadership, organizational support, co-worker support, work schedules, work–family conflict, employee voice, and empowerment) and employee retention. Section 1 included a discussion of the theoretical framework, organizational support theory, and noted how the underpinning of the theoretical framework related to the independent variables of the study.

In Section 1, I connected the theory to impact on the employee, impact to the business, and impact to work performance and turnover. In the review of the organizational support theory, the intent was to introduce alternative theories and how they aligned with the chosen theoretical framework. Finally, Section 1 included a synthesis of literature on the hospitality industry, customer service, the implication to turnover, and the cost of turnover.

In Section 2, I review the role of the researcher, research method, research design, and ethical research. Section 2 includes a review of the population and sampling strategies, sample size, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis methods, and threats to external and internal validity. Section 3 includes findings, the application to the small accommodations lodging industry, the implications for social change, recommendations for action, and recommendation for future research.

Section 2: The Project

Section 2 includes a discussion of the research method and design used to conduct a quantitative correlational study to investigate the association between antecedent variables and employee turnover. I also provide a discussion of the role of the researcher, ethical guidelines, information about the population, sample eligibility, and sampling technique. Finally, Section 2 includes a discussion of data collection methods, data collection instruments, data analysis methods, and examine validity.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment and employee retention at small lodging establishments. The dependent variable was employee retention; its complement being voluntary turnover rate, defined as a percent of the workforce who leave their jobs voluntarily in a given period. The independent variables were common tourism industry established antecedent variables: (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. The population consisted of B&B establishments in four southwestern U.S. states: California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington.

Employee turnover contributes to higher unemployment and lower economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Alternatively, improved retention lowers unemployment and

increases economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Given the tourism's industry contribution to the U.S. economy - $243.4 billion in economic output in 2015 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2016) – improved retention and increased economic growth have substantial social change implications.

Role of the Researcher

In a quantitative study, the role of the researcher is to test a theory by collecting data that supports or refutes the hypothesis (McNabb, 2015). The researcher ensures the generalizability of the results by the process of participant selection; by using random selection the researcher minimizes bias and removes the influence of external variables (Sargeant, 2012). The researcher determines the required sample size or the number of participants, by assessing the a priori value, expected variance in the data, and sufficient power to ensure the results are attributed to the variables studies and not random variability (Sargeant, 2012).

The role of the researcher is to make all biases explicit and to take measures to reduce the impact of personal biases on the quality of data collection and data analysis (Greaney et al., 2012; Sargeant, 2012). Ethical researchers expose their biases and conduct research in ways productive to themselves, the participants, and the community (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). I am familiar with the industry as my parents own and operate two B&Bs in Sedona, Arizona. My parents did not take role as participants in this study and I had no relationship with any participant in the study.

I collected data online from a survey of 130 participants in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington to determine the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment and employee retention at small lodging establishments. Data collection was digital to alleviate the cost and time required associated with administering the survey by mail or in person (Hohwü et al., 2013; Nair, 2013). The instrument was a collection of surveys, previously validated by other researchers. Once the data collection was complete, I analyzed the data with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 and with SAS version 9.4.

The researcher conducts research within situational context that shapes the meaning he or she draws from the data (Abma & Stake, 2014). The researcher is an instrument, interpreting the data and therefore, influencing the results (Abma & Stake, 2014). Scientific research, regardless of the methods and design used, is never truly conducted or interpreted in a vacuum because of the inherent biases of the researcher (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). It is, therefore, incumbent upon the researcher to be self-aware of his or her biases and make them known and explicit in the research (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013).

To mitigate personal bias, I did not serve the role of a participant or an observer in the study. I collected data electronically, through a survey, and without further communication or interaction with the participants. It is also the role of the researcher to ensure data confidentiality, privacy, storage, and disposal (Greaney et al., 2012). I was

solely responsible for the collection, storage, and analysis of the data. I maintained the confidentiality of the data, stored the data in password-protected files and a safe, and will dispose of the data 5 years from graduation.

The role of the researcher is to perform the research with honesty, integrity, and loyalty, with respect for life, the participants, and the environment, and with accountability to address the source of funding, conflicts of interest, and other biases (Lategan, 2012). Following the Belmont Report, and other guidelines, I focused on three ethical principles: (a) beneficence, (b) justice, and (c) respect for the person (Cugini, 2015; Miracle, 2016). Beneficence is the obligation to minimize risk or harm while maximizing the potential benefits to the participants (Cugini, 2015; Miracle, 2016). Justice is the commitment to treat participants equitably and equally regarding the distribution of risk and rewards (Cugini, 2015; Miracle, 2016). Justice also means that minority groups are not excluded from research, therefore, the researcher must clearly identify in the research protocol the criteria required for inclusion in the study (Greaney et al., 2012). Respect for the person relates to autonomy and making informed decisions including providing consent (Cugini, 2015). Respect ensures subjects are autonomous, able to make their own choices, and allows additional allowances for persons limited in autonomy, such as minor or prisoners (Miracle, 2016).

A key element of the Belmont Report is informed consent that includes the purpose of the research, explanation of the procedures, risk, and benefits, and the knowledge that participants can withdraw from the study without fear of reprisal

(Miracle, 2016). Each participant provided consent prior to completing the survey. I articulated the voluntary nature of participation and ensured those who do not wish to participate could withdraw without penalty. To improve the study's reliability and validity, when using surveys, the researcher should use appropriate questions that are not biased or leading (Sargeant, 2012). In keeping with that principle, I reviewed all questions for clarity and used previously validated instruments.

The Belmont Report is the framework used by institutional review boards (IRB) to assess research regarding the ethical handling of human subjects (Miracle, 2016). The IRB reviews all applications of research involving humans to ensure the three ethical principles outlined by the Belmont Report are upheld (Cugini, 2015). This study involves human participants, therefore, the Walden University Institutional Review Board reviewed the research application prior to the data collection and analysis. The IRB approval number is 05-11-17-0613665, expiring on 5/10/2018.

Participants

Per the U.S. Census, NAICS code 721191, representing B&Bs (B&Bs), included 3,022 establishments nationwide in 2014 (U.S. Census, 2016c). Yet, there are few studies focused on the B&B segment within the lodging industry (Crawford, Deale, & Merritt, 2013). The population of this study consisted of highest-level managers (often the owners) of B&Bs located in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. To ensure the B&Bs were large enough to employ individuals beyond the owner and manager, I restricted the sample to properties with a minimum of four rooms. Crawford et al. (2013)

found the number of guest rooms ranged from four to 80, with an average of 13 guest rooms.

Participants in the study met the following criteria: (a) 18 years of age or older; (b) highest manager or operator of the B&B; (c) B&B located in California, Arizona, Oregon, or Washington; and (d) B&B has a minimum of four rooms. I did not consider other characteristics such as ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic status. Using the selection criteria helped ensure the results represented the larger population (Englander, 2012). Once receiving Walden University IRB approval (approval number 5-11-17-0613665), I selected potential participants using simple random selection, the method most likely to remove bias of extraneous variables (Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Khan, 2014).

In simple random selection, each member of the qualifying population has an equal chance of selection (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). Random selection is the method most likely to result with findings representative of the larger population (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015). If the researcher believes the population is heterogenous, in terms of the outcome investigated, stratified random sampling is appropriate; otherwise simple random selection provides the most precise estimate of the population (Solanki & Singh, 2015).

I created a list of all eligible properties using the bedandbreakfast.com website and used random selection to identify the proposed sample. With the intent of enlisting participation, I called each B&B prior to sending the survey (see Appendix A). Calls and

emailed surveys to potential participants continued until I reached the targeted sample size.

Following the phone call, I emailed all participants who agreed to receive the survey (see Appendix B) the same information shared on the phone call (see Appendix A) to clarify the objective of the research, confidentiality, data security, risks, and benefits. Hazel and Clark (2013) noted multiple contacts with potential participants improved response rate. The intent of the follow-up email was to improve the response rate, include instructions of how to participate in the study (Appendix B), and provide a consent form.

To further improve the response rate, I followed the initial survey with a reminder email for all participants. Crawford, Deale, and Merritt (2013) noted that sending a reminder email increased the number of responses. Multiple contacts, along with sharing the results from the study and transparency, confer respect for the participants (Miller et al., 2012) and improve the accuracy of the findings (Campbell et al., 2014).

Research Method and Design

The researcher must choose the method for research not as the means to an end but to best answer the research question (Pettigrew, 2013). The goal of research, regardless of method, is to explain how the world works (Campbell et al., 2014). I chose the quantitative method as it was most appropriate for answering the research question.

Research Method

The goal of this study was to extend prior knowledge of employee turnover antecedent variables to the B&B lodging industry segment. The quantitative method is the appropriate method as quantitative researchers attempt to generalize and promote calibration (Pettigrew, 2013). The goal of quantitative work is theory testing and extension (Pettigrew, 2013). The researcher relies on deductive reasoning to test hypothesis which verify, refute, or modify a theory (Khan, 2014; Yilmaz, 2013); and to test if the theory explains the measured phenomenon (Yilmaz, 2013).

Quantitative methods produce factual, reliable results that can be generalizable to a larger population (Chowdhury, 2014). Quantitative researchers often use surveys with close-ended questions with a large sample (Karanja, Zaveri, & Ahmed, 2013; Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). Large sample sizes make qualitative research based on narrative, detailed, elaborative data collection (Arendt et al., 2012; Khan, 2014), impractical.

The purpose of the study was to assess the relationship between six independent variables and voluntary employee turnover. I examined the degree of association and the predictive power of each independent variable. Using quantitative methods, the researcher studies the independent and dependent variables to explain and predict relationships (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). Although the purpose of quantitative methods is to generalize the results from the sample to a larger population, one still needs to use caution when generalizing results (Hoare & Hoe, 2013). Generalization may occur if the sample is a true representation of the population (Englander, 2012; Hoare & Hoe, 2013).

I considered the qualitative and mixed-method approaches but determined they were not appropriate for this research study. Qualitative wok is contextually grounded, detailed, interpretive, and dynamic as the researcher attempts to understand the process, not only the outcomes (Khan, 2014; Pettigrew, 2013). The qualitative researcher emphasizes narrative, descriptions, and interpretation (Arendt et al., 2012; Pettigrew, 2013). Qualitative researchers seek to construct relationships and explore new, and often less-understood, phenomenon (Khan, 2014) while the phenomenon I studied is well-developed, explored, and validated.

The goal of qualitative work is theory development and elaboration (Khan, 2014; Pettigrew, 2013), where the researcher relies on inductive reasoning (Khan, 2014). I based this research on developed mature theory, making the qualitative method not well suited for the research. Qualitative work is emergent, interpretive, flexible, holistic, and interpretative, where the researcher observes cases in their natural setting and explain phenomenon in context and with meaning (Bailey, 2014; Yilmaz, 2013). I did not rely on observing cases in their natural settings nor exploring the phenomenon in context; therefore, qualitative methods were not appropriate. The mixed method is a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Venkatesh et al., 2013). The exclusion of qualitative focus also excluded the need to utilize the mixed method.

Research Design

In the study, I used a correlational modeling-based design. Examining the relationship between (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker

support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and employee retention was most suitable for a correlational design. Quantitative researchers use correlational designs to examine the relationships between independent variables and the dependent variable (Green & Salkind, 2014; Withers & Nadarajah, 2013). Correlation coefficients measure the strength and directionality of association between two variables (Hoare & Hoe, 2013; Withers & Nadarajah, 2013). A researcher using regression modeling describes the relationship between multiple independent variables and a dependent variable and predicts future values of the dependent variable from the independent variables in the regression (Hoare & Hoe, 2013).

In quantitative methods, the researcher can use a descriptive design (correlation) to establish association or an experimental design to establish causality (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013; Froman & Owen, 2014). The goal of experimental research is to measure cause-and-effect relationships (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). A true experimental design is based on three criteria: (a) the cause must precede the effect, (b) cause-and-effect are correlated, and (c) the relationship between cause and effect is not explained by another variable (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). In true experiments, the researchers must control or minimize the threat to validity by randomly assigning participants into an experimental or control group (Cokley & Award, 2013; Froman & Owen, 2014; Haegele & Hodge, 2015).

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between seven antecedent variables and employee retention, not to randomly assign treatments, or assess resulting reactions; therefore, the experimental and quasi-experimental designs were not appropriate for this study. In most real-world scenarios, the researcher is not able to randomly assign participants into a treatment or control group, resulting in correlational studies (Froman & Owen, 2014; Haegele & Hodge, 2015). I did not wish to determine causality in this study, making the experimental design inappropriate for this study. Unlike experimental designs, researchers using correlational design do not examine causality (Froman & Owen, 2014; Orcher, 2014).

Quantitative correlational studies are often based on large samples (Karanja et al., 2013; Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). The researcher can reduce bias if he or she obtains a large sample and randomly selects participants (Englander, 2012; Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). I used simple random selection during the participant sample selection process, to reduce bias and the confounding effects of the extraneous variables on the dependent variable (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). Randomization, during the selection process, is one way to improve internal validity, or the researcher can control for the extraneous variables statistically through analysis of covariance (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013).

Previous researchers cited in the literature review (Blomme et al., 2010; Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015; Hechanova, 2013; Ryan et al., 2015) used correlational design when studying the topic of employee turnover. In reviewing these studies, I found the

correlational design to be the most appropriate design for this study. Experimental design, although providing the benefit of determining causality (Froman & Owen, 2014; Orcher, 2014), was not used in any of the previous research cited in the literature review given the inability of the researcher to apply treatment or randomly assign subjects.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study consisted of managers of B&Bs in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. According to data from the U.S. Census, NAICS code 721191, representing B&Bs, included 3,022 establishments nationwide in 2014 (U.S. Census, 2016c). The population included 297 B&Bs in California, 46 in Arizona, 72 in Oregon, and 97 in Washington (U.S. Census, 2016d).

Sampling consists of selecting a sample to understand the larger population (Khan, 2014). There are multiple sampling methods for selecting participants, therefore, the researcher must choose the method that is appropriate for the research question and would result in valid results (Khan, 2014). The researcher can use probability sampling, where every member of the population has an equal probability of selection or non-probability sampling, where every member of the population does not have an equal chance of selection (Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Kandola, Banner, O'keefe-McCarty, & Jassal, 2014).

The sampling method proposed in this study is probability sampling. Researchers using probability sampling reduce the potential for selection bias or skewed results (Kandola et al., 2014). Within the category of probability sampling methods, the

researcher can apply simple random selection, stratified random selection, systematic sampling, and cluster random sampling (Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Kandola et al., 2014).

In the category of probability sampling, I used simple random selection. Simple random sampling is the best method to ensure the sample is representative of the population and reduce bias or the effects of extraneous variables (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Solanki & Singh, 2015). I investigated other techniques of random selection, such as cluster and stratified sampling, but since the population is not heterogenous in terms of the outcome investigated, nor is access to the population complicated, simple random selection provided the most precise estimate of the population (Kandola et al., 2014; Solanki & Singh, 2015).

I also investigated using nonprobability sampling methods such as convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, hazard sampling, and respondent-driven sampling (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; McCreesh, Tarsh, Seeley, Katongole & White, 2013). However, researchers using nonprobability sampling may obtain non-generalizable results (Cokley & Award, 2013; Kandola et al., 2014). Also, researchers may incur selection bias and lack of control over extraneous variables (Cokley & Award, 2013; Kandola et al., 2014). Given the bias associated in the nonprobability sampling techniques, I believe the probability sampling technique best fit this study.

To use simple random sampling, the researcher needs to define the population and a sampling frame, which includes the list of all participants in the population (Kandola et

al., 2014). I identified the sampling frame by listing all B&Bs in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington, using bedandbreakfast.com. According to the U.S. Census, the sampling frame should include approximately 297 B&Bs in California, 46 in Arizona, 72 in Oregon, and 97 in Washington (U.S. Census, 2016d).

In quantitative methods, the sample size is determined by the minimization of Type I and Type II errors, while in qualitative research the sample size is determined based on precedent of similar research and type of analysis (Palinkas et al., 2015). I determined the required sample size by conducting a-priori power analysis, based on the expected effect size, significance level α, and the desired power level (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The power of a statistical test is the ability to reject the null hypothesis correctly, therefore, it is the complement of Type II error (Lakens, 2013; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). I ran an a priori analysis for multiple linear regression using the G*Power 3.1 software to calculate needed sample size as a function of the specified effect size of .15, significance level α of .05, seven independent variables, and .9 desired power level (1-β). The analysis resulted in a needed sample size of 130 participants.

Effect size illustrates the magnitude of reported results in a standardized metric that allows for comparisons between studies and meta-analysis comparisons, and serves as a baseline for a-priori power analysis (Lakens, 2013). In an analysis of variance, the effect size is an estimate of the proportion of variability explained by each independent variable (Fritz, Morris, & Richler, 2012). Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) found

small effect sizes, ranging from .15 to .23. Similarly, Tews et al. (2013) found an effect size of 0.11, based on adjusted R^2 calculations proposed by Fritz, Morris, and Richler (2012). Blomme et al.'s (2010) research of work–family conflict and turnover noted an effect size of .27 (adjusted R^2).

Using the G*Power 3.1 software, I plotted the needed sample size, with significance level α of .05, the desired power level (1-β) of .9, seven independent variables, and effect size ranging from .1 to .5 (see Figure 1). As illustrated in Figure 1, given a small effect size of .15, the needed sample size is 130 participants. Given a small to medium effect size of .27, the needed sample size is 76 participants.

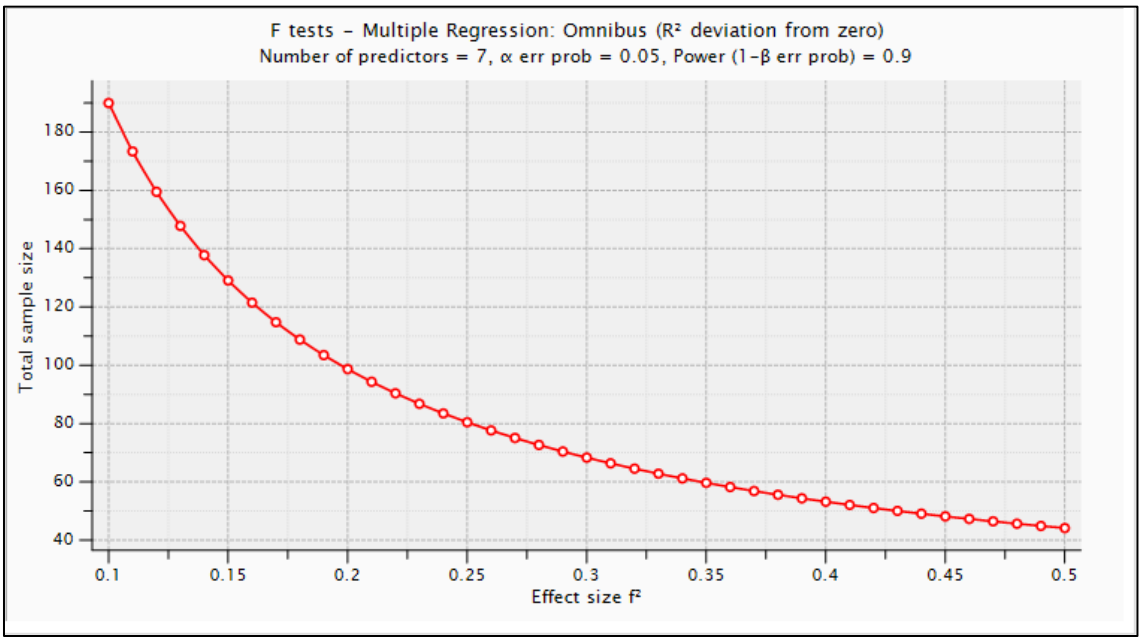

Figure 1. Varying levels of effect size and needed sample size.

The minimum accepted level of power is .8 (Lakens, 2013); therefore, I investigated the sample size needed for varying levels of power (see Figure 2). As illustrated in Figure 1, given effect size of .15, significance level α of .05, and seven independent variables, the needed sample size with .8 level of power is 103 participants. The same criteria with a .9 level of power results in 130 number of participants. To be conservative, and eliminate the probability of error on too many participants, I determined the final sample size with a small effect size of .15 and a high level of power of .9 is 130 participants. When I worked to collect the survey data, I realized it was very difficult to have B&B owners respond to the survey. I therefore lowered the power level to .8 and stop collecting data at 103 respondents.

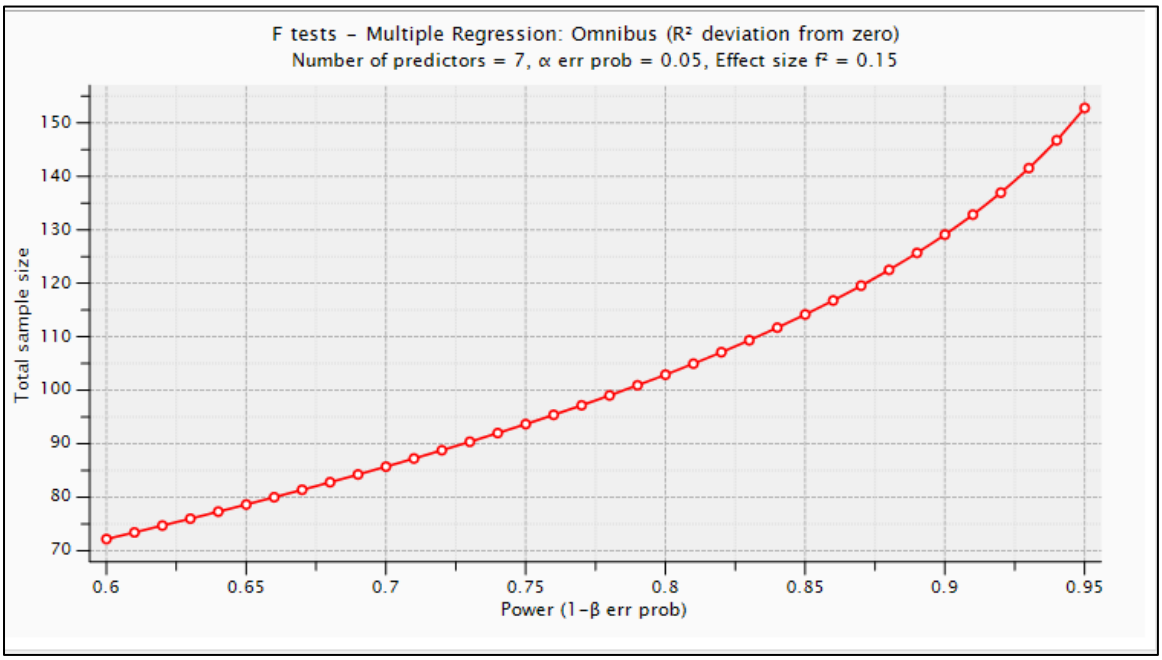

Figure 2. Varying levels of power and needed sample size.

Ethical Research

Numerous federal regulations and international guidelines provide guidance on ethical research, including The Nuremberg Code of 1947, The Belmont Report of 1979, the Declaration of Helsinki in 1964, the Protection of Human Subjects Law in 1981, and the World Health Organization International Guidelines (Cugini, 2015; Miracle, 2016). The Belmont Report focuses on three ethical principles: (a) beneficence, (b) justice, and (c) respect for the person (Cugini, 2015; Miracle, 2016). Beneficence is the obligation to minimize risk to the participants, justice is the commitment to teat participants equitably and equally regarding the distribution of risk and rewards, and respect for the person relates to autonomy and making informed decisions including providing consent (Cugini, 2015).

Beneficence ensures researchers minimize harm and maximize the potential benefits to subjects (Miracle, 2016). I reviewed the survey and determined answering the questions did not cause harm to the participants. Approval by the Walden University IRB member also ensured the survey questions did not harm the participants. Sharing summarized results of the study provided the participants with benefit from participation (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). I included the possible risks and benefits associated with participation in the consent form.

Justice means researchers provide equal treatment and fairness to all participants (Miracle, 2016). Justice ensures researchers do not exclude minority groups from research, therefore, the researcher must clearly identify the criteria required for inclusion

in the study (Greaney et al., 2012). To generalize the results of the study to similar B&Bs nationwide, I included four requirements for participant selection: (a) 18 years of age or older; (b) highest manager or operator of the B&B; (c) B&B located in California, Arizona, Oregon, or Washington; and (d) B&B has a minimum of four rooms. The criteria required for inclusion in the sample was included in the survey participation form (Appendix B). Any manager in a B&B meeting the criteria had an equal probability of being selected as a participant. Simple random selection of participants who meet the criteria ensured I provided equal treatment and fairness to all participants.

Respect for persons includes informed consent, confidentiality, and access to participation (Greaney et al., 2012). The researcher must obtain informed voluntary consent prior to data collection (Khan, 2014). I provided all participants with a consent form, that included information about the voluntary nature of the study, and the ability to withdraw from the study without fear of reprisal. Respect for persons means subjects are autonomous, have the capacity and authority to give consent, and allowed additional allowances if limited in autonomy, such as minor or prisoners (Greaney et al., 2012; Miracle, 2016). The targeted participants in this study did not belong to a protected class, such as minors or prisoners, and did not require special allowances.

Informed consent requires researchers to disclose the purpose of the research, explanation of the procedures, risk, and benefits, and the knowledge that participants can withdraw from the study without fear of reprisal (Judkins-Cohn, Kielwasser-Withrow, Owen & Ward, 2013; Miracle, 2016). In the consent form, I included background

information on the study, information on the procedures, risks, benefits, payment information, and privacy information. The consent form also included information about data confidentiality, anonymity, and security. Transparency is fundamental in the process of acquiring informed consent (Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014; Pettigrew, 2013). Greater transparency in all areas of research improves the accuracy of the findings (Campbell et al., 2014). Furthermore, the researcher should strive for transparency in every stage of the research such as during the theoretical positioning, research question development, selection of theory, participant selection, method and design selection, and form of analysis (Pettigrew, 2013).

The Belmont Report is the framework used by institutional review boards (IRB) to assess research regarding the ethical handling of human subjects (Miracle, 2016). IRBs are the authority of ethics in research involving human subjects (King, 2015). Prior to data collection, I submitted the short-form ethics approval application to the Walden University IRB member for review. The IRB reviewers ensures the potential risk to subject is minimized and participants provided informed consent that clearly articulated the purpose of the research, the risks and benefits to the participants, confidentiality, and the ability to refuse to participate without fear of reprisal (Cugini, 2015; Judkins-Cohn et al., 2014). The final doctoral manuscript includes the Walden IRB approval number, which is 05-11-17-0613665, expiring on 5/10/2018.

The researcher conducts research within situational context that shape the meaning he or she draws from the data (Abma & Stake, 2014). The researcher, even

when trying to remain unbiased and neutral, infuse his or her values and cultural, political, economic biases into his or her research (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). I have declared my knowledge and ties to the industry in the recruitment letter (see Appendix A) and in the survey participation document (see Appendix B). Scientific research, regardless of the methods and design used, is never truly conducted or interpreted in a vacuum because of the inherent biases of the researcher (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). When conducting ethical research, therefore, it is incumbent upon the researcher, to be self-aware of his or her biases and make them known and explicit in the research (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013; Sargeant, 2012).

Ethics is integral to scientific research (Lategan, 2012). The role of the researcher is to perform the research with honesty, integrity, and loyalty, with respect for life, the participants, and the environment, and with accountability to address the source of funding, conflicts of interest, and other biases (Lategan, 2012). Researchers who treat their participants with trust and respect, guided by ethical guidelines based on the desire to aid the community, receive the benefit of empowering research (Denison & Stillman, 2012). I ensured honesty and integrity through transparency in all steps of the study (Miller et al., 2012), as I outlined the background of the study, biases, procedures, risks, benefits, payments, and privacy information in the recruitment letter (see Appendix A), the survey participation letter (see Appendix B), and the consent form.

In the recruitment letter (Appendix A), survey participation (Appendix B), and consent form, I described my intentions to share a summary of the study's results with the

participants. Researchers should conduct research that is mutually beneficial to themselves and the participants (Denison & Stillman, 2012). The researcher can empower the participants by sharing the details of the research (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). Ethical researchers allow for meaningful participation where participants in the study contribute to the study's data but also gain from the meanings garnered during the study and the results of the study (Fassinger & Marrow, 2013). Researchers may also provide benefit to the participants through awareness of developments in the field of study (Miller et al., 2012).

In the recruitment letter (Appendix A) and survey participation (Appendix B), I described the processes taken to ensure the data and results are anonymized, secure, and confidential. It is the role of the researcher to ensure data confidentiality, privacy, storage, and disposal (Greaney et al., 2012; Khan, 2014). Data collected should not have personal identification but rather pseudonyms or masked markers (Khan, 2014). Researcher must keep all hard copies of data, such as transcripts or recordings, in a locked cabinet or a safe, and any electronic data in password protected files (Khan, 2014). I identified the data collected from B&B managers with a location identification number to mask the name of the property and secured all materials in a locked cabinet and all electronic data in password-protected files. I will destroy all data 5 years after completion of the study.

Data Collection Instruments

The goal of the study was to understand the influence of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment on employee retention at B&Bs. No single instrument was available to measure the seven independent variables. Therefore, the instrument I used is a compilation of (a) six scales, each representing a validated instrument for a specific independent variable; (b) work schedule measured by working hours; and (c) the dependent variable measured with two data points.

The complete instrument included a total of 56 items: (a) 10 items measuring ethical leadership, (b) eight items measuring organizational support, (c) eight items measuring coworker support, (d) three questions measuring work schedules, (e) five items measuring work–family conflict, (f) six item measuring voice, (g) nine items measuring empowerment, (h) five situational and demographic items, and (i) two questions measuring employee turnover. The full survey should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. In the following subsections, I detail each instrument used, along with measurements of reliability and validity, and precedence of use.

Ethical leadership. To measure ethical leadership, I used the 10-item Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS; Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005). Brown et al. (2005) developed the ELS to provide a valid measure of ethical leadership and noted the relationship between ethical leadership and employee outcomes. I received permission to use the scale from Dr. Brown on February 6th, 2017 (see Appendix C). A sample item

from the ethical leadership survey is *Listens to what employees have to say* (Brown et al., 2005). The full ELS is included in Appendix D.

Brown et al. (2005) initially developed the scale with 48 items and validated the items against the statements of ethical leadership from 20 MBA students. When the list of items was deemed complete, Brown et al. tested the scale using 154 MBA students and conducting factor analysis. The resulting loading factors resulted in 21 items, which was later reduced to 10-items to remove redundancy (Brown et al., 2005). Following the study, Brown et al. conducted a second study, again performed factor analysis, noting one significant factor with all 10-items loading factors above .5, and Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92. Brown et al. continued to validate the ELS with Study #3, Study #4, Study #5, Study #6, and Study #7. All following studies had various participants (from BMA students to experts), all had high Cronbach's alphas, all had high factor loading, all had good model fit, all provided evidence of discriminant validity, construct validity, and predictive ability (Brown et al., 2005).

Tahernejad et al. (2015) used the 10-item ethical scale to study ethical leadership in the hotel industry, and noting the relationship between ethical leadership, job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover. Tahernejad et al. confirmed the scale reliability and validity with a Cronbach alpha above .90. Tahernejad et al. demonstrated construct validity using factor analysis and convergent validity (Tahernejad et al., 2015). Using principal component analysis, all 10-items loaded to one factor; factor loading was above .5 (Tahernejad et al., 2015). Tahernejad et al. used confirmatory factor analysis to

illustrate construct validity; loading surpassed .6, the average variance extracted was above .5, and composite reliability was .951.

Organizational Support. To measure organizational support, I used the 8-item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed the scale to measure the globality of perceived organizational support and the diverse treatments of employees and the resulting perceptions of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986). I received permission to use the scale from Dr. Eisenberger on February 4th, 2017 (see Appendix E). A sample item from the SPOS scale is *The organization values my contribution to its well-being* (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The 8-item SPOS is included in Appendix F.

To devise the scale, Eisenberger et al. proposed 36 statements measuring the employees' commitment to the organization and their perceptions of the organization's commitment to them. A total of 361 employees across multiple industries (manufacturing, credit bureau, utility, financial, law, education) responded to the survey (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Using the data from the survey, Eisenberger et al. used principal components analysis and found only one strong factor, the perceived support, accounted for 93.9% of the common variance and 48.3% of the total variance. Another, much weaker, second factor accounted for 4.4% of the total variance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Eisenberger et al. then analyzed the data with factor analysis and noted the loading coefficients were all higher for the perceived support factor than the second factor.

Overall, the reliability coefficient was .97 and the mean item-total correlation was .67 (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986) then used the survey to examine the effect of POS on absenteeism, using a sample of 71 teachers. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha was .93, illustrating reliability (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Multiple other researchers (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Vardaman et al., 2016) used the SPOS to study POS and related organizational outcomes. Allen and Shanock (2013) studied POS, socialization tactics, commitment, and turnover of new employees. When using the short-form SPOS, Allen and Shanock noted the Cronbach's alpha of .92. Vardaman et al., (2016) studied POS, peer relationships, and employee retention. Vardaman et al. also used the SPOS short-form and noted the Cronbach's alpha of .85.

There are multiple versions of the SPOS. The original 36-item, is available, along with the 16-item scale and the 8-item scale; both have been validated extensively (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). My goal was to minimize the number of items, to improve the response rate (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). Given the numerous scales I used in my study, I chose to use the 8-item scale.

Coworker support. To measure co-worker support, I used the 8-item survey, Coworker Support Scale (CSS; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Settoon and Mossholder (2002) developed the scale to study the relationship between the coworker and employee relationship quality and context and interpersonal citizenship behavior. I received permission to use the scale from Dr. Settoon on February 8th, 2017 (see Appendix G). A sample item from the Coworker Support Scale (CSS) is *My coworkers compliment me*

when I succeed at work (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). The 6-item and 8-item CSS is included in Appendix H.

Settoon and Mossholder (2002) developed the CSS using data from two organizations, a total of 273 individuals, and data collected through self-reports, employees' supervisors, and coworkers. Settoon and Mossholder generated 98 items to represent coworker citizenship behavior, reduced the list to 47 items after examination of redundant items, followed by seven experts who further reduced the list to 16 items. Settoon and Mossholder conducted exploratory factor analysis resulting in two factors accounting for 70% of the variance. Two items with low factor loading were removed, resulting in one 8-item factor representing emotional coworker support and a 6-item factor representing coworker task support (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

Tews et al. (2013) used the CSS items to measure the impact of coworker support on turnover in the hospitality industry, focusing on servers in a national restaurant chain. Tews et al. used confirmatory factor analysis to assess discriminant validity of the two distinct dimensions of coworker support (task and emotional). The factor analysis resulted in two distinct factors, a statistically significant chi-square, and goodness of fit test (Tews et al., 2013).

The CSS has two portions: a 6-item scale focused on coworker instrumental (task) support, and an 8-item scale focused on emotional support (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). Research from Tews et al. (2013) revealed that coworker emotional support was

more important than task support as a predictor of turnover. To limit the length of my survey, I only used the 8-item emotional coworker support portion of the CSS.

Work schedule. In this study, I focused on work schedule as it relates to working long hours, working on the weekend, and working overtime. Previous researchers (Kucukusta et al., 2014; Ryan et al., 2015; Sturman & Walsh, 2014; Tsai et al., 2016) determined the degree of work schedule load based on the actual hours worked. Sturman and Walsh (2014) compared the actual number of hours worked with the reported desired number of hours. Ryan et al. (2015) measured the number of hours worked during the weekdays and weekends. Kucukusta et al. (2014) collected data about the number of hours worked, preferred hours, and overtime hours. Finally, Tsai et al., (2016) compared the work schedule and turnover intentions by asking employees the number of hours worked in the previous week.

Similarly, I asked the survey responders the average number of weekly hours worked during the high-season and the low-season. I inquired if employees were paid for overtime and if employees were provided a consistent 2-days off period. The consistent 2-days off period mimicked the weekends, because all employees are likely to work on the weekends which are often the busiest days of the week for most tourist attractions.

Work–family conflict. To measure work–family conflict, I used a portion of the 10-item Work–Family Conflict (WFC) and Family-Work Conflict (FWC) scales (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian (1996) developed the scales detailed in the study “Development and validation of work–family

conflict and family-work conflict scales". I received permission to use the scales from Dr. Netemeyer on February 4th, 2017 (see Appendix I). A sample item from the WFC scale is *The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life* (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The full scale is listed in Appendix J.

Netemeyer et al. (1996) followed a highly robust method to develop the WFC and FWC scales. First, Netemeyer et al. developed the constructs associated with WFC and FWC, followed by a procedure that generated 110 items from a panel of four faculty members. The interrater reliability was measured and reported (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Next, exploratory analyses reduced the item pool to 43 items. Netemeyer et al. tested the scales with three large samples: (a) 182 high-school teachers, (b) 162 small business owners, and (c) 186 real estate sales people. Using the data from the three samples, Netemeyer et al. iterated a confirmatory procedure three times to remove items with low loading factors, inconsistent within-factor measurement errors, redundant items, very high standardized factor loading. Netemeyer et al. then tested the resulting scales (10-items in total) for scale dimensionality, discriminant validity, and internal consistency, with confirmatory factor analysis including a two-factor and one-factor models. Internal consistency was confirmed by construct reliability and alpha coefficients that ranged from .82 to .90, and average variance extracted estimates of .5 or higher (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Erkmen and Esen (2014) used the scales in their study of work–family conflict and the turnover intentions of insurance agents. Erkmen and Esen reported a Cronbach

alpha coefficients of .889 and .862 for the work–family scale and the family-work conflict scale, respectively. Both values are above the accepted .6 (Erkmen & Esen, 2014), noting scale reliability. Sturman et al. (2014) adapted three items from Netemeyer et al. (1996) scales to measure WFC in a study of employee schedules and resulting attitudes. Sturman et al. reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of .90.

My study was focused on work–family conflict. In the interest of keeping the instrument short, I used the 5-items in the WFC scale (Netemeyer et al., 1996). The consistency of both scales was examined individually by both Netemeyer et al. (1996) and Erkmen & Esen (2014).

Employee voice. To measure employee voice, I used the six-item Employee Voice Scales (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Van Dyne and LePine (1998) validated the construct in the 1998 study "Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: evidence of construct and predictive validity". I received permission to use the scales from Dr. LePine on February 4th, 2017 (see Appendix K). A sample item from the voice scale is *This particular co-worker, develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group* (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The full scale is listed in Appendix L.

Van Dyne and LePine (1998) validated their scales in multiple methods: (a) the use of gathering and validating the constructs from the perspective of three groups: self, peer, and supervisor; (b) obtaining data from 597 employees; and (c) studying the data longitudinally at two different times, six months apart. The Cronbach's alphas for self,

peer, and supervisor were .88, .95, .94 (for Time 1) and .89, .96, and .94 (for Time 2). Van Dyne and LePine fit a three-factor measurement model (voice being one of the factors) and assessed convergent validity by showing significant loading on each factor. Van Dyne and LePine also demonstrated discriminant validity by comparing the one-factor, two-factor, and three-factor models to each other and assessing goodness-of-fit and root-mean-square error estimations. Van Dyne and LePine also validated discriminate validity and model stability by comparing the three-factor model in Time1 to Time 2.

Researchers (LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Ng & Feldman, 2013) used and validated the voice scale in previous research. Ng and Feldman (2013) used the voice scale in their study of employee embeddedness, organizational trust, and voice behavior. Ng and Feldman used the scale with 388 participants across three different time periods. The calculated Cronbach alpha coefficients were .87, .88, and .86 in the first, second, and third time periods, respectively. Also, Ng and Feldman applied confirmatory factor analysis to evaluated construct fit, discriminant validity, and measurement invariance. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) used the voice scale in an analysis of 441 employees across 44 firms, accounting for 95 work groups. LePine and Van Dyne reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of .95.

Employee empowerment. To measure employee empowerment, I used the 9-item Menon Empowerment Scale (MES; Menon, 2001). Menon (2001) developed the scale to measure employee empowerment on three scales: (a) perceived control, (b)

perceived competence, and (c) goal internalization. I received permission to use the scale from Dr. Menon on February 6th, 2017 (see Appendix M). A sample item from the MES is *I can influence the way work is done in my department* (Menon, 2001). The full scale is listed in Appendix N.

Menon (2001) noted the reliability of the scale in two studies. The first study, with 355 participants, had calculated Cronbach alpha coefficients of .83, .86, and .88 (for the three scales) and a test-retest noted alpha coefficients of .87, .77, and .86 (Menon, 2001). In the second study, the calculated Cronbach alpha coefficients were .86, .78, and .86 (Menon, 2001). Menon (2001) noted scale validity with principal component analysis that yielded three factors with 15 items; five items were dropped due to low loading. A confirmatory factor analysis noted good model fit with 9-items (Menon, 2001). Menon also provided evidence of convergent validity and discriminant validity when comparing the MES to similar scales.

Arciniega and Menon (2013) examined psychological empowerment and goal internalization using the MES to assess empowerment. Results of principal component analysis with oblimin rotation illustrated all nine items factor loading above .4, and five of the time items loaded higher than 0.8 (Arciniega & Menon, 2013). The correlations coefficients between the three scales was low, illustrating three unique subscales (Arciniega & Menon, 2013). Finally, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .8, .7, and .76 for the three subscales (Arciniega & Menon, 2013).

Turnover rate. The dependent variable is a dichotomous variable, coded as 1 for employees who stayed, and 0 for those who left voluntarily. For every B&B, I recorded the number of 1s and 0s. I asked the B&B managers the number of employees as of a January 1st, 2017 and the number of voluntary quits occurring between January 1st, 2017 and April 30th, 2017. The method described is research and industry standard and was used by Tews et al. (2013), Tews et al. (2014), and McClean et al. (2013). Tews et al. (2013), Tews et al. (2014), and McClean et al. (2013) all used a six-month follow-up period because it is short enough to assess the impact of the specific antecedent variable to influence employee retention and long enough to account for high number of quits.

Data Collection Technique

I distributed and collected data through a web-based survey on SurveyMonkey®. Surveys are one of the most popular method of collecting data (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). There are many benefits on online surveys, including (a) lower costs, (b) continuous access to the survey, (c) simpler logistics, and (d) increased speed associated with data collection and processing (Hohwü et al., 2013; Nair, 2013).

Prior to clicking on the link to participate in the survey, I contacted the participants first via phone (see Appendix A) and with an email (see Appendix B) to review the objective of the research, confidentiality, data security, risks, and benefits, and to provide a consent form. It is the responsibility of the researcher to obtain informed consent (Hardicre, 2014a), ensure confidentiality (Nair, 2013), and transparency (Hardicre, 2014a; Nair, 2013).

In the information provided, I ensured informed consent met the criteria of providing *adequate* information, understanding participation is *voluntary,* and *capability* of understanding the information presented (Hardicre, 2014b). All provided information ensured the consent process was explicit and transparent, because what may be absent from the consent process can result in inadequate ability to provided informed consent (Cook, 2015). After readying the consent form, participants of the survey provided consent through Skip Logic, a feature of SurveyMonkey® where participants click "I agree" to participate in the survey prior to responding to the questionnaire.

SurveyMonkey® is a reputable survey provider with over 30 million users (surveymonkey.com). The use of a reputable survey provider is associated with increased response rate (Fang, Wen, & Pavur, 2012). A web-based survey preserves the anonymity and confidentiality of participants (Nair, 2013), allows for security of the data, and protection of privacy (Ji & Elkan, 2013). I collected data from SurveyMoneky® without the identification of the B&B by name or exact location, to ensure the data were anonymized, not only de-identified (Heffetz & Ligett, 2014).

Web-based surveys may result in lower response rates than more traditional paper-based surveys (Nair, 2013); but the gap in response rates is narrowing (Hohwü et al., 2013; Nair, 2013) almost to the point of non-statistical difference (Hohwü et al., 2013). Some participants may encounter technical difficulties when accessing the online survey (Nair, 2013) while others may be able to access the survey but not be willing to participate (Fang et al., 12). In both web-based and paper surveys, participants have

increased tendency to skip difficult questions resulting in incomplete surveys (Hohwü et al., 2013).

There are multiple methods of improving response rates and collecting quality data. One method of increasing response rates is by sharing results of the study and providing feedback to the participants (Nair, 2013). Another method is to send reminder emails to participants (Crawford et al., 2013; Nair, 2013; Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). I followed both suggested methods and sent remainder emails through SurveyMonkey® and shared the results of the study with the participants. Multiple contacts, along with sharing the results from the study and transparency, confer respect for the participants (Miller et al., 2012), increase response rates (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013), and improve accuracy of the findings (Campbell et al., 2014). The higher the response rate the lower the chance of response bias (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013).

Web-based surveys provide benefits of continuous access to the survey, individual convenience to complete the survey when time is available (Feng et al., 2012), increased speed associated with data collection and processing, and reduced costs (Hohwü et al., 2013; Nair, 2013). A web-based survey is inexpensive and timely (Hohwü et al., 2013). Using a web-based survey helped me obtain the required number of participants within two months of the IRB approval, without the expenses and time associated with paper surveys (Hohwü et al., 2013). Despite efforts, I was unable to obtain the projected number of 130 participants.

My survey included only simply stated close-ended questions with Likert-style scales offering seven choices (from completely agree to completely disagree), and the participants should have completed the survey within approximately 10 minutes. Close-ended questions are less demanding on the participants' time (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013), and surveys using Likert-like scales should include five to seven choices, where researchers assume the middle category is a neutral point (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013). The survey consisted of simple language without the use of jargon to ensure participants understood the questions (Sinkowitz-Cochran, 2013).

Pilot studies are a miniature, or small version, of the full study (Cope, 2015; Doody & Doody, 2015). Pilot studies aid researchers discover potential problems with all stages of the study such that the full study is improved to address the issues noted in the pilot study (Cope, 2015; Doody & Doody, 2015). Specifically, the pilot study can assess whether the proposed methods and instruments are suitable for the study, data collection methods, and analysis plans (Doody & Doody, 2015). Although the researcher conducting a pilot study may identify and correct issues in the study, the pilot study is not a guarantee the success of the full study (Doody & Doody, 2015). I did not conduct a pilot study because all instruments used have been validated and used by multiple researchers, also selection was random to minimize bias.

Data Analysis

The goal of the study was to understand which antecedent variables influence employee retention at B&Bs. The primary research question was, *What is the relationship*

between common tourism industry established antecedent variables and employee retention at small lodging establishments? Common tourism industry established antecedent variables were (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. To answer the question of the association between the antecedent variables and the dependent variable, correlational analysis was the most appropriate (Green & Salkind, 2014).

I conducted analysis on the data collected through SurveyMonkey®. The instrument included portions of previously validated surveys, all collecting data through Likert-style scales. I conducted the data analysis with SPSS version 23 and SAS version 9.4. SPSS and SAS allowed for the segregation of raw data and output data, improving organization. The data analysis included descriptive statistics, correlation matrix, and logistic regression modeling testing the following hypotheses:

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between one or more of the following independent variables of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and the dependent variable of employee retention at small lodging establishments.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between one or more of the following independent variables (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f)

employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and the dependent variable of employee retention at small lodging establishments.

All independent variables are continuous numerical values measured through Likert-style scales, with values ranging from 1 to 7. The dependent variable is dichotomous, indicated by 0 or 1. To assess the association between pairs of variables, I examined correlation coefficients in a correlation matrix. Correlation coefficients measure the degree of association between two numeric variables and varies between -1 to 1 (Pavón-Domínguez, Jiménez-Hornero, & de Ravé, 2013; Speights, Downs, & Raz, 2017). The value of 1 represents a perfect positive association, a value of -1 represents a perfect negative association, and a value of 0 represents no association (Speights et al., 2017). Because the dependent variable is dichotomous, the independent variables are continuous, I used point-biserial correlations between the dependent variable and the independent variables (Huang et al., 2016; Tews et al.2014) and partial Pearson correlation coefficients between the continuous independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2014).

Correlation coefficients are limited to examining the association between two variables, therefore, I used logistic regression to assess the association and overall predictive power of all independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2014). Regression modeling is a research tool used to examine the relationships between multiple independent variables and a single dependent variable (Nathans, Oswald, & Nimon, 2012; Pavón-Domínguez et al., 2013; Speights et al., 2017). Researchers use regression

to examine the effect the independent factors have on the dependent variable (Bonellie, 2012). Linear regression is the appropriate data analysis method when the output variable (the dependent variable) is continuous (Bonellie, 2012; Speights et al., 2017) while logistic regression is appropriate when the dependent variable is binary or dichotomous (Bonellie, 2012; Manea, Titan, Boboc, & Anoaica, 2016; Martinussen & Handegård, 2014; Speights et al., 2017).

In logistic regression, the independent variable's coefficient (β) represents the slope of the log-odds line (Speights et al., 2017). The coefficient represents the expected change in the log-odds that the dependent variable (Y) = 1 when there is a one unit change in the independent variable (X; Manea et al., 2016; Speights et al., 2017). To interpret the log-odds, one can take the exponential of the coefficient ($e^{\beta i}$) and interpret $e^{\beta i}$ as representing the change in odds of Y = 1 given a one unit change in X (Speights et al., 2017).

I assessed the overall effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable by examining the odds ratios and comparing the odds ratios of one independent variable to another (Bonenberger, Aikins, Akweongo, & Wyss, 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Manea et al., 2016; Speights et al., 2017). For example, I demonstrated the odds of employees leaving the B&B given low employee voice score as compared to high employee voice. I also noted the significance level of each independent variable.

To assess the significance of the associations and estimated impact of each independent variable on the dependent variable, I calculated the *p*-value of each variable.

The *p*-value is the probability of a Type I error, assuming the null hypothesis is true (Seaman et al., 2015; Speights et al., 2017). Therefore, if I rejected the null hypothesis at a *p*-value lower than .05 it means there was evidence against the null hypothesis of no-association and the chance of randomly achieving the same result without an actual association was less than 5%. Because the analysis included logistic regression, it was appropriate to use the Wald chi-square statistic to assess the *p*-value (Speights et al., 2017). Using *p*-values, however, did not allow me to prove the alternative hypothesis is true, nor that the relationship is a causal one, nor the effect size (Bonellie, 2012; Speight et al., 2017; Verdam, Oort, & Sprangers, 2014).

I examined the coefficient of determination, R^2 (R-squared). R-squared is the fraction of variance of the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variables (Martinussen & Handegård, 2014; Pavón-Domínguez et al., 2013; Speights et al., 2017). The closer the R^2 is to 1, the better the model fits the data, meaning the predicted values accurately estimate the true values of the dependent variable (Speights et al., 2017). Tews et al., (2013), examined the R-squared at multiple steps of fitting the model and compared the variability captured by various independent variables.

I reviewed the assumptions required to conduct logistic regression and disclosed any limitations the data may have regarding not fully meeting all the required assumptions. It is crucial to test the assumptions underlying of all statistical methods to ensure the validity of the results (Osborne, 2013). Without clean data and validation of the assumptions, valid, reliable results are not guaranteed (Hoekstra, Kiers, & Johnson,

2012; Osborne, 2013). If the assumptions are not met, Type II error rate might be higher than expected, and the effect size is hard to estimate (Hoekstra et al., 2012; Osborne, 2013). When assumptions are met, sample size is large, and variance is low, the power of the study is higher (Seaman et al., 2015).

The assumptions underlying linear regression are different from those underlying logistic regression. The linear regression assumptions of (a) a linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables, (b) normal distribution of error term, and (c) homogeneity of variance, are not assumptions of logistic regression (Allison, 2012; Manea et al., 2016). The two remaining assumptions of logistic regression are: (a) independence of the error term, and (b) linear relationship between the independent variables and the log odds (Allison, 2012). I checked these assumptions graphically and with statistical tests (García, García, López Martín, & Salmerón, 2015; Green & Salkind, 2014; Speights et al., 2017). The analysis included cumulative plots, residual plots, variance inflation factors, and correlation coefficients.

One limitation of regression is that in the case of multiple independent variables, there is a high likelihood that the variables are correlated to one another, called multicollinearity (Speights et al., 2017; Woodside, 2013). Multicollinearity limits the researcher's ability to interpret of each variable importance as it relates to accounting for variability in explaining the dependent variable (Nathans et al., 2012; Speights et al., 2017; Woodside, 2013). I examined multicollinearity using a correlation matrix and the

variation inflation factors that calculates how much the variance is increased due to collinearity (Speights et al., 2017; Tews et al., 2013).

All research, and particularly surveys, often have missing data where respondents do not answer all questions (Hohwü et al., 2013; Porter & Ecklund, 2012) or without full regard to the content (Huang, Liu, & Bowling, 2014). Missing data pose threats to the validity of the results (McPherson, Barbosa-Lieker, McDonell, Howell, & Roll, 2013; Porter & Ecklund, 2012). The researcher should always investigate and report the frequency and percent of missing data and how missing data is handled during data analysis since the handling of the missing data can bias the results (McPherson et al., 2013; Porter & Ecklund, 2012; Speights et al., 2017) or result in an inflated Type I error (Heyvaert & Onghena, 2013; Huang et al., 2014).

Deletion and simple imputation cause significant bias in parameter estimates and error rates (McPherson et al., 2013). The researcher needs to assess whether the missing data are missing randomly or nonrandomly, as the prior presents a loss of information but the latter introduces bias to the results (Giudici, Arezzo, & Brouard, 2013; Bonellie, 2012; Porter & Ecklund, 2012). I studied the missing data for patterns and rather than deleting surveys with missing records (Giudici et al., 2013). I imputed the mean values and substituted the means for the missing values (Giudici et al., 2013).

Study Validity

In quantitative analysis, the researcher must demonstrate reliability and validity (Hoare & Hoe, 2013). Reliability is the quality of the measurement assessed by

consistently yielding the same results when applied multiple times under the same conditions (Venkatesh et al., 2013; Yilmaz, 2013). Validity is the accuracy of the results (Venkatesh et al., 2013; Yilmaz, 2013).

Validity is divided into (a) internal validity, (b) external validity, (c) statistical conclusion validity, and (d) construct validity (Brutus, Aguinis, & Wassmer, 2013; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995; Venkatesh et al., 2013). Internal validity is the ability to attribute the changes in the dependent variable to changes in the independent variables (Brutus et al., 2013; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Yilmaz, 2013). External validity is the ability to extend the results from the sample to the larger population, the ability to generalize (Brutus et al., 2013; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Steyerberg & Harrell; 2015; Yilmaz, 2013). Statistical conclusion validity is an assessment of the statistical relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Brutus et al., 2013; Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995; Venkatesh et al., 2013). Construct validity is an assessment whether the instrument measures the constructs intended (Brutus et al., 2013 Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995; Venkatesh et al., 2013; Yilmaz, 2013).

There is a natural conflict between internal and external validity (Aguinis, 2014; Brutus et al., 2013; Mentzer & Flint, 1997). External validity is maximized by implementing observational designs thereby reducing internal validity while the maximization of internal validity by using true experiments is associated with reduced external validity due to artificial settings (Aguinis, 2014). As my study was a

nonexperimental design and I did not determine causality (Orcher, 2014), I focused on ensuring statistical conclusion validity, external validity, reliability, and construct validity.

Statistical conclusion validity. Statistical conclusion validity is an assessment of whether there is a statistical relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995). To achieve statistical conclusion validity the research must ensure the measurement are sensitive enough to measure the variation in the data, minimize the risk of noting significant variation when not present, and have sufficient power to measure the statistical differences presented in the data (García-Pérez, 2012; Mentzer & Flint, 1997). To ensure the instruments are sensitive to measure the variation in the data, I used only validated instruments used in previous research.

Sensitivity to covariation is also improved when extraneous variables are controlled, preferably through randomization (Kratochwill & Levin, 2014; Mentzer & Flint, 1997). While not assigning treatments randomly, I did use simple random selection to controls extraneous variables (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Solanki & Singh, 2015). I attempted a sample size using .9 power, above the .8 required level (Lakens, 2013) to increase power.

All research includes a certain risk of Type I and Type II error, the role of the researcher is to use the appropriate techniques, sampling, and statistical tests that correctly reflect the assumed risks (García-Pérez, 2012). In sampling the preferred

method to control Type I and Type II error is *fixed* sampling, the process of predetermining the required sample size, as compared to *sequential* sampling, the process of collecting data, testing, and continued sampling if certain criteria are not met (García-Pérez, 2012). I used fixed sampling and a large sample set to improve statistical conclusion validity.

To ensure statistical conclusion validity, the research must test the assumptions underlying all statistical methods (Osborne, 2013). To test underlying assumptions, I created residual plots, assessed the variance inflation factors, and correlation coefficients. Without clean data and validation of the assumptions, valid, reliable results are not guaranteed (Hoekstra et al., 2012; Osborne, 2013). If the assumptions are not met, Type II error rate may be higher than expected, and the effect size harder to estimate (Hoekstra et al., 2012; Osborne, 2013). When assumptions are met, sample size is large, and variance is low, the power of the study is higher (Seaman et al., 2015).

Internal validity. Internal validity is based on causality and establishing that X caused Y (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Yilmaz, 2013). There are multiple threats to internal validity, namely, history, instrumentation, statistical regression, selection bias, and testing effects; which are controllable through randomization (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). Often, extraneous variables, not accounted for in the study, impact the independent variable, thereby reducing internal validity (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). To control for extraneous variables, the researcher may randomize the participants into treatment

groups, or in the case of real-life social studies, control the variables statistically through analysis of covariance (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013; Heyvaert & Onghena, 2013). This research was not a true or quasi experiment, and I could therefore, not assess causality (Orcher, 2014). With nonexperimental designs, internal validity threats are not applicable per the DBA rubric. The case of internal validity is therefore not being assessed in this study.

External validity. External validity is the ability to generalize from the sample to the larger population with consideration of context, time, and individuals (Brutus et al., 2013; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Steyerberg & Harrell; 2015; Yilmaz, 2013). The most effective method of controlling for external validity is through the random selection of participants who best represent the larger population (Haegele & Hodge, 2015). Other selection methods, such as non-probability sampling, result in higher bias and lower generalizability (Cokley & Awad, 2013). Random selection is the method most likely to result with study findings most representative of the larger population (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015). To ensure external validity in this study, I clearly defined the population and the selection methods used to derive the sample. I used simple random selection methodology to select the sample of participants because simple random selection is the method most likely to control for extraneous variables, selection bias, and

ensure the sample is representative of the population (Englander, 2012; Haegele & Hodge, 2015; Solanki & Singh, 2015).

External validity refers to generalizing beyond the current sample, and time (Lehtola et al., 2013). Data collected from select B&Bs in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington, may not be representative of all B&Bs in those four states if there is selection bias or if extraneous variables contribute differently to the selected B&Bs than those in the larger population (Aguinis, 2014). Although the purpose of quantitative methods is to generalize the results from the sample to a larger population, generalization only applies when the sample is a true representation of the population (Englander, 2012; Hoare & Hoe, 2013). To best control for selection bias and extraneous variables, I used simple random selection to select the participants.

Heterogeneity in the data collected also improves the claims of generalizability of the results to other setting (Steyerberg & Harrell, 2015). While using simple random sampling, I did not place additional restrictions, such as the size of the B&B or the amenities included, on the sample pool. The resulting sample, therefore, included higher heterogeneity, improving external validity.

Achieving external validity is dependent on random sampling, sample sizes, and response rates. For this analysis, I calculated the sample size required assuming a high level of power (.9) and a small effect size (.15). Using a high level of power and small effect size result in a larger sample size than that required using a smaller power level and larger effect size. The larger sample size is associated with increased external validity

(Mentzer & Flint, 1997). Given a high response rate, the results of the analysis may demonstrate less bias (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2013). I called every B&B selected by simple random selection, prior to emailing the survey to the establishments, to increase response rates and external validity (Mentzer & Flint, 1997).

Construct validity. Construct validity is an assessment whether the instrument measures the constructs intended (Venkatesh et al., 2013; Yilmaz, 2013); it is the correspondence between the theoretical constructs and measures (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995). If the measures are valid, they should reflect (a) convergent validity where all the same factors relating to the same construct converge to one factor, (b) discriminant validity where measures of different constructs create separate factors, and (c) reliability where repeated measures reflect consistency (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995). Construct validity can be measured through factor analysis (Alumran, Hou, & Hurst, 2012; Flint, 1997; Hoare & Hoe, 2013). In this study, I used instruments constructed, used, and validated by other researchers. Researchers developing these instruments (Brown et al., 2005; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Menon, 2001; Netemeyer et al., 1996; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) all use confirmatory factor analysis to ensure construct validity.

Reliability of the instrument is assessed by consistent results (Alumran et al., 2012). The researcher should select instruments proven to be reliable and valid such that multiple measures result in the same results and the measures truly measure the desired concepts (Hagan, 2014). Most commonly in survey-based analysis, internal reliability is

measured through Cronbach's alpha statistic (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Mentzer & Kahn, 1995). I used quantifiable variables measured with validated instruments because quantitative measures are best when applied to well-defined and quantifiable variables (Hagan, 2014). In this study, all instruments have been validated in previous research and used to measure the same constructs as in this study. The researchers found all instruments had Cronbach's alphas above .8.

Summary and Transition

Section 2 included a description of the project purpose, method, design. It included discussion on the role of the researcher and ethical guidelines. Along with information of why I selected to use the quantitative method of correlational design, I outlined my population, determination of eligible participants, and sampling criteria.

Section 2 included a description of the instruments, data collection methods, and analysis methodology. I highlighted using simple random sampling, collecting data with validated instruments, handing of missing data, using a large data sample with high level of power and small effect size, and validation of methodology assumptions as means to ensure reliability, external validity, construct validity, and statistical conclusion validity. Section 1 and 2 used a total of 169 sources; 157 (94%) were peer-reviewed, 145 (87%) were dated from 2012 to 2017.

Section 3 is the presentation of the data analysis. Section 3 includes a presentation of the findings, application to professional practice, and implications for social change.

Finally, I include recommendations for action, recommendation of future research, discussion, and conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee retention at small lodging establishments and the following variables: (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment. I used a 56-question survey to measure descriptive facts, the independent variables, and the dependent variable. I measured the dependent variable as the number of employees who voluntary left each establishment between January 1st and April 30th, 2017. The results indicated that organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, work schedules, and empowerment were all significantly associated with employee turnover. Using logistic regression, I also found that organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, and work schedule significantly predicted voluntary employee turnover.

Section 3 includes the findings, application to professional practice, implication for social change, recommendation of action, recommendations for future research, reflections, and conclusions.

Presentation of the Findings

The goal was to collect surveys from 130 respondents, as needed for 0.9 power (see Figure 2). However, after weeks of contacting owners and managers of B&Bs and inns, making over 700 phone calls and sending over 1,000 emails, I stopped data collection after 103 surveys, the needed sample size given .8 level of power. The

minimum accepted level of power is .8 (Lakens, 2013). I collected survey data from 108 respondents and removed three outliers for a resulting sample of 105. The 105 respondents were owners and managers of B&Bs and inns in California, Arizona, Washington, and Oregon. Table 2 reveals the number and percent of establishments by state. Fifty B&Bs and inns in California represented 48% of the sample.

Table 1

Number and Percent of Survey Respondents by State

State	Count	%
Arizona	18	17
California	50	48
Oregon	23	22
Washington	14	13
Total	105	100

In the survey, I included descriptive questions about the gender and age of the respondents. As illustrated in Table 3, 67 (64%) respondents were 56 years or older. Only 18% of respondents were under the age of 46 years old. As illustrated in Table 3, 58 (55%) respondents were women.

Table 2

Age and Gender of Respondents

	Male		Female		Total	
Age	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
18 to 25 years old	1	2.13	2	3.45	3	2.86
26 to 35 years old	2	4.26	4	6.90	6	5.71
36 to 45 years old	3	6.38	7	12.07	10	9.52
46 to 55 years old	13	27.66	6	10.34	19	18.10
56 to 65 years old	14	29.79	23	39.66	37	35.24
Above 66 years old	14	29.79	16	27.59	30	28.57
Total	47	100.00	58	100.00	105	100.00

I also recorded whether the individual completing the survey was the owner of the establishment. Figure 3 shows the number of establishments managed by the owner. In my sample, 84 (80%) of all B&B or inn managers owned their establishment.

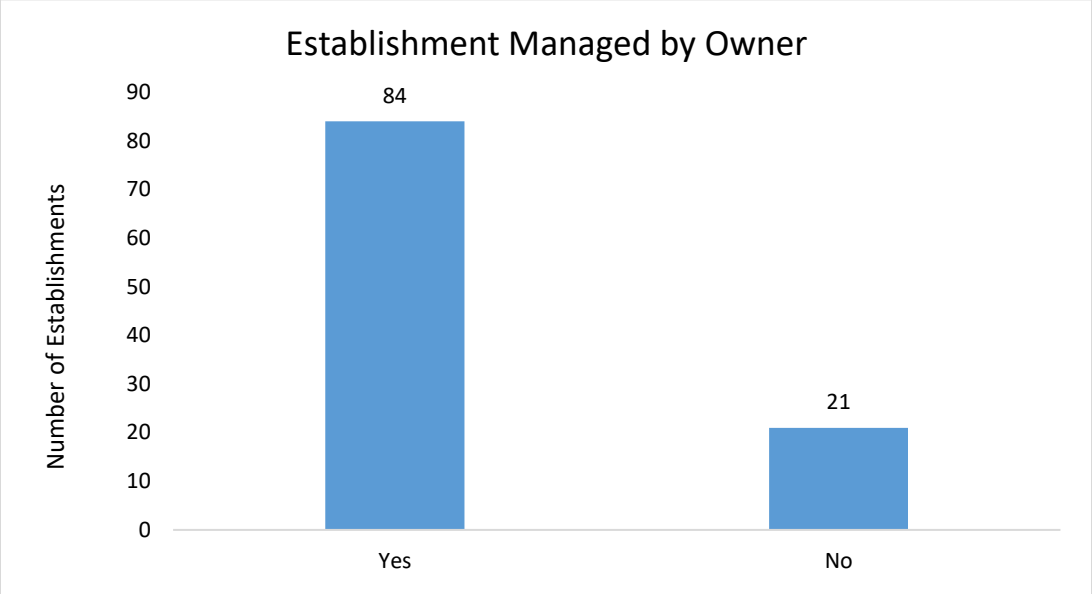

Figure 3. Number of establishments managed by the owner.

Assumptions and Data Cleaning

Survey data are often incomplete, where the respondents completed only a portion of the survey. I collected survey responses from 108 managers of B&Bs and Inns. I removed two respondents who only completed the question of their geographic location. I also removed one entry from a respondent who completed the survey twice. From the 105 completed surveys, 88 were fully or almost fully completed and 17 were partially completed surveys; resulting in an 84% completion rate. I imputed the mean values for all missing variables for the 17 partially completed surveys.

To assess if the sample represented the desired population, I collected information about the number of employees from each respondent. As seen in Table 4, 80% of establishments employed between 1 and 8 employees as of January 1, 2017, and 97% of all establishments had between 1 and 32 employees.

Table 3

Number of Employees as of January 1, 2017

Number of employees	*Count*	*%*	*Cumulative %*
1	13	12.38	12.38
2	14	13.33	25.71
3	19	18.10	43.81
4	15	14.29	58.10
5	7	6.67	64.76
6	4	3.81	68.57
7	6	5.71	74.29
8	6	5.71	80.00
10	4	3.81	83.81
11	3	2.86	86.67
12	2	1.90	88.57
13	2	1.90	90.48
15	1	0.95	91.43
17	1	0.95	92.38
18	1	0.95	93.33
22	1	0.95	94.29
24	1	0.95	95.24
25	1	0.95	96.19
32	1	0.95	97.14
76	1	0.95	98.10
100	1	0.95	99.05
182	1	0.95	100.00
Total	105	100.00	100.00

Figure 4, illustrates the cumulative percent of establishments with a given number of employees. From Table 4 and Figure 4, I identified three establishments, with 76, 100,

and 182 employees respectively, as outlier cases, not representative of small lodging B&Bs and inns. I removed the three observations from all other analyses.

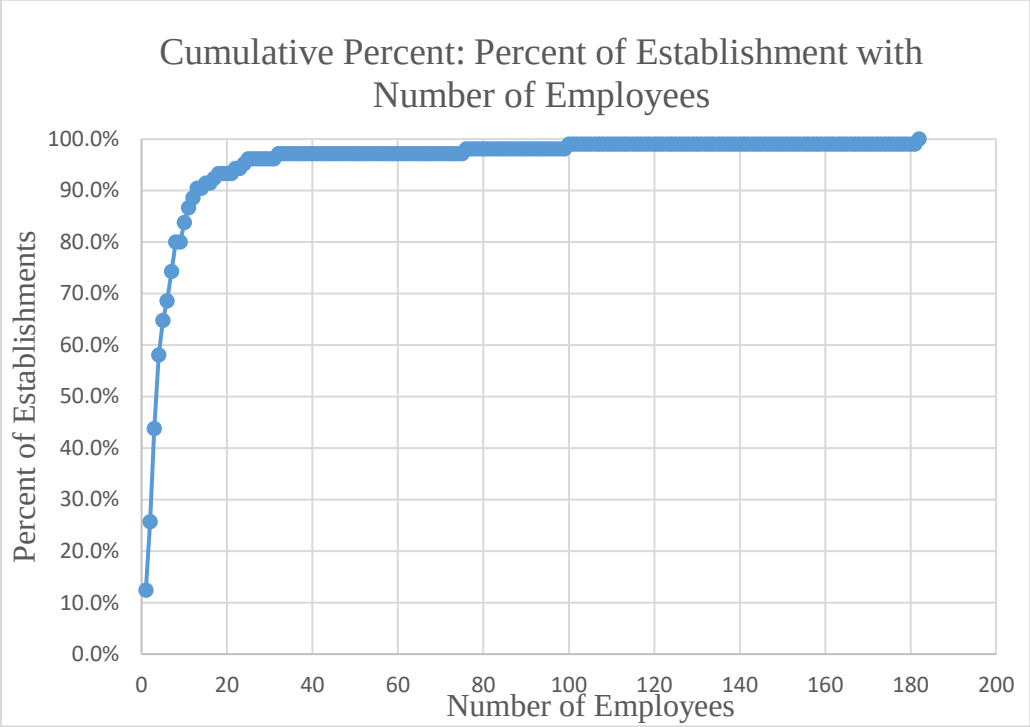

Figure 4. Cumulative percent of establishment by number of employees.

I checked for multicollinearity between the independent variables by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF) in SPSS. For each of the six independent variables represented by a scale, I ran a linear regression with one of the six variables as the dependent variable and the remaining five variables as the independent variables. I checked for multicollinearity with the VIF statistic in SPSS. All VIFs are between 1 and 2.2, less than 10, indicating no conflict for the independent variable (see Table 5; York, 2012).

Table 4

Collinearity Statistics

Dependent variable	Independent variables	Collinearity statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
Ethical leadership score	Organizational support score	.847	1.180
	Coworker support score	.795	1.257
	Work–family conflict score	.871	1.149
	Employee voice score	.690	1.449
	Employee empowerment score	.751	1.332
Organizational support score	Coworker support score	.791	1.265
	Work–family conflict score	.958	1.044
	Employee voice score	.671	1.490
	Employee empowerment score	.737	1.356
	Ethical leadership score	.912	1.096
Coworker support score	Work–family conflict score	.712	1.404
	Employee voice score	.760	1.315
	Employee empowerment score	.747	1.339
	Ethical leadership score	.487	2.054
	Organizational support score	.450	2.224
Work–family conflict score	Employee voice score	.659	1.518
	Employee empowerment score	.736	1.359
	Ethical leadership score	.584	1.713
	Organizational support score	.597	1.676
	Coworker support score	.780	1.281
Employee voice score	Employee empowerment score	.857	1.168
	Ethical leadership score	.501	1.997
	Organizational support score	.453	2.209
	Coworker support score	.902	1.109
	Work–family conflict score	.713	1.402
Employee empowerment	Ethical leadership score	.488	2.050
	Organizational support score	.445	2.248
	Coworker support score	.792	1.263
	Work–family conflict score	.712	1.404
	Employee voice score	.766	1.305

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine antecedent variables associated with employee retention at small lodging establishments. Employee retention was represented by a binary variable. Given the binary dependent variable, I needed to assess the assumptions underlying logistic regression. The assumptions underlying linear regression are different from those underlying logistic regression. The linear regression assumptions of (a) a linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables, (b) normal distribution of error term, and (c) homogeneity of variance, are not assumptions of logistic regression (Allison, 2012; Manea et al., 2016). Many researchers argue the only remaining assumption of logistic regression is the linear relationship between the independent variables and the log odds (Allison, 2012).

To review the modeling assumptions, I studied the residuals, the difference between the estimated values given the model and the observed values of the dependent variable (Speights et al., 2017). In the case of logistic regression, one must check the Pearson residuals against the linear predictors (Penn State, 2017). If the logistic regression model is a true estimation of the data, the plot will show horizontal bars with residuals falling within plus and minus 3 deviations, without trends or curvature (Penn State, 2017). In Figure 5, I plotted the residuals versus the fitted values. I noted no obvious curvature or trends in the variance to indicate violation of the assumptions.

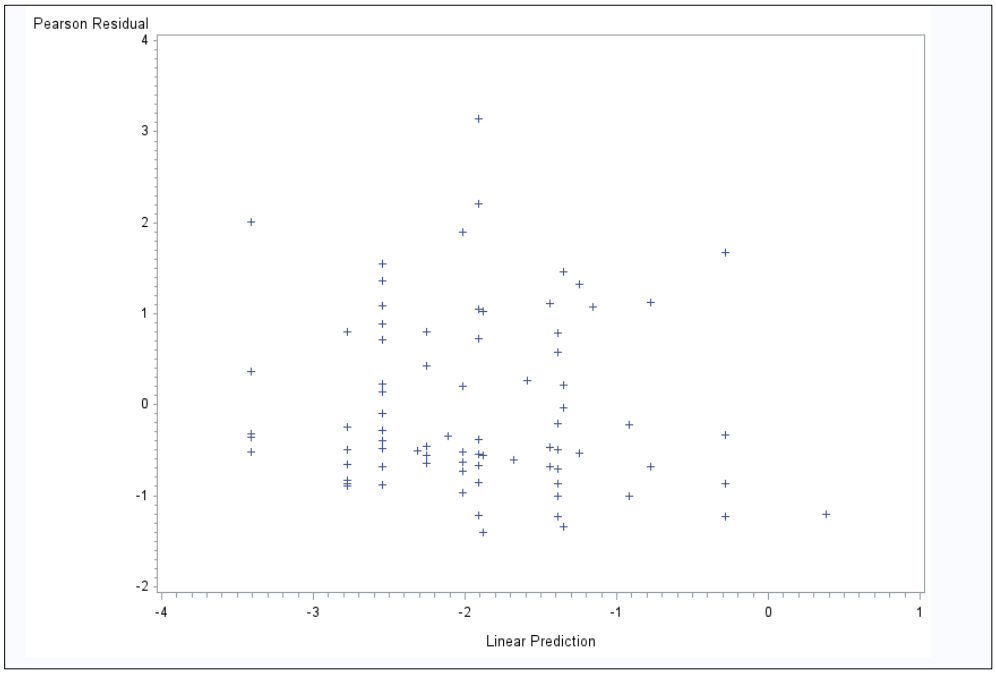

Figure 5. Pearson residuals vs linear prediction.

Data Preparation and Variable Derivation

The hypothesis was posed about voluntary quits, a binary outcome. An employee is retained or choses to leave. I therefore, represented the outcome variable as a 0 or 1. To transform the data, I replicated each establishment as many times as the number of employees employed as of January 1, 2017 and created an outcome variable set to 1 as many times as the number of voluntary quits and set to 0 as the number of retained employees. For example, if a B&B had five employees as of January 1, 2017 and two employees quit between January 1 and April 30, 2017, I created five duplicate rows of data with two lines having an outcome variable set to 1, and three lines having an outcome variable set to 0.

From 102 completed and valid surveys, the resulting dataset had 538 records (lines). The dataset included 74 rows marked with the dependent variable set to 1 (employee quit), and 509 marked with the dependent variable set to 0, (employee was retained). The sample's overall voluntary turnover rate was 12.67%.

The hypothesis included seven independent variables, six of the independent variables were represented by multiple survey questions. Respondents answered each question by selecting a number from 1 to 7, representing their agreement with the statement from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The organizational support independent variable included three questions with a reverse scale. I reverse coded these questions such that a high disagreement with a negative statement scored as a high agreement on a positive statement. The work–family conflict variable was represented by five questions with a reverse scale. I reversed the coding such that high scores on the work–family conflict questions reflected low work–family conflict.

For each of the six independent variables, I calculated an average score from the multiple survey questions. For all six independent variables, a high score indicated a positive influence: increased ethical leadership, increased organizational support, improved coworker support, lower work–family conflict, higher employee voice, and greater empowerment. In Table 6, I provide the range, minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation of the derived average score of each independent variable. As noted in Table 6, ethical leadership had the highest average score (M = 6.51, SD = .75), followed

closely by organizational support (*M* = 6.35, *SD* = .98) and empowerment (*M* = 6.16, *SD* = .76). Work–family conflict had the lowest overall score.

Table 5

Distribution of Six Independent Variables

Independent Variable	*N*	Range	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Average ethical leadership score	86	5.90	1.10	7.00	6.51	.75
Average organizational support score	88	4.88	2.13	7.00	6.35	.98
Average coworker score	86	3.25	3.75	7.00	5.91	.91
Average work–family conflict score	88	5.20	1.00	6.20	2.52	1.55
Average employee voice score	86	4.00	3.00	7.00	5.49	1.08
Average empowerment score	85	3.22	3.78	7.00	6.16	.76

I measured the seventh independent variable, work schedule, not by a scale, but with three direct questions on the survey. Sixty-three percent of employees worked an average of 21 to 40 hours a week (see Table 7). In Table 8, I show the results of the second question about work schedule relating to overtime pay, and in Table 9, I provide the results for the third work schedule related question regarding the availability of a 2-days off period. As shown in Tables 8 and 9, 40.8% of employees received overtime pay and 12% of employees did not receive a 2-day off period.

Table 6

Average Employee Weekly Work Hours

Average employee weekly work hours	Count	%
0 to 10	13	12.62
11 to 20	18	17.48
21 to 30	43	41.75
31 to 40	22	21.36
More than 40	7	6.80
Total	103	100.00

Table 7

Average Employee Overtime Pay

Do employee receive overtime pay?	Count	%
Yes	42	40.78
No	14	13.59
N/A (Employees don't work overtime)	47	45.63
Total	103	100.00

Table 8

Average Employee 2-Days Off Period

Do employees receive a 2-days off period?	Count	%
Yes / Almost always	51	55.43
Somewhat, it fluctuates during high-season	30	32.61
No / Rarely	11	11.96
Total	92	100.00

For each independent variable, I studied the distribution of voluntary quits across the average score and created categorical variables to represent the trends in the data while reducing the issue of sparse cells. For example, as I show in Table 10, the original

distribution of voluntary quits by the average ethical leadership score has limited data (voluntary quits) for average score below 6.3. However, when I aggregated the data and created a binary variable to represent the score above and below 6.5, the impact of ethical leadership became evident (see Table 11). All else equal, when the ethical leadership score was below and equal to 6.5 the turnover rate was 16.8% while the turnover rate was 10.9%, 35% lower, when the ethical leadership score was above 6.5. In Table 12, I provide a list of all the original independent variables and their associated derived independent binary variables.

Table 9

The Relationship Between Average Ethical Leadership Score and Turnover Rate

Average ethical leadership score	Number of employees	Number of voluntary quits	Turnover rate (%)
0 to 1.1	8	1	12.50
> 1.1 to 5.5	4	1	25.00
> 5.5 to 5.7	12	1	8.33
> 5.7 to 5.9	5	2	40.00
> 5.9 to 6.1	40	6	15.00
> 6.1 to 6.3	32	6	18.75
> 6.3 to 6.5	78	13	16.67
> 6.5 to 6.7	154	17	11.04
> 6.7 to 6.8	54	3	5.56
> 6.8 to 6.9	48	4	8.33
> 6.9 to 7.0	148	20	13.51
Total	583	74	12.69

Table 10

The Relationship Between a Binary Ethical Leadership Variable and Turnover Rate

Binary variable: Average ethical leadership score	Number of employees	Number of voluntary quits	Turnover rate
0 to 6.5	179	30	16.76
>6.5 to 7.0	404	44	10.89

Table 11

Original and Derived Binary Independent Variables

Original independent variable	Binary independent variable
Average ethical leadership score	Ethical leadership score < or >= 6.5
Average organizational support Score	Organizational support score <= or > 5.5
Average coworker support Score	Coworker support score <= or > 5
Average work–family conflict Score	Work–family conflict score <= or > 5.0
Average employee voice score	Employee voice score <= or > 5.5
Average empowerment score	Empowerment score <= or > 6.6
Work schedule - hours worked	Work hours < or >= 21 hours
Work schedule – overtime	Overtime: Y/N
Work schedule - 2-days off	2-Days off: Y/N

Six independent variables were measured through Likert-style scales, with values ranging from 1 to 7. The dependent variable was dichotomous, indicated by 0 or 1. To assess the association between pairs of variables, I examined correlation coefficients in a correlation matrix. Because the dependent variable was dichotomous, I used point-biserial correlations between the dependent variable and the independent variables (Huang et al., 2016; Tews et al.2014) and partial Pearson correlation coefficients between the independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2014). I noted two significant negative

relationships between turnover rate (dependent variable), organizational support score, and work–family conflict score (see Table 13). Negative significant relationships mean that a higher organizational support and lower work–family conflict were associated with lower turnover rate. Note, the correlation coefficients were significant, but small, indicating other variables may be more strongly associated with the dependent variable (Speights et al., 2017).

Table 12

Correlation Matrix

	Ethical leadership score	Org support score	Coworker score	Work–family conflict score	Employee voice score	Empowerment score	Outcome dependent variable
Ethical leadership score	1	**.607****	**.087***	**-.130****	-.052	**.202****	-.024
Organizational support score		1	.031	**.333****	**.119****	**.225****	**-.122****
Coworker score			1	-.001	**.429****	**.305****	-.032
Work–family conflict score				1	**.148****	.070	**-.132****
Employee voice score					1	**.448****	-.051
Empowerment score						1	-.064
Outcome dependent variable							1

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

The noted negative association between organizational support and turnover rate is supported by Kim (2014) and Blomme et al. (2010), who noted that supervisor support

and organizational support had a significant relationship with turnover intentions. Also, my results supported the significant relationship between work–family conflict and turnover noted by Hechanova (2013) and Yunita and Kismono (2014). Results by Yunita and Kismono and Hechanova indicated that work–family conflict was statistically correlated with turnover intentions and predictive of turnover intentions such that higher conflict increased turnover intentions. Multiple researchers (e.g., Blomme et al., 2014; Kao et al., 2014) noted interrelationship between organizational support and work–family conflict. Blomme et al. (2014) and Kao et al. (2014) found that organizational support moderated the relationship between workplace flexibility, work–family conflict, and turnover intentions.

Table 13 also indicates the Pearson correlation coefficients between the independent variables. I noted significant positive correlations between organizational support and work–family conflict, organizational support and employee voice, organizational support and empowerment, ethical leadership and organizational support, ethical leadership and coworker support, and ethical leadership and empowerment. Finally, the relationship between coworker support and employee voice, coworker support and empowerment, employee voice and empowerment, and work–family conflict and voice. The relationship between work–family conflict and ethical leadership is

significantly negative, opposite to expected results, meaning higher scores associated with lower conflict are associated with lower ethical leadership scores.

I created various binary independent variables (see Table 12). To best study the relationship between the binary independent variables and the binary dependent variable, I performed chi-square test on each pair of binary independent variable and dependent variable. Table 14 reveals the resulting chi-square tests for ethical leadership, organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, employee voice, and empowerment. The results in Table 14 indicate organizational support $\chi^2(1, N = 583) = 14.022$, $p = .001$, coworker support $\chi^2(1, N = 583) = 4.105$, $p = .036$, work–family conflict $\chi^2(1, N = 583) = 11.961$, $p = .001$, and empowerment $\chi^2(1, N = 583) = 3.439$, $p = .04$, were significantly associated (using Fisher's exact test) with employee retention.

Table 13

Chi-Square Tests Between Six Independent Variables and Employee Retention

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Ethical leadership binary	Low	Count	115	21
		% within	84.56%	15.44%
	High	Count	394	53
		% within	88.14%	11.86%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Org support binary** ($p < .01$)	Low	Count	71	23
		% within	75.53%	24.47%
	High	Count	438	51
		% within	89.57%	10.43%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Coworker support binary* ($p < .05$)	Low	Count	71	17
		% within	80.68%	19.32%
	High	Count	438	57
		% within	88.48%	11.52%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Work–family conflict binary** ($p < .01$)	High	Count	170	40
		% within	80.95%	19.05%
	Low	Count	339	34
		% within	90.88%	9.12%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Employee voice	Low	Count	314	52
		% within	85.79%	14.21%
	High	Count	195	22
		% within	89.86%	10.14%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Employee empowerment* ($p < .05$)	Low	Count	360	60
		% within	85.71%	14.29%
	High	Count	149	14
		% within	91.41%	8.59%

The chi-square results were similar to the correlations shown in Table 13. In both analyses, I noted organizational support and work–family interference as negatively related to employee turnover (positively related to employee retention). In addition, using the chi-square tests, I noted significant association between coworker support and employee turnover and between employee empowerment and employee turnover. The significant association between employee turnover and coworker support aligns with researchers (Tews et al., 2013; Tews et al., 2014) who noted the positive relationships between fun, supportive coworker relationships, emotional coworker support, and employee retention. The significant association between employee turnover and empowerment supports researchers Ertürk and Vurgun (2015) who noted that higher empowerment was associated with lower turnover.

Table 15 notes the resulting chi-square tests for the work schedule variables. The relationship between work hours and employee retention was significant $\chi^2(1, N = 509) = 3.497$, $p = .039$. I found no other significant results for the work-schedule variables.

Table 14

Chi-Square Tests Between Work Schedule Independent Variable and Employee Retention

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Schedule - hours worked* ($p < .05$)	<21 Hours/Week	Count	307	53
		% within	85.28%	14.72%
	21+ Hours/Week	Count	202	21
		% within	90.58%	9.42%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Schedule - 2-day off period	No	Count	226	40
		% within	84.96%	15.04%
	Yes	Count	283	34
		% within	89.27%	10.73%

			Employee retained	Employee quits
Schedule - overtime paid	No	Count	218	35
		% within	86.17%	13.83%
	Yes	Count	291	39
		% within	88.18%	11.82%

The null hypothesis ($H_0$1) was that there was no significant relationship between one or more of the following independent variables of (a) ethical leadership, (b) organizational support, (c) co-worker support, (d) work schedules, (e) work–family conflict, (f) employee voice, and (g) empowerment, and the dependent variable of employee retention at small lodging establishments. According to the correlation matrix in Table 14, the chi-square tests in Table 15, there were statistically significant relationships between employee retention and organizational support, between employee retention and work family conflict, between employee retention and coworker support, between employee retention and work hours, and between employee retention and

empowerment. I, therefore, rejected a portion of the null hypothesis and accepted a portion of the alternate hypothesis.

Inferential Analysis - Logistic Regression

To investigate which variables significantly predicted voluntary quits, I ran a logistic regression with stepwise selection in SAS. Stepwise selection is an iterative modeling method where all independent variables are considered for inclusion into the model at each round of the model building process while variables already in the model are also assessed for exclusion. Stepwise regression begins the variable selection processes with an empty model and adds the independent variable that best contributes to the model (Speights et al., 2017). The process continues by adding variables and removing variables if they become insignificant as others are added. The stepwise selection process ends when no additional variables can be added that are significant and when no variables can be removed due to lack of significance (Speights et al., 2017). I set the inclusion criteria to be any variable with a significant level under .05 and I set the exclusion criteria to be any variable with a significance over 0.1.

A test of the final model against a constant only model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(7, N = 583) = 32.507$, $p < .001$. Table 16 shows the selected variables, estimates, standard error, and Wald chi-square. The independent variables selected by the stepwise selection included: organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, work schedule variable of 2-days off, and work schedule variable of weekly hours. Note that all variables selected by the model were significant ($p <= .05$) and

negatively related to turnover. Therefore, the model predicted that higher organizational support, higher coworker support, lower work-life conflict, having 2-days off weekly, and working 21 or more hours weekly would result in lower turnover.

Table 15

Logistic Regression Results: Selected Variables, Estimates, and Standard Errors

Variable	*df*	Estimate	*SE*	Wald chi-square	Pr > ChiSq
Intercept	1	0.3785	0.4522	0.7008	.4025
Organizational support (binary)	1	-1.0982	0.3022	13.2069	.0003
Coworker support (binary)	1	-0.6646	0.3198	4.3193	.0377
Work–family conflict (binary)	1	-0.5252	0.2701	3.7814	.0518
Two days off (binary)	1	-0.6319	0.2889	4.7847	.0287
Hours worked (binary)	1	-0.8693	0.3081	7.9639	.0048

From the beta estimates in Table 16, I derived the odds ratios associated with each independent variable, represented in Table 17. As noted in Table 17, the odds of turnover is 0.33 lower when organizational support is high than when organizational support is low. Similarly, the odds of turnover are 0.51 lower when coworker support is high than when coworker support is low; meaning that its twice as likely to have turnover when organizational support is low. The odds of turnover are .59 lower when work family conflict is low than when work–family conflict is high. The odds of turnover are 0.53 lower when an employee received a 2-days off period than when the time off is not available. The odds of turnover are 0.42 lower when employees received 21 or more

hours of work weekly than when their hours are shorter. I represented the odds of turnover for each level of every independent variable in Figures 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10.

Table 16

Odds Ratios for Selected Independent Variables

Odds Ratio Estimates			
Variable	Point estimate	95% Wald confidence interval low - high	
Organizational support (binary) = high	0.333	0.184	0.603
Coworker support (binary) = high	0.514	0.275	0.963
Work-family conflict (binary) = low	0.591	0.348	1.004
Two days Off (binary) = yes	0.532	0.302	0.936
Hours worked (binary) = 21+ hours	0.419	0.229	0.767

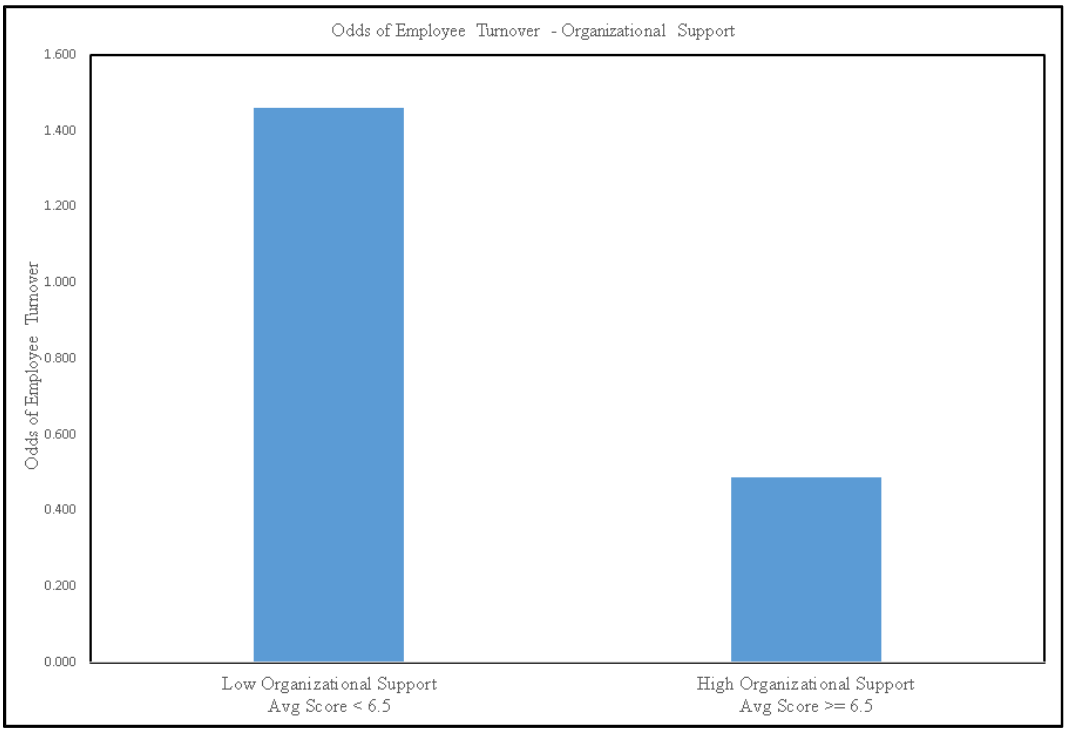

Figure 6. Odds of turnover for organizational support.

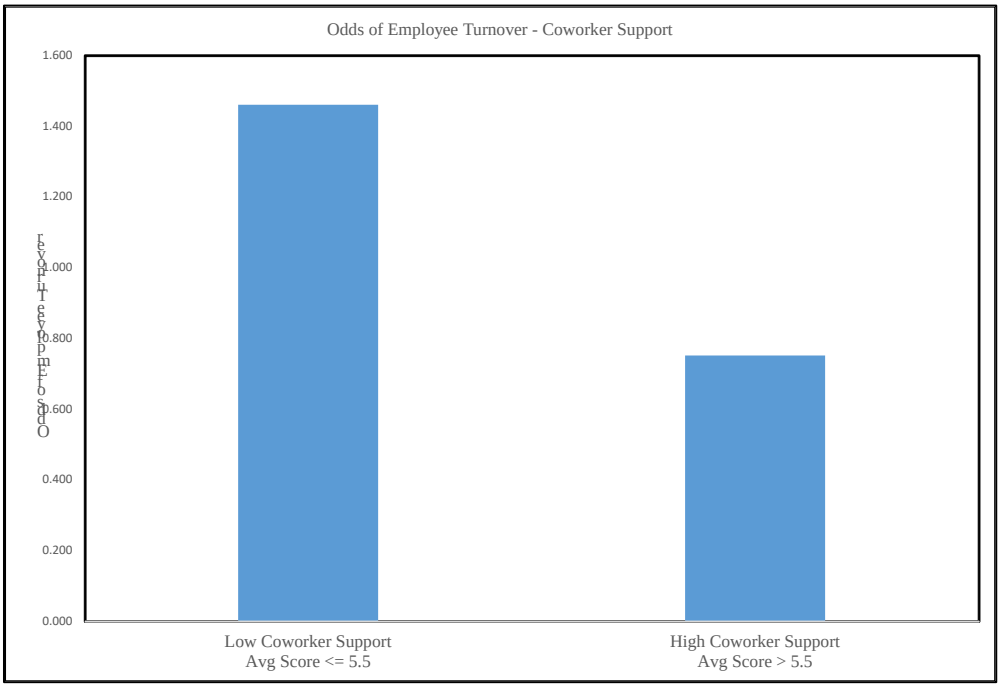

Figure 7. Odds of turnover for coworker support.

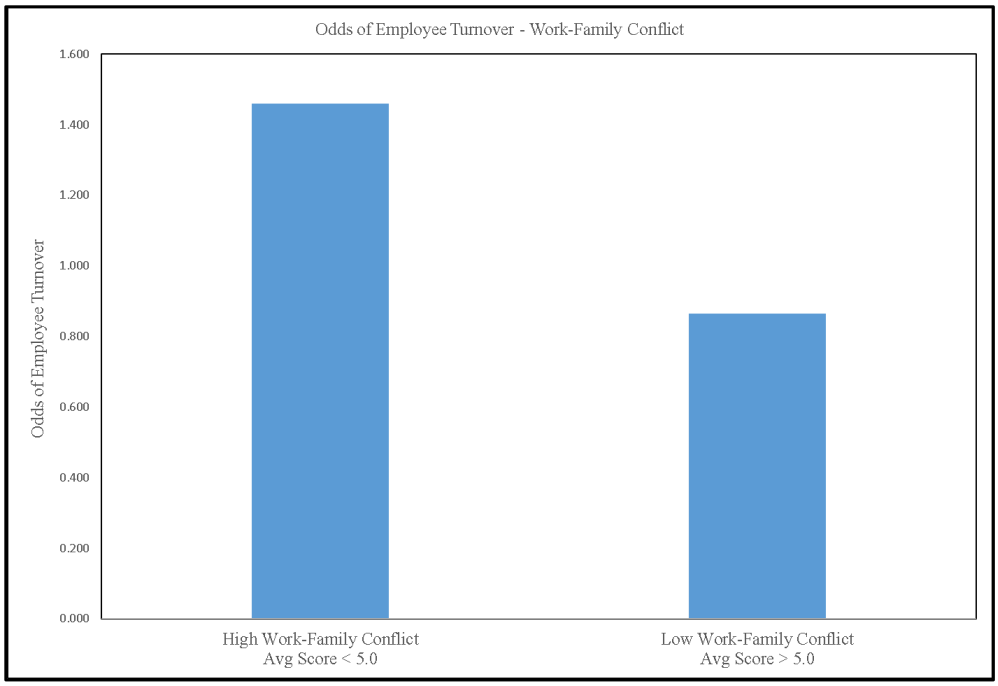

Figure 8. Odds of turnover for work–family conflict.

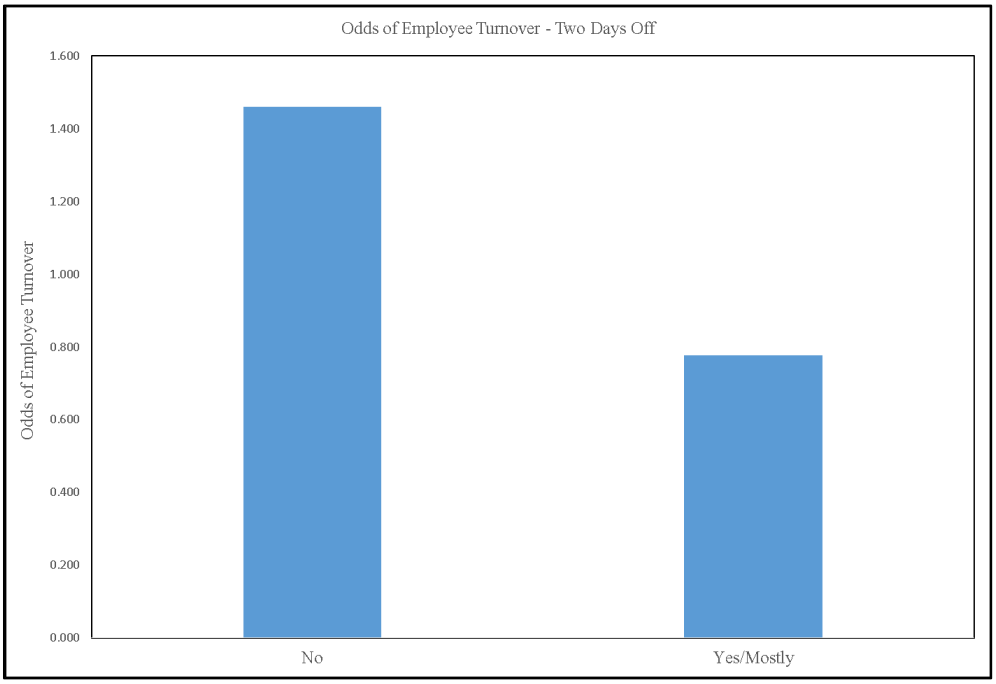

Figure 9. Odds of turnover for 2-days off (work schedule).

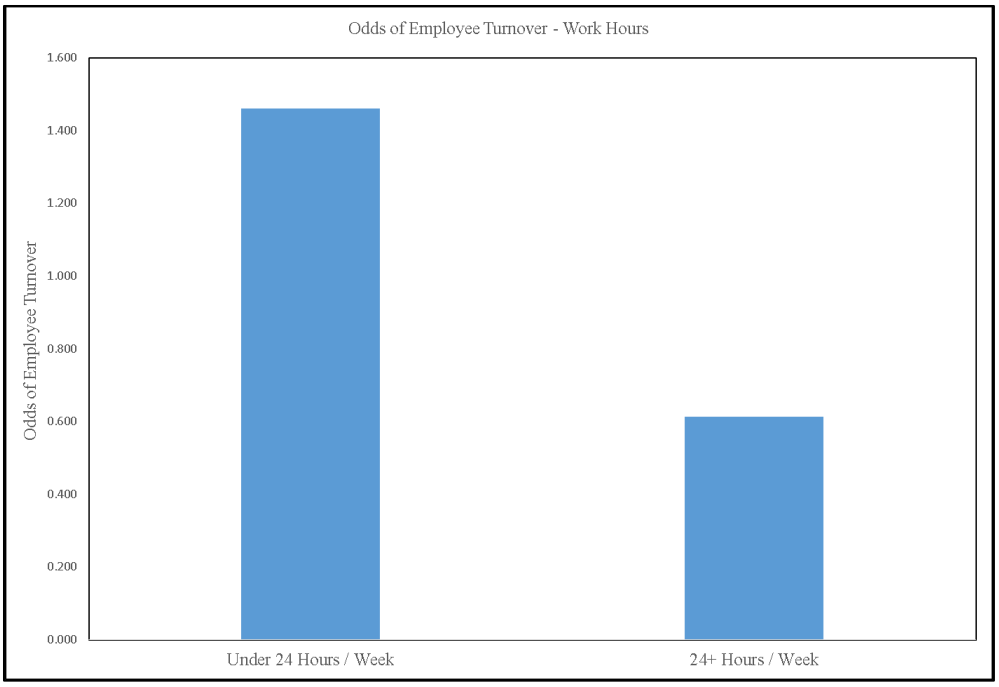

Figure 10. Odds of turnover for work hours (work schedule).

Model fit and performance. I measured model fit and performance in three ways: (a) R^2, (b) deviance and goodness-of-fit statistics, and (c) classification tables and charts. The predictive power is best reported by Nagelkerke R^2 (Wuensch, 2014) was .102. An R^2 of .10 indicates that the variables in the model are predictive but also that additional variables not in the specified model would account for additional variability in the dependent variable (Wuensch, 2014).

I assessed model fit by calculating the deviance and Pearson's chi-square, both measuring the difference between the observed number of voluntary quits and the expected number of voluntary quits (Allison, 2014). Model fit is good when the both criterion, in Table 18, are not significant. High *p*-values indicate that I did not reject the null hypothesis stating the fitted model is correct (Alison, 2014).

Table 17

Deviance and Pearson Goodness-of-Fit Statistics

Deviance and pearson goodness-of-fit statistics				
Criterion	Value	*df*	Value/*df*	Pr<ChiSq
Deviance	12.2535	14	0.8753	.586
Pearson	10.6197	14	0.7585	.716

I also tested the model fit with Hosmer and Lemeshow test and classification table. As illustrated in Table 19, last row, in the final model selection step, the Chi-square test was not significant. Again, high *p*-value means I did not reject the null hypothesis which states the model fit is correct.

Table 18

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	*df*	*p*
1	0.00	0	
2	0.03	2	.99
3	4.35	4	.36
4	4.15	6	.66
5	4.11	7	.77

In the classification table (see Table 20), the predicted values are arranged from lowest to highest, and separated into similar size groups, typically 10 (Allison, 2014). For each group, I calculated the observed number of employee quits and retains and the number of expected quits and retains. In Figure 11, I plotted the observed and expected turnover rate for each group. The accuracy of the model is noted when the two lines are close and overlapping.

Table 19

Contingency Table – Observed and Expected Events and Non-Events

Contingency table for Hosmer and Lemeshow test					
Group	Dependent variable = 0 (retained)		Dependent variable = 1 (quit)		Total
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
1	59	60.02	3	1.98	62
2	59	56.49	1	3.51	60
3	104	104.75	9	8.25	113
4	40	38.98	3	4.02	43
5	41	42.36	7	5.64	48
6	60	61.84	11	9.16	71
7	55	53.58	9	10.42	64
8	49	47.76	11	12.24	60
9	42	43.23	20	18.77	62

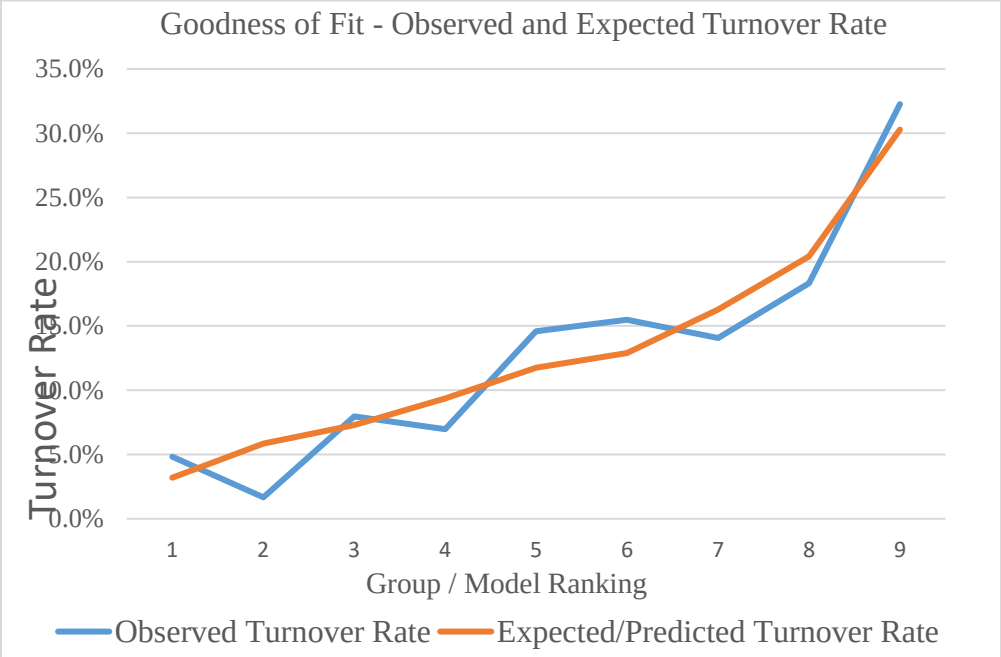

Figure 11. Observed and expected turnover rate.

The findings of both the logistic regression and correlational analysis give credence to the theoretical framework of organizational support theory. OST is based on the concepts of perceived organizational support and social exchange (Eisenberger et al., 1986) where employees feel obligated to work and attain organizational objectives to reciprocate the organizational perceived organizational support (Caesens et al., 2016; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Heightened POS fulfills socioemotional needs (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) thereby increasing the employee's further identification and commitment to the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

My research results illustrated the significant impact of organizational support, and its associated factors of empowerment, coworker support, work–family conflict, and work schedule, on employee retention. Multiple researchers (e.g., Afzali et al., 2014; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gillet et al., 2013; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shoss et al., 2013) illustrated both direct and indirect relationships between POS and employee retention, and between POS and job performance. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that increased POS was associated with increased desire to stay with the organization and lower turnover intentions.

In conclusion, the results of the analysis illustrated that organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, empowerment, and work hours are significantly related to employee retention. A logistic model fit well, all assumptions were met, had good predictive power, and significant results. Using the model, I noted that organizational support, coworker support, work–family conflict, work hours, and 2-days

off statistically predicted employee retention. I did not find results to support the relationship between ethical leadership and employee retention, nor a relationship between employee voice and employee retention.

Applications to Professional Practice

I collected surveys from small lodging establishments in California, Arizona, Washington, and Oregon to extend the existing knowledge of the business factors associated with employee retention to B&Bs and Inns. The findings revealed significant positive relationships between (a) organizational support and improved retention, (b) coworker support and improved retention, (c) lower work–family conflict and improved retention, and (d) empowerment and improved retention. Through logistic regression, I also found that employees were more likely to quit if not working at least 21+ hours a week and when not provided 2 days off a week. The results further indicate no relationship between ethical leadership, employee voice, and employee retention. With these findings, the applications to professional practice are means of improving overall organizational support to reduce employee turnover.

The results of the study provide direct value to B&Bs and inns by knowing where to focus their limited resources given the hospitality industry's very high voluntary turnover rate (BLS, 2016b). Two antecedent factors, organizational support and work–family conflict, were found significant in the point-biserial correlational analysis, chi-square tests, and logistic regression. The consistency of these results indicates that organizational leaders should focus their resources on providing organizational support

and minimizing work–family conflict. Multiple researchers (Blomme et al., 2014; Kao et al., 2014) noted interrelationship between organizational support and work–family conflict. Blomme et al. and Kao et al. (2014) found that organizational support moderated the relationship between workplace flexibility, work–family conflict, and turnover intentions.

In service-based organizations such as hotels, employees engage in constant customer service, and the relationship between the employee and the customer relates directly to the service quality and customer satisfaction (Jung & Yoon, 2013). Lodging establishments and restaurants in the hospitality industry are different than businesses that sell a physical product (Dusek et al., 2014). During the creating and delivery of the service, employees must engage with the customer therefore including a high degree of interpersonal interactions (Dusek et al., 2014; Kysilka & Csaba, 2013).

The quality of service is a critical element of organizational performance (Garg & Dhar, 2014). In B&Bs and Inns financial performance is dependent on customer service, where the relationship between turnover and organizational performance is especially strong for measures of customer service and quality (Hancock et al., 2013). Given that organizational support is a predictor of job satisfaction, turnover intentions (Cheng, Yang, Wan & Chu, 2013), organizational commitment, and service quality (Garg & Dhar, 2014; Jaiswal & Dhar, 2016), organizational leaders should focus on creating a positive work environment.

Organizational support through a caring organizational climate is a moderator variable between other antecedent factors such as supervisor stressors and work-life conflict and turnover (Kao et al., 2014). A caring work environment moderates the relationship between the supervisor- and customer-based stressors and turnover intentions such that high-caring environments resulted in lower turnover intentions given the same level of supervisor stressors (Kao et al., 2014). Organizational support moderates the relationship between work-life conflict and turnover intent such that when organizational support was high, high work-life conflict did not result in high turnover intent as it did when organizational support was low (Hechanova, 2013). Organizational support also mediates the relationship between empowerment and turnover intentions (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015).

All variables I noted as significant in this analysis, coworker support, empowerment, work–family interference, and work hours, are all part of the work environment and can be shaped through organizational support in a way to improve employee retention. Organizational climate (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015), through supervisor-employee relationships (Kim, 2014), coworker support (Tews et al., 2014), and organizational support (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015) serve as a critical retention strategy. Emotional support, coworker support, socialization, and personal relationships (Tews et al., 2014) directly reduce turnover and buffer the employee from undue stress associated with work–family conflict (Bloom et al., 2010) and supervisor stressors (Kao et al., 2014). Positive environment and social exchange founded on trust empower employees

results in lower turnover. B&B and Inn owners and managers should, therefore, focus on encouraging a supportive organizational structure.

Implications for Social Change

This study has two implications for social change. One social change implication is to the community, and one social change implication for the regional and national economies. The implications to social change are the result of improved business performance given reduced employee turnover. The first social change implication is to the community. When employee turnover is reduced, the standard of living for business owners and their employees is improved (Vasquez, 2014). The community overall, especially communities that are heavily based in tourism, experience stability in the workforce (Vasquez, 2014).

The second social change implication is to the regional and national economies. Employee turnover leads to higher unemployment and lower economic growth (Vasquez, 2014). Conversely, increased retention leads to lower unemployment and higher economic growth. The tourism industry contributes significantly to the U.S. economy, with $243.4 billion in economic output in 2015 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2015). Researchers (Park & Shaw, 2013) noted that a decrease of one standard deviation in turnover rate was associated with a 26% increase in the organization's financial performance. Extending these results to the tourism industry corresponds to $63 billion in additional economic output.

Recommendations for Action

The actionable recommendations are drawn directly from the factors I noted had significant impact on employee retention. First, managers of B&Bs must focus their efforts on improving organizational climate and other factors contributing to positive organizational support. As noted by Kao et al. (2014) organizational support includes a caring organizational climate, and actions to reduce work-life conflict (Hechanova, 2013). Managers must through socialization and providing social identity, fulfill socioemotional needs (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and increase the employee's identification and commitment to the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

Second, managers must reduce work-life conflict and promote work-life balance. Managers can establish clear work guidelines and reduce role ambiguity that has been shown to contribute to WFC (Ryan et al., 2015). Managers should reduce the times employees work on the weekend (or at B&Bs, provide a 2-days off period) that are associated with reduced turnover (Ryan et al., 2015). Finally, managers should ensure there are work-home provisions, such as flexible schedules, needed to meet family obligations to reduce work-life conflict and improve employee retention (Blomme et al., 2013). Organizational support and work-life conflict are interrelated and through socialization and socioemotional needs being met, employees with increased organizational support also benefit from reduced psychological strain (Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Third, managers should promote employees to develop relationships with their peers as caring relationships between employees mediate the relationship between organizational support and turnover (Tews et al., 2014). Socialization with employees increase job embeddedness by improving the fit within the organization and building a sense of community (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Managers should promote fun activities at work and support coworkers working together and supporting one another because supportive coworker relationships and emotional coworker support improve employee retention (Tews et al., 2013; Tews et al., 2014). Having positive social exchange and trust between employees mediate the relationship between empowerment and turnover intentions (Ertürk & Vurgun, 2015).

Forth, managers should empower employees to make decisions and gain the skills necessary to complete their tasks successfully. Employers should encourage information sharing, delegation of authority, and autonomy that help employees feel empowered (Raub & Robert, 2012). Leaders who lead by example, allow for collective decision-making, and show concern improve employee empowerment and organizational commitment (Raub & Robert, 2012). Organizational support is a significant predictor of work autonomous motivation (Gillet et al., 2013).

These direct actions by managers should improve employee retention at B&Bs and Inns. The actions are not focused on employee training or conferences but on socialization, fun, and creating a cooperative empathetic empowering culture. Organizational support from supervisors, coworkers, organizational climate, and

relationships, along with flexible schedules, will results in enhanced commitment and lower attrition.

Recommendations for Further Research

I used a quantitative correlational study to study the relationship between seven antecedent variables and employee retention. Prior to the data collection and during the data collection phase, I identified multiple limitations that can be addressed by future research. First, the results of the study are limited to the participants' knowledge and information during a specific period. Because I asked managers about their own behaviors, it's is likely that not all answers were honest or without bias. Future research may want to obtain the manager's approval to gather information from the employees themselves. Given confidentiality and anonymity, it is possible that employees would reveal a different perspective of ethical leadership, work–family conflict, empowerment, voice, coworker support, and organizational support.

Second, during the data collection phase I realized it was difficult to obtain the sample size required. It required over 700 phone calls and 1000 emails to reach a sample size of 105 respondents. Future researchers may wish to concentrate on a few organizations and survey all employees in those organizations, to reach the sample size more efficiently.

Third, all participants were those working at B&Bs and Inns in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington. Therefore, the generalizability of the results is limited to hospitality lodging establishments in the same geographic location or similar in

demographics. Future researchers may wish to increase their geographical representations by sampling fewer establishments from each state, but sampling additional states.

Forth, the study was a cross-sectional study, not a longitudinal one. Therefore, the results of the study are limited to the participants' knowledge and information during a specific period. Future research may want to collect data at multiple times to observe trends in the data associated with passage of time as those trends are related to turnover.

Fifth, the study was a correlational study, not a study with inferences of causality. If future researchers can establish ways to infer causality and control the distribution of treatments, it would result in a superior study. It is, however, very difficult to study behaviors such as the ones highlighted in this study, in a laboratory and randomly assign participants into a treatment or control (Froman & Owen, 2014; Haegele & Hodge, 2015).

Reflections

My parents own two B&Bs in Sedona, Arizona, and I started this study with some preconceived ideas about which variables may influence employee retention. Some of my notions prior to the study proved to be true, others did not. I purposely chose to do a quantitative study, and did not interact with the respondents during the data collection phase to minimize my influence and to reduce bias as much as I could. I designed the study with an online anonymous survey, without researcher interaction, with validated survey instruments, all to mitigate risks of personal bias. Although I did not interact with the respondents, the action of taking the survey may have affected the respondents as

they began to think about the various factor that may influence employee turnover. I hope that the summary results distributed to all respondents, provided direct professional practices that may aid in employee retention.

The entire DBA doctoral study process was challenging, but the data collection process was daunting. First, it was difficult to amass the full list of all B&Bs and Inns in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington, along with phone numbers. Second, I was correct to conclude the response rate would increase significantly if the survey link was proceeded by a phone call. When I sent the email with the survey link, without a phone call to those establishments I could not reach by phone, I had a far lower response rate (almost 0% response rate). The response rate was better (approximately 14%) when I spoke to the owner or manager on the phone prior to sending an email with the survey link. While the response rate was better, the process of calling all establishments and obtaining permission to send the email, was time consuming and not an enjoyable task. I did not enjoy making phone calls, especially because I know how my parents dislike receiving non-business calls to their main business line. However, with perseverance, I made over 700 phone calls and emailed over 1000 emails, to reach the required sample size.

While I feel that using the validated instruments was necessary, I also feel the quantitative close ended questions, limited the information gathered. Future researchers, perhaps those without a direct connection to B&Bs and therefore less bias, can delve deeper and examine some of the significant factors noted in this study. Open ended

questions in a qualitative study may develop deeper understanding of the factors I found to be significant, a facet not conducive to the survey method.

Now with the study completed, some of my personal ideas were validated, some were not. I believe the study reflected the data well and introduced new knowledge of employee retention, of which I am proud. With retrospective, I now wish I included a few more variables, such as pay, into the study. My thinking of certain factors, such as empowerment, changed through the study. I believe in the findings of the study and therefore have greater understanding of the importance of organizational support, coworker support, and work–family interference.

Conclusion

Employee turnover, reflected through decreased productivity, service quality, customer satisfaction, and employee attitudes, is significantly and negatively related to business financial performance (Park & Shaw, 2013). Within the leisure and hospitality industry sector, there are over 65 thousand traveler accommodations, out of which 3,020 are B&Bs (U.S. Census, 2016c). Park and Shaw (2013) illustrated that organizational size was a significant moderator between turnover and organization performance, such that smaller organizations were more severely impacted by turnover (Park & Shaw, 2013). Turnover is also more disruptive to organizational performance in service industries, such as tourism, because of the high dependence on human capital Park and Shaw (2013).

Employee turnover is detrimental to the business, industry, and national economy. On the business level, employee turnover has both immediate and long-term negative

impacts on performance (Brandmeir & Baloglu, 2005). On the industry level, the 2015 turnover rate in the lodging accommodations and food services industry was 72.1%, 8.1% higher than 2014 (BLS, 2016a). Nationally, high turnover contributes to higher unemployment rates Vasquez (2014).

This study extended the knowledge of antecedent factors of employee turnover to the small lodging establishments of B&Bs and Inns. In my research, I found many studies on employee retention in other SMEs but none focused on SMEs in the lodging industry. The results of the study illustrated the importance of organizational support, coworker support, minimized work–family conflict, employee empowerment, and work schedule to employee retention. Managers should focus their efforts on improving organizational climate, creating a caring organizational climate, taking actions to reduce work-life conflict, promoting work-life balance, establishing clear work guidelines and reducing role ambiguity that has been shown to contribute to WFC, and ensuring there are work-home provisions such as flexible schedules needed to meet family obligations. Mangers should promote employees to develop relationships with their peers and empower employees to make decisions and gain the skills necessary to complete their tasks successfully. Following these actions should improve business retention rates, and hopefully, transcend to better employment stability in the lodging industry.

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Appendix A: Recruitment Letter

Hello, my name is Adi Raz. I am a Doctoral student at Walden University. I am conducting research on employee turnover in Bed and Breakfasts (B&Bs). I am trying to identify the relationship between a few employment/employer characteristics, such as flexible scheduling and co-worker support, on turnover.

My parents own and operate two B&Bs in Sedona, Arizona and I've always been interested in how to best retain employees.

My study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Walden University. I would hope that you can take a few minutes of your time to fill out an online survey. Your participation in the survey is voluntary. I expect completing the survey would take no longer than 10 minutes of your time.

Your data will be kept confidential and secure, at no time will I use your name or the name of the B&B. I will only use the survey results in aggregate with other responders to assess trends in the data and the relationship between certain job/employer characteristics and turnover. You must be a minimum of 18 years of age to participate in the study.

Upon completion, I will provide a 1-2 page summary of the research results to your organization that you may distribute to other interested parties. I will email a link to participate in the survey at a later date.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Adi Raz

Appendix B: Survey Participation

Hello, my name is Adi Raz. I am a Doctoral student at Walden University. I called you a few weeks ago regarding the research I am conducting on employee turnover in Bed and Breakfasts (B&Bs). I am trying to identify the relationship between a few employment/employer characteristics, such as flexible scheduling and co-worker support, on turnover.

My parents own and operate two B&Bs in Sedona, Arizona and I've always been interested in how to best retain employees.

My study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Walden University. I would hope that you can take a few minutes of your time to fill out an online survey. Your participation in the survey is voluntary. I expect completing the survey would take no longer than 20 minutes of your time.

Your data will be kept confidential and secure, at no time will I use your name or the name of the B&B. I will only use the survey results in aggregate with other responders to assess trends in the data and the relationship between certain job/employer characteristics and turnover. Upon completion, I will provide a 1-2 page summary of the research results to your organization that you may distribute to other interested parties.

To participate in this study, you must qualify (answer 'yes') on all the following questions:

1. Are you 18 years of age or older?
2. Is the B&B located in California, Arizona, Oregon, or Washington?
3. Are you the top manager (or owner) for the B&B?
4. Does the B&B have four or more rooms?

If you answered "yes" to each of the questions above, then you are eligible to participate in the study. If you choose to participate in the study, please click on the link below to go to the survey website (or copy and paste the link into your internet browser). The link is secure, SurveyMonkey® is a reputable company with over 30 million users.

https://www.surverymonkey.com/s/xxx-xxxx

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Adi Raz

Appendix C: Permission to use the Ethical Leadership Scale

Dr. Brown,

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read your published article "Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing" and have use it multiple time in literature review.

The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the 10-item ethical leadership scale you created for the study.

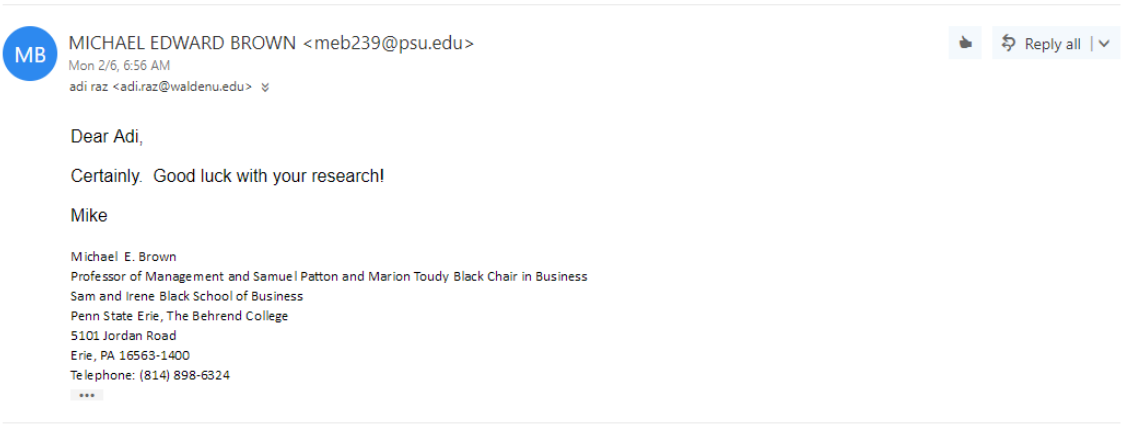
I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi
949-433-5773


MB

MICHAEL EDWARD BROWN <meb239@psu.edu>

Mon 2/6, 6:56 AM

adi raz <adi.raz@waldenu.edu>

Reply all

Dear Adi,

Certainly. Good luck with your research!

Mike

Michael E. Brown
Professor of Management and Samuel Patton and Marion Toudy Black Chair in Business
Sam and Irene Black School of Business
Penn State Erie, The Behrend College
5101 Jordan Road
Erie, PA 16563-1400
Telephone: (814) 898-6324

Appendix D: 10-Item Ethical Leadership Scale

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on you answer sheet that best represents your point of view.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Listen to what employees have to say
2. Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards
3. Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner
4. Has the best interest of employees in mind
5. Makes fair and balanced decisions
6. Can be trusted
7. Discusses business ethics or values with employees
8. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics
9. Defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained
10. When making decisions, asks “what is the right thing to do?”

Appendix E: Permission to Use the Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Dr. Eisenberger,

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read many of your articles pertaining to organizational support. It actually forms the theoretical framework of my thesis.

The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the 8-item SPOS scale.

I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

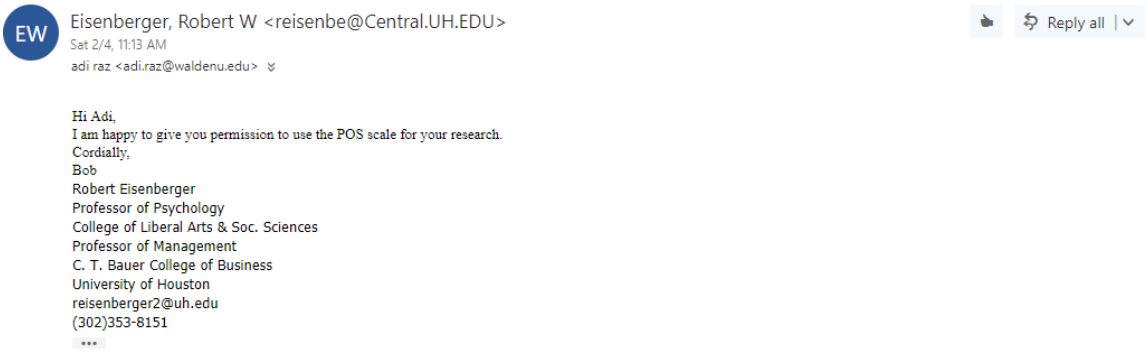
If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi

949-433-5773



Appendix F: 8-Item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at _____. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on you answer sheet that best represents your point of vie about _____. Please choose from the following answers:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (R)
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me (R)
4. The organization really cares about my well-being
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (R)
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work
7. The organization shows very little concern for me (R)
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work

Appendix G: Permission to use the Coworker Support Scale

Dr. Settoon,

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read multiple of your articles focused on personal and task related support of coworkers. The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the 6-and 8-item scales (for task and personal support) you developed in the 2002 article: "Relationship Quality and Relationship Context as Antecedents of Person- and Task-Focused Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior".

I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

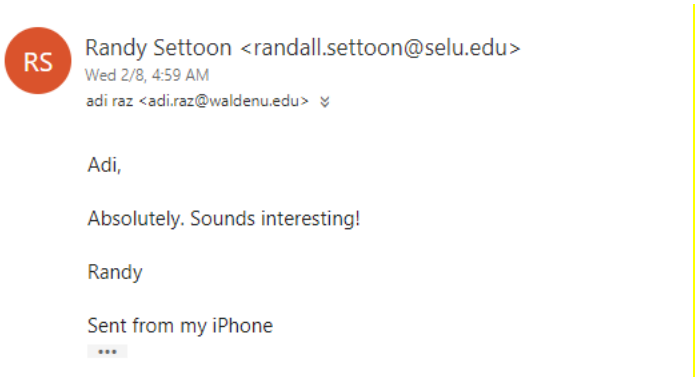
If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi

949-433-5773



Appendix H: Coworker Support Scale Items

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on you answer sheet that best represents your point of view

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Instrumental support

1. My coworkers assist me with heavy workloads
2. My coworkers go out of their way to help me with work-related problems
3. My coworkers help me out when things get demanding
4. My coworkers help me when I'm running behind my in work
5. My coworkers help me with difficult assignments, even when I don't directly request assistance
6. My coworkers show me where things are that I need to do my job

Emotional support

1. My coworkers compliment me when I succeed at work
2. My coworkers listen to me when I have to get something off my chest
3. My coworkers make an effort to make me feel welcome in the work group
4. My coworkers make an extra effort to understand my problems and concerns
5. My coworkers show concern and courtesy toward me, even when things are difficult
6. My coworkers take a personal interest in me
7. My coworkers take time to listen to my concerns
8. My coworkers try to cheer me up when I'm having a bad day

Source. Adapted from Settoon and Mossholder (2002).

Appendix I – Permission to use Work–family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict Scales

Dr. Netemeyer,

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read your published article "Development and Validation of Work–family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict Scales" and have use it multiple time in literature review.

The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the 10-item WFC / FWC scales you created for the study.

I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

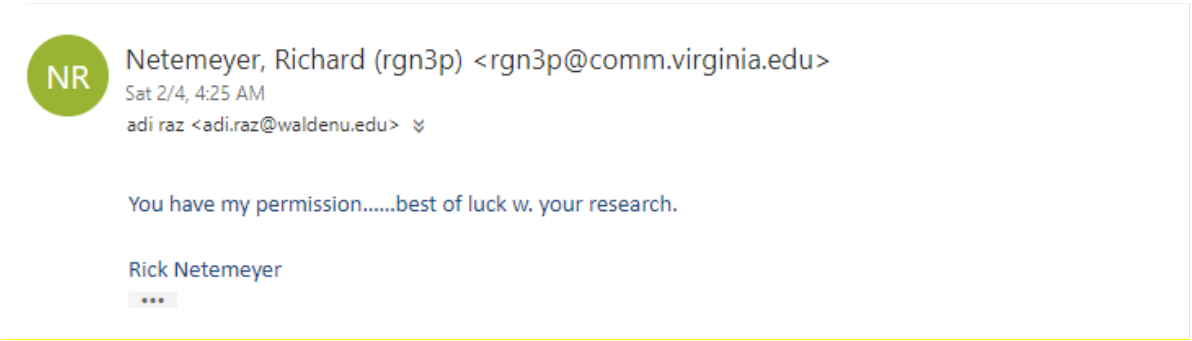
If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi

949-433-5773



Appendix J –Work–family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict Scales

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on you answer sheet that best represents your point of view

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

Work–family Conflict Scale

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Family-Work Conflict Scale

1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Appendix K: Permission to use the Employee Voice Scale

Dr. LePine

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read multiple of your articles published with Van Dyne on employee voice. The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the 6-item employee voice scale you created for the study published in "Predicting Voice Behavior in Work Groups", 1998.

I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi

949-433-5773

Jeffery LePine <Jeff.LePine@asu.edu>
Sat 2/4, 5:31 AM
adi raz <adi.raz@waldenu.edu>

Hi Adi,
You have our permission to use the scale in your research. Good luck!

Kind regards,
Jeff LePine

++++++++++++++++++++++++++++
Jeff LePine, Ph.D.
Professor and PetSmart Chair in Leadership
W.P. Carey School of Business
Arizona State University
P.O. Pox 874006
Tempe, AZ 85287-4006
http://apps.wpcarey.asu.edu/directory/people/profile.cfm?person=2236421

Appendix L: Voice Scale

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on you answer sheet that best represents your point of view

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. This particular co-worker, develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group
2. This particular co-worker, speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group
3. This particular co-worker, communicates his/her opinion about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her
4. This particular co-worker, keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group
5. This particular co-worker, this particular co-worker, gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group
6. This particular co-worker, speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Appendix M: Permission to use the Menon Empowerment Scale

Dr. Menon,

My name is Adi Raz, I am a doctorate candidate at Walden University conducting research on employee turnover, focusing on small lodging establishments such as Bed & Breakfasts.

I've read your published article "Employee Empowerment: An Integrative Psychological Approach" and have use it multiple time in literature review.

The reason I write to you today, is that I am interested in using the nine-item empowerment scale you created for the study.

I plan on using the scale as you have it, only changing the population from the individual employee to leadership.

If you would be so kind, do I have your permission to use it?

Thank you in advance for your help. If you have any questions, please let me know. I would be happy to provide more information.

Thank you,

Adi

RE: Permission to use the empowerment scale

Menon, Sanjay <Sanjay.Menon@lsus.edu>

Mon 2/6/2017 12:46 PM

To: adi raz <adi.raz@waldenu.edu>;

3 attachments (590 KB)

Menon Empowerment Scale.pdf; Menon Empowerment Scale Springer Handbook Description.pdf; The Power of Goal Internalization studying Psychological Empowerment in a Venezuelan Plant.pdf;

Hi Adi,

You have my permission to use the scale with proper citation. I am attaching the files I typically send out in response to requests for the scale as well as a more recent article using the scale.
Thank you for your interest and good luck on your research!

Dr. M

Sanjay T. Menon, Ph. D.
Dean of Graduate Studies
Director of India Studies
Louisiana State University Shreveport
Office: (318) 797-5247 Fax: (318) 798-4120

One University Place
Shreveport, Louisiana 71115
LSUS

Appendix N: Menon Empowerment Scale

The following statements deal with various aspects of work in organizations. Please read each statement carefully in the context of your own work and indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by writing a number (1 to 6) in the space provided:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I can influence the way work is done in my department
2. I can influence decisions made in my department
3. I have the authority to make decisions at work
4. I have the capabilities required to do my job well
5. I have the skills and abilities to do my job well
6. I have the competence to work effectively
7. I am inspired by what we are trying to achieve as an organization
8. I am inspired by the goals of the organization
9. I am enthusiastic about working toward the organization's objectives.