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Relationship Between Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intentions in Luxury Hotels

Grayce LaVerne James
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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Grayce James

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

Relationship Between Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, and Turnover

Intentions in Luxury Hotels

by

Grayce James

MBA, Strayer University, 2009

BBA, University of Memphis, 2007

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

March 2020

Abstract

The hotel industry makes significant contributions to U.S. economic growth, but many hotel managers have expressed concerns about high employee turnover intentions. In the context of career choices, leaders of the hotel industry in the United States face turnover intentions that are 70% higher than turnover intentions in other sectors. Grounded in Herzberg's 2-factor theory, the purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. Participants included 75 front desk customer service employees with at least 1 year of employment in a 5-star luxury hotel in Las Vegas, Nevada. Data was collected using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Turnover Intention Scales-6. Results of the multiple linear regression analysis indicated the model was able to significantly predict turnover intentions, $F(2, 72) = 13.756, p < .001, R^2 = .276$. However, extrinsic job satisfaction ($t = -3.861, p < .001$) was the only statistically significant predictor. Hospitality leaders who understand the factors that increase extrinsic job satisfaction may decrease employee intentions to leave the organization. The implication for social change is that implementation of strategies that decrease employee turnover intentions has the potential to provide advancement opportunities, reduce turnover costs, increase morale, increase productivity, and create and maintain positive relationships with families, communities, and organizations.

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Dedication

I dedicate this to my late husband (Robert James, Sr.), who matter-of-factly said to me one day you should go on and get your doctorate, and to First Lady Rhonda Johnson, who when I first decided to go back to school said, “You can do it, Sis Grayce, you can do it!”

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

An organization's performance and profitability are at risk when there is a loss of valuable resources because of employee turnover (Guilding, Lamminmaki, & McManus, 2014). Because turnover has a profound effect on an organization's performance, organizational leaders must understand the factors that predict turnover (Inabinett & Ballaro, 2014). Leaders in the field of hospitality need strategies to maintain an adequate workforce (Marshall, Mottier, & Lewis, 2016).

The focus of this study was on intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk, customer service employees of luxury hotels in Las Vegas, Nevada. I focused on areas of interest, including work content (the work itself, as well as the technical skills that contribute to its performance), recognition, responsibility, growth potential, working conditions, job security, salary, fringe benefits, and employee turnover intentions. Leaders of Las Vegas luxury hotels may use the findings from this study to implement strategies for reducing high turnover intentions. Business leaders in other fields may use the results from this study when dealing with the question of employee turnover, as well.

Background of the Problem

The hotel industry makes significant contributions to U.S. economic growth, but many hotel managers have expressed concerns about high employee turnover intentions (Jones, Hillier, & Comfort, 2016). In the context of career choices, leaders of the hotel industry in the United States face turnover intentions that are 70% higher than turnover intentions in other sectors (Mooney, Harris, & Ryan, 2016). In the United States, 50% of

new hotel employees voluntarily terminate their employment in the first year because of job dissatisfaction (Kim, 2014). Employees voluntarily withdraw from the workplace for a variety of reasons, including low wages, insufficient benefits, inadequate training, a lack of autonomy, better competing job opportunities, a lack of support from management, and unfavorable working conditions (Duarte, Gomes, & Neves, 2015).

Employee turnover increases an employer's direct and indirect labor costs (Hesford, Malina, & Pizzini, 2016), reduces employee efficiency, and impedes the financial performance of the business (Mamun & Hasan, 2017). In the case of the hotel industry, high turnover intentions create organizational disruption, incur costs for hiring and training replacements, and lower employee productivity because of training new hires. To decrease employee turnover, organizational leaders can use strategies such as selecting candidates best suited to the specific culture of the hotel, creating growth opportunities for outstanding employees, offering competitive pay and benefits packages, and staying respectful to all workers (Mamun & Hasan, 2017).

Problem Statement

Global executive officers have identified decreasing employee turnover intentions and retaining employees as a top concern (Belete, 2018). The annual employee turnover rate in the U.S. hotel industry has been as high as 75%, twice as high as other industry averages (Malek, Kline, & DiPietro, 2018) and the cost associated with turnover has been as high as 50% of an employee's annual salary (Thompson, 2016). The general business problem was that some luxury hotels were being negatively affected by employee turnover intentions, which caused a decrease in competitiveness, efficiency, and quality

service delivery, as well as an increase in operating costs for the business (Vencataya, Seebaluck, & Doorga, 2016). The specific business problem was that some luxury hotel leaders did not understand the relationship between front desk customer service employees' intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. The independent variables were two types of job satisfaction: intrinsic and extrinsic. The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions. The targeted population was front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels in Las Vegas, Nevada. The implication for positive social change included providing a framework for hotel industry leaders to understand better employee retention, thereby developing and investing in future leaders to reduce the local unemployment rate and contribute to their surrounding communities.

Nature of the Study

I used a quantitative method to examine the relationship between a set of variables and tested the null hypotheses using standard statistical analysis. I selected the quantitative method for this study because the aim was to examine the relationships among three categories: intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions. A researcher uses a qualitative approach when seeking to explore issues verbally through open-ended questions (Lu, Berchoux, Marek, & Chen, 2015) or to

answer how or why a phenomenon occurs (Hesse-Biber, 2016). I did not choose the qualitative approach as I used data that requires statistical analysis to examine the relationship between variables. Also, I decided not to use a mixed methods approach, which is a combination of elements of qualitative and quantitative methods (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013), as this approach is too time-consuming.

I selected a correlational design for this study to assess noncausal relationships among two or more variables, as suggested by researchers (Bettany-Saltikov & Whittaker, 2014), precisely two sets of independent variables, intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction and a single dependent variable of employee turnover intentions. I chose a correlational design instead of the experimental and quasi-experimental designs because both are appropriate for measuring a degree of cause and effect (Fong, Law, Tang, & Yap, 2016) or for studying variables in a controlled setting (Pearl, Brennan, Journey, Antill, & McPherson, 2014). Neither was determined appropriate for this study, as the primary objective of this study was to identify relationships without manipulating or controlling any variables.

Research Question and Hypotheses

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions?

H_0 : There is no statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

H_a : There is a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was the two-factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) used the two-factor theory (i.e., motivation-hygiene theory) to explain how certain factors contribute to job satisfaction and how a separate set of factors contributes to job dissatisfaction. This theory was chosen to identify how these satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors may or may not predict employee turnover intentions. Constructs that affect an employees' job satisfaction are categorized into two domains, motivators (intrinsic factors) and hygiene (extrinsic factors). The two-factor theory explain how motivators and hygiene affect an employees' job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. identified the following motivators (intrinsic factors) for job satisfiers: work content, recognition, responsibility, and growth potential. Herzberg et al. identified the following hygiene (extrinsic factors) for job dissatisfiers: working conditions, job security, salary, and fringe benefits. According to the motivation-hygiene theory, hygiene factors must be present in the workplace to decrease extrinsic job satisfaction, while motivation factors are necessary in the workplace to increase intrinsic job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Intrinsic and extrinsic factors contribute to employee retention; therefore, I considered the motivation-hygiene theory when examining employee turnover (Herzberg et al., 1959). I expected the independent variables for intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction to relate to employee turnover intentions because according to Herzberg's theory, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction levels can influence an employees' decisions to leave or stay with a company.

Operational Definitions

Affective commitment: Affective commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the employing organization, such that they strongly identify with the organization's goals and desires to remain a part of the organization (Zhou, Jin, Fang, & Vogel, 2015).

Attitudinal loyalty: Attitudinal loyalty is an employee's recognition of belonging to a company or preferring a company (Izogo, 2015).

Dissatisfiers: Herzberg et al. (1959) defined dissatisfiers as the negative feelings that employees developed toward a job or employer because of workplace factors.

Employee turnover: Employee turnover is the rate at which employees withdraw from employment (Li, Wang, Gao, & You, 2017).

Motivators: Motivators are the factors present in the workplace that can motivate employees and make their jobs more satisfying (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Turnover intention: Turnover intention is an employee's decision to separate from employment, which occurs before the actual turnover takes place (Katsikea, Theodosiou, & Morgan, 2015).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions enable a researcher to identify factors in a study that are not testable but are assumed true (Dusick, 2014). For this study, I chose the following four assumptions: (a) the participants' responses would be honest, accurate, and based on what they experienced and perceived inside the organization about independent variables for

intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; (b) the survey questions would be relevant to the participants' experiences, their perceptions concerning the experience, and the meaning that they applied to the experience; (c) participant responses would assist in determining the relationship between the independent variables for intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and employee turnover intention, and (d) participants who responded to the survey invitation would represent the target population.

Limitations

According to Bryman (2015), limitations include potential weaknesses affecting the outcomes of a study, such as time constraints, sample size, analysis process, reporting methods, and the instrument used in the study. The first limitation of this study was that its focus on a small segment of the luxury hotel industry in Las Vegas, Nevada, may limit the resulting conclusions that are not generalizable to other types of organizations. The second limitation was that this study was not designed to establish a causal relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction factors, extrinsic job satisfaction factors, and employee turnover intentions. The focus of this research was to examine the relationships among variables. The third limitation was the voluntary nature of the study. Because all participants could refuse participation or end participation at any time, data collection may not meet initial expectations. The fourth limitation was the collection of data using Likert-based surveys. This forced answer technique may have produced random responses that may not have reflected the participant's genuine opinion (Alwin, 2014).

Delimitations

Delimitations are the boundaries that researchers impose to narrow the scope of a study (Dusick, 2014). The two delimitations of this study were its geographical location (Las Vegas, Nevada) and its target business setting (hotels with a luxury rating). I used these two delimitations to perform a detailed study on a small sample that may prove beneficial to the hotel industry by providing a deeper understanding of employee turnover in luxury hotels' front desk customer service staff.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

This study will be of significant value for business leaders in general, most if not all of whom have an interest in minimizing turnover. In one aspect of corporate efforts to maximize profits, business leaders seek ways to create and maintain an organizational climate to promote employee understanding and support the mission and vision of the firm (Barrick, Thurgood, Smith, & Courtright, 2015). Retaining talented employees is a challenge for organizational leaders, as well as maintaining employee satisfaction to contribute to organizational success (Ibidunni, Osibanjo, Adeniji, Salau, & Falola, 2016). Business leaders with satisfied employees enjoy higher sales, increased customer satisfaction, greater efficiency, and lower employee turnover intentions (Mathieu & Babiak, 2016). The findings of this study may contribute to existing knowledge regarding employee turnover intentions and to increase managers' understanding of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction factors that influence turnover intentions.

High employee turnover intentions can have a negative influence on employees, organizations, and shareholders (Hesford et al., 2016). As Thompson (2016) noted, the financial cost associated with employee turnover can be as high as 50% of each employee's annual salary, thus significantly decreasing organizational profits. There are also nonmonetary costs related to employee turnover, such as the loss of knowledge and experience possessed by the departing employees (Verseman-Morrison & Arnaiz, 2014). Managers who understand the numerous factors that contribute to employee turnover intentions can reduce employee turnover, which has a significant effect on the overall growth of an organization (Inabinett & Ballaro, 2014).

Implications for Social Change

The results of the study may add to the body of knowledge by providing insight and information for hotel administrators, as well as researchers in the field of hospitality, regarding front desk customer service employees in the hospitality workplace. Hotel managers may use the findings of this study to identify information to reduce employee turnover and address the issues of employee importance in their sphere of influence. By reducing turnover, organization managers develop individuals for growth in the organization, retain intellectual capital for the organization, and reduce the costs associated with replacing valuable employees (Sikora, Thompson, Russell, & Ferris, 2016). Lowering expenses can lead to profit increases in an organization (Sikora et al., 2016). Because of the information derived from this study, leaders may develop policies, procedures, and practices to promote and support their organizations' vision, mission, goals, and objectives.

Organization leaders may use the information regarding employee turnover intentions to develop strategies to reduce turnover and increase productivity, growth, and profitability. In addition to serving the economic and operational interests of their companies, they can create strategies to develop organizations with the capital and will to contribute time, resources, and skills to their surrounding communities (Davis, 2013). Most importantly, when hotel industry leaders better understand and manage employee retention, they will operate in ways to allow development of as well as the investment in future leaders who, in turn, reduce the local unemployment rate and contribute to their surrounding communities.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. Herzberg's (1986) two-factor theory, which explains hygiene and motivation factors that can affect an employee's intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction, was the theoretical framework for this study and the foundation for examining other theories in this literature review. According to Cloutier, Felusiak, Hill, and Pemberton-Jones (2015), employee retention is vital to an organization's sustainability and growth. When employees are motivated to do their jobs, sustainability increases, and employee turnover decreases (Stea, Foss, & Christensen, 2015). The focus of this literature review was the central research question:

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions?

The related hypotheses were as follows:

H₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

H_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

This literature review includes an explanation of the three variables used in this study: (a) independent variables for intrinsic job satisfaction, (b) independent variables for extrinsic job satisfaction, and (c) the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions. The factors identified as independent variables for intrinsic job satisfaction included work content, recognition, responsibility, and growth potential (Herzberg et al., 1959). The factors identified as independent variables for extrinsic job satisfaction included working conditions, job security, salary, and fringe benefits (Herzberg et al., 1959). Similar to Herzberg (1986) two-factor theory, Lumadi (2014), and Johari and Yahya (2016) also found that the absence of work content, job responsibility, and security, as aspects of the job, affected extrinsic job satisfaction. Other research findings aligned with Herzberg et al. (1959), indicating that a focus and understanding by leaders of growth potential, responsibility, recognition, and achievement can have a positive influence on intrinsic job satisfaction. Similar to Herzberg et al. (1959), several research findings indicated that inadequate working conditions increased extrinsic job satisfaction (Hayes, Douglas, & Bonner, 2015; Vasquez, 2014; Zeb et al., 2015).

Researchers have used the two-factor theory to demonstrate a correlation between salary and fringe benefits (Reid, Thompson, Mavondo, & Brunsø, 2015; Stea et al., 2015). Topics relating to the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions included employee engagement, employee commitment, and employee retention. According to Fitzpatrick, Campo, and Gacki-Smith (2014), job dissatisfaction was the main reason emergency room nurses intend to leave the job. Research findings from a study involving a call center indicated a correlation between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Fitzpatrick et al., 2014). This literature review is due to an intensive review of existing research and findings related to the variables and the theoretical framework guiding this study.

Strategy for Searching the Literature

To conduct the literature review, I reviewed scholarly peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, and seminal literature on the subject, using the following databases: ProQuest, EBSCOhost, Business Source Complete, ABI/Inform Complete, Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Dissertation & Theses at Walden University, Hospitality & Tourism Complete, and Google Scholar. My research strategy consisted of selecting articles based on the date of publication, the contribution of theory or evidence related to the proposed research topic, and overall significance and contribution to the concepts studied. I used the following keywords for my search: *motivation theories, employee recognition, employee responsibility, employee turnover intentions, intrinsic job satisfaction, employee job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, employee job dissatisfaction, work content, employee growth potential, work conditions,*

salary, job security, fringe benefits, employee engagement, employee commitment, employee retention, luxury hotels, Herzberg's two-factor theory or motivation-hygiene theory, and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The search for material yielded 203 relevant sources, 89% of which were peer-reviewed, and 91% of which had publication dates from 2014 to 2018.

Motivational Theories

According to Herzberg (2017), motivation refers to the influences on a person's actions, desires, needs, and behaviors. Motivational theories, also known as need-based theories, consist of two categories: content theories and process theories (Moon, Hur, & Hyun, 2017). Content theories and process theories provide a framework for a better understanding of motivation principles and how to apply these in life (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017).

Content theories list an individual's need of fulfillment among motivating factors (Liu, Aunguroch, & Yunibhand, 2016). Content theories center on the needs of an individual that energize, direct, sustain, or halt a specific behavior, especially those needs that explain job satisfaction, behavior, and reward systems (Cook & Artino, 2016). Some of the more prominent theories in the content category are Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory; Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory; McClelland's (1961) needs theory; and Alderfer's (1969) existence, relatedness, and growth theory.

The main focus of process theories is on personal factors that explain why individuals select certain behaviors and how they subsequently determine whether their choices are successful (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). The four primary process theories

(reinforcement, expectancy, equity, and goal setting) are practical because these define a person's motivation as a result of external events, therefore concluding that performance will continue if the results are valuable to the performer (Cook & Artino, 2016).

Reinforcement theories and goal-setting theories are most helpful in practical application, whereas expectancy theories and equity theories are more useful in the context of compensation curricula and the design of compensation plans (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017).

Some of the important process theories, which I discussed in the comparative and rival motivation theories section, include Skinner's (1938) operant conditioning theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and Adams's (1965) equity theory.

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory, also known as the motivation-hygiene theory, was the theoretical framework for this study. This theory provided the foundation for numerous other theories and frameworks in human resource development (Herzberg, 1986). According to Herzberg (1986), job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction derive from two different sets of factors (intrinsic and extrinsic factors), and the measurement of these factors vary (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg (1966) examined the animalistic needs of humans to avoid pain and their humanistic need to grow psychologically. In related research, Herzberg et al. (1959) identified six key factors for intrinsic job satisfaction (called *motivators*): achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Similarly, Herzberg et al. (1959) identified five key factors for extrinsic job satisfaction (called *hygiene factors*): company policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and salary. Intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job

satisfaction are separated as two different phenomena because a certain set of workplace factors cause employees to be satisfied with their jobs, while a separate set of factors causes employees to be dissatisfied with their jobs (Herzberg et al., 1959). Therefore, managers who concern themselves with the nature of the work itself, status, responsibility and achieving self-actualization could increase satisfaction on the job. The absence of hygiene factors may cause dissatisfaction, but their presence does not cause a high level of satisfaction (Kuranchie-Mensah & Amponsah-Tawiah, 2016). When managers desire to reduce dissatisfaction, working conditions and the policies and procedures in the organization need to be the focus. Increasing satisfaction and reducing dissatisfaction are both important, and managers need to value both.

According to Herzberg (1986), hygiene factors (called dissatisfiers) do not motivate employees, but when missing or when present at inadequate levels, can cause job dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg (1966), hygiene factors prevent dissatisfaction, but they do not lead to satisfaction. Hygiene factors are mainly interferences in the workplace (Lazaroiu, 2015). Hygiene factors contribute to the avoidance of bad feeling at work. The ability to manage hygiene factors requires employers ensuring employees receive adequate pay, have safe work environments and the opportunity to create positive interpersonal relationships with supervisors and peers (Herzberg 1974). The presence of adequate hygiene factors should reduce employee dissatisfaction and decrease turnover (Derby-Davis, 2014). Reward programs and opportunities conducive to employee achievement can enhance employee motivation factors, also resulting in a lower turnover (Barrick et al., 2015).

Herzberg (1986) argued that motivators (satisfiers) produced long-term job performance results, whereas hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) produced short-term effects on job performance outcomes. According to Herzberg (1966), psychological growth contributes to contentment. There is an increase in productivity levels when employees are satisfied, and this results in further rewards and beneficial life outcomes (Gonzalez-Mule, Carter, & Mount, 2016). When people believe they will receive a reward as a result of their performance, there is an increase in motivation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). However, the feeling regarding the award they received is a view of satisfaction (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). When managers understand the factors that contribute to employee motivation, recruitment, selection, training, and retention strategies are more effective (Rahman & Nurullah, 2014).

Herzberg et al. (1959) dismissed the assumption that salary was a major contributor to employee job satisfaction. In a study that examined 200 engineers and accountants with the goal of identifying contributors to job satisfaction, Herzberg et al. concluded that job satisfaction broke down into two distinct dimensions: intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction. Herzberg (1974) also noted that the source of intrinsic job satisfaction was job content, whereas the source of extrinsic job satisfaction was work context. Job content refers to jobs that make employees happy through recognition, achievement, and career growth, while job context refers to factors that are under the control of employers rather than employees, such as salary, working conditions, and security (Herzberg, 1974).

Researchers have criticized Herzberg's (1986) two-factor theory on various grounds, such as being methodologically bound, based on faulty research, and being inconsistent with past evidence regarding satisfaction and motivation. Herzberg et al.'s (1959) use of the critical incident technique is one of the main criticisms of the two-factor theory. According to Lundberg, Gudmundson, and Andersson, 2009, the critical incident method was questioned by researchers due to its reliance on respondents' memory and personal testimony. Another criticism of the two-factor theory is the concept of work motivation does not include an explanation of the individual differences of needs and values (Parsons & Broadbridge, 2006). Tuch and Hornbæk (2015) argued that different people have different needs and, therefore, different motivators. Vroom (1964) argued that other methods were required to test the theory effectively. According to House and Wigdor (1967), the rater must additionally interpret the categorization procedures to measure the satisfiers and dissatisfiers by lending the process to contamination of the gathered data.

Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005) conducted a quantitative study of whether Herzberg et al.'s (1959) studies on motivation still had validity. This study revealed that the two-factor theory, nearly 50 years after its development, still had utility. Bassett-Jones and Lloyd's study consisted of 3,209 employees from seven employment sectors, and they found that employees were not primarily motivated by money and recognition. Additionally, Bassett-Jones and Lloyd noted that intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, growth, and interest on the job played a more important role, which is consistent with Herzberg's (1966) arguments.

Researchers have extended the motivation-hygiene theory in diverse fields.

Alshmemri, Shahwan-Akl, and Maude (2016) studied the factors that led to job satisfaction by surveying 272 Saudi nurses in three public Saudi Arabian hospitals. Saudi Arabia relies heavily on the recruitment of expatriate nurses to service its hospitals and understands that employee job satisfaction contributes to maintaining and retaining the national nursing workforce in Saudi Arabia. Alshmemri et al. employed a descriptive, explorative study with a mixed methods design to capture the job satisfaction levels of Saudi nurses working in three public hospitals with a goal of identifying the factors that influence levels of job satisfaction among them. The findings indicated that more female Saudi nurses were dissatisfied with their jobs than male nurses (Alshmemri et al., 2016). Dependent adult nurses who had worked in public hospitals for 5-10 years were found to be dissatisfied with their jobs (Alshmemri et al., 2016). The findings of this study can provide information that could influence recruiting, retaining, and increasing the number of female and male Saudi nationals who study nursing, subsequently alleviating turnover in the Saudi nursing workforce in public hospitals.

The motivation-hygiene theory was applied by Derby-Davis (2014) to identify the factors that contribute to the nursing faculty's job satisfaction and intent to stay in academe. The finding of this study was that age, health-related circumstances, and even family responsibilities could not explain intention to remain in the organization, but a significant relationship existed between the motivation levels and the nurses' intent to stay. Savoy and Wood (2015) also used Herzberg's theory in a nonexperimental, quantitative study to measure 165 radiation therapists' perception of job satisfaction

within the State of Louisiana. The finding of the study identified radiation therapists who experienced sufficient levels of motivators, such as recognition and personal growth, and hygiene factors, such as salary and job security, were satisfied with their jobs and were less likely to leave their work.

The motivation-hygiene theory was used to understand the reasons for high employee turnover in law enforcement agencies (King, 2015). The researcher identified specific factors that influenced higher turnover rates with law enforcement by gathering data from 12 former law enforcement officers from the St. Lucie County Sheriff's Office. These factors consisted of a poor relationship with supervisors, low satisfaction levels, perceived preferential treatment of others, no defined career path, lack of communication, and poor treatment. Findings of King's (2015) study confirmed the motivation-hygiene theory's proposition that one contributor to employee turnover is dissatisfaction with supervisors and colleagues. Williams (2015) also used the two-factor theory to determine how small family business managers retained talented employees who were not members of the family. Williams's findings also indicated that employees who had good professional relationships with their supervisors and peers, as well as a trust in adequate professional growth opportunities, were satisfied with their work thus had less turnover intention.

Comparative and Rival Motivation Theories

A researcher or manager can use the hierarchy of needs theory to identify five needs that individuals attempt to satisfy throughout their lifetimes (Maslow, 1943). The order of hierarchy of needs is in a pyramid shape, showing the importance of some needs

over others to depict how the order of satisfaction influences motivation (Maslow, 1943). According to Maslow (1943), the effect on behavior diminishes once one has achieved lower-level needs satisfaction. Maslow's (1943) categorical hierarchy of needs lists in defined order physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization needs as motivators. Physiological refers to the most basic need, which requires having sufficient food, air, and water to survive; safety consists of the need to be safe from physical and psychological harm; love includes the needs for affection and belonging; esteem is the necessity for reputation, prestige, and recognition from others, as well as self-confidence and strength; and self-actualization is the desire for self-fulfillment, to become the best an individual is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1943).

The three major criticisms associated with Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory are that conclusions are not supported by significant empirical data, there is a false assumption that all employees are comparable, and these are theories about job satisfaction and not motivation (Graham & Messner, 1998). Similarly, Maslow's assumption that before a person can achieve their potential and self-actualize, the lower needs must be satisfied is a criticism noted in Kaur (2013). Researchers have shown that the hierarchy is hard to standardize for use in organizations because the needs that contribute to motivation differ profoundly from one individual to another, as well as being based on organization size and geography (Jonas, 2016).

The two-factor theory is closely related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, but it introduced more factors to measure how individuals are motivated in the workplace (Yusoff, Kian, & Idris, 2013). Maslow (1943) and Herzberg et al. (1959) both state

individuals must fulfill a specific set of needs to achieve satisfaction. Maslow's theory is rooted in the hierarchy of needs whereas Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory is centered on hygiene and motivating factors. Maslow was specific in categorizing areas of human needs and was presented in a simple and descriptive manner as a result of a long experience studying human needs. In contrast, Herzberg et al. had a greater concentration on the physiological aspects of humans who need to be present to produce motivation.

Utilizing the concepts of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Bayoumi (2012) aimed to identify the needs of patients on maintenance hemodialysis. The study involved 50 patients attending the dialysis unit at Suez Canal University Hospital. The findings of Bayoumi revealed the highest need as self-esteem and the lowest need as love and belonging indicating that patients met their needs without first addressing physiological and security needs, a conclusion that also contradicted Maslow's (1943) theory.

Herzberg's (1986) and Maslow's theories are similar because both theories indicate that one must meet a set of requirements to motivate behavior and maintain it (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). The primary difference between the two theories is Maslow's categorization of human needs and the less significant role that he assigns to emotions and other feelings, while Herzberg used his theory to address physiological and concrete factors that must be present to produce motivation (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg predicated his theory on the idea that motivation was the prevailing attitude among individuals, while Maslow posited the idea people must meet their needs to obtain mental and physical development that is wholesome and healthful.

There are different points of view to achieving job satisfaction. According to Maslow (1970), employees will always want more from their employers. According to Shuck and Herd (2012), managers don't have to work at meeting the employee's needs; rather an employee's motivation aligns with their achieving their lowest level of unsatisfied need. An individual's level of satisfaction increases as they move up the hierarchy and achieve each of the needs (Lester, 2013). Thus, when an individual reaches self-actualization, regardless of the job.

Alderfer (1969) used his existence, relatedness, and growth (ERG) theory to condense the five human needs of Maslow's (1943) theory into the three needs categories of existence, relatedness, and growth. The existence needs consist of material and physiological desires and is the most concrete and easiest to verify (Alderfer, 1969). Examples of existence needs include food, water, and air (Alderfer, 1969). Also, when applied to employment issues, existence needs include working conditions, salary, and fringe benefits (Alderfer, 1969). Relatedness needs consist of social and external esteem, such as family and colleague relationships and aligns with the needs for recognition and security in a group which Maslow (1943) also reflects in the third and fourth levels of psychological needs. Murry (2016) found relatedness needs to be less defined and concrete than existence needs.

The third need category that Alderfer (1969) identified in this theory is growth (or internal esteem and self-actualization). A person's progress toward their ideal self is an example of growth found in Murray's (2016) relatedness needs, which also aligns with Maslow's (1943) fourth and fifth levels of psychological need, where he identified the

need to be creative and productive to complete essential tasks (Alderfer, 1969). Alderfer departed from Maslow, concluding the order of pursuing needs was not fixed but depended on category concreteness. Alderfer suggested that a person's motivation could derive from meeting needs from more than one level at the same time, and the importance of the need varied by level and as circumstances change. The ERG theory includes a "frustration-regression" element, which indicates that if certain high-level needs remain unsatisfied for a sufficient length of time, frustration will occur, and the individual will return to pursuing the satisfaction of lower-level needs (Alderfer, 1969).

One can use the acquired needs theory to focus on three primary needs acquired over a lifetime because of career and personal life experiences (McClelland, 1961). According to McClelland (1961), the first step toward using and operating in the acquired needs theory derives from understanding one's own needs and possessing the inclination to assess an individual's behavior or to identify what motivates an individual (McClelland, 1961). One can use the acquired needs theory to identify three needs: achievement, affiliation, and power (McClelland, 1961). The need for achievement refers to an individual's desire to do better and master problem solving, while the affiliation need refers to the individual's desire to have friendly and warm relationships to avoid conflict (McClelland, 1961). The need for power encompasses the willingness to control others and influence behavior (McClelland, 1961).

The theory conceptualizes that individuals have a basic achievement need to view challenging tasks as opportunities to achieve proficiency; therefore, one may apply this theory in employment settings to predict an employee's potential to rise to leadership

roles (Schultheiss et al., 2014). Managers can use this theory to identify their own needs, as well as the needs of coworkers and subordinates, and apply that understanding to create work environments to contribute to the job satisfaction factors aligned with Herzberg's (1986) motivation-hygiene theory (Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015; Lester, 2013). McClelland's (1961) acquired-needs theory and Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory indicate employees have needs, and demotivation ensues when the needs do not meet one's expectations.

The operant conditioning theory is grounded in the assumption that consequences which consist of both positive and negative reinforcements influence human behavior (Skinner, 1938). Positive reinforcement consists of adding a positive incentive, such as praise, to increase the strength of response and induce repetition of the desired behavior (Skinner, 1938). Negative reinforcement involves removing a negative stimulus, such as nagging, that increases the frequency of response (Skinner, 1938). Punishment consists of an undesirable consequence that decreases the likelihood of repeating negative behaviors while extinction involves ignoring the behaviors altogether (Skinner, 1938). Ahmed (2015) explained that reinforcement was a mechanism for modifying behavior, noting that the reinforcement theory used several principles of operant conditioning, specifically positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, punishment, and extinction.

Both Herzberg et al.'s (1959) motivation-hygiene theory and Skinner's (1938) behavior modification theory involve increasing performance. However, the two theories differ regarding the basis for motivation. Skinner focused on observable behavior, and Herzberg et al. focused on intrinsic factors that influenced motivation. Herzberg et al.

identified the job factors necessary for workplace motivation, while Skinner explained behavior modification as a set of techniques based on operant conditioning.

Vroom (1964) departed from all of the other behavior theories discussed above. His expectancy theory does not provide specific suggestions regarding what motivates members of an organization. Rather, Vroom provided a process of reasoning variables that articulated differences in work motivation. His expectancy theory stressed outcomes rather than needs. Vroom's expectancy theory has important implications for motivating employees, such as its identification of the motivation that comes from altering effort through performance expectancy, performance-to-reward expectancy, and reward valences.

According to Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, valence is the significance an employee places on an expected outcome or the employee's belief that better efforts will result in better performance. Expectancies result from factors, such as having the appropriate skills for performing a job, correct resource availability, and organizational support for completing the job (Vroom, 1964). According to HemaMalini and Washington (2014), Vroom based his expectancy theory on the idea that people related their actions to effective performance, thereby resulting in receiving an award.

The premise of equity theory is that employees compare their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar work situations (Adams, 1963). Through this theory, individuals desire equitable treatment at work (Adams, 1963). According to Sun (2016), employees are motivated when they compare the efforts and resulting rewards of one person to the efforts and resulting rewards of another person; they then feel that the

comparisons show an equitable situation. Adams (1963), like Herzberg et al. (1959), acknowledged that subtle and variable factors influenced each person's assessment and perception of their relationship with work and employers. However, Adams placed more weight on comparison features compared to Herzberg et al., and extended his theory beyond Herzberg et al.'s focus on the individual self, considering the motivations provided by comparisons with the situations of others. This measurement of fairness concerning others is the basis of the equity theory (Adams, 1963).

Measurement

The two-factor theory of motivation is due to researchers who examined the factors that influenced job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). The two factors intrinsic and extrinsic refer to the two types of job-related factors that indicate intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Intrinsic factors relate to the content of the job, while extrinsic factors are related to the job environment (Herzberg et al., 1959). Researchers have confirmed the credibility of the two-factor theory for studying job satisfaction due to significant research findings (Lukwago, Basheka, & Odubaker, 2014), and researchers have accepted the theory because of its theoretical simplicity (Holmberg, Caro, & Sobis, 2017). Herzberg et al.'s (1959) theory is the basis for measuring intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions. Subsequent researchers have developed a myriad of instruments for measuring job satisfaction ranging from feelings of workplace empowerment to the specific facets of the workplace environment (Cicolini, Comparcini, & Simonetti, 2014; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Stamps, 1997). Researchers have proposed multiple means of measuring job satisfaction, including the

job descriptive index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), the job diagnostic survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975), the job-in-general scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989), the job satisfaction survey (Spector, 1985), and the index of work satisfaction (Stamps, 1997).

One can use the first means of measuring job satisfaction, the Job Descriptive Index, to measure job satisfaction levels using the five facets of work, pay, promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Kihm, Smith, & Irwin, 2014). Researchers have applied the second means of measuring job satisfaction (Job Diagnostic Survey) to examine the factors related to job satisfaction; they have indicated the five following job characteristics have influenced personal and organizational outcomes: autonomy, task identity, task significance, skill variety, and job feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Ironson et al. (1989) stated researchers could use the third means of measuring job satisfaction (the job-in-general scale), which contained an 18-item inventory, to produce an overall job satisfaction score, rather than the score for individual facets provided by the job descriptive index outlined above. This aspect represented a comprehensive approach that Ironson et al. viewed as a sum of its parts. The fourth means of measuring job satisfaction (the job satisfaction survey) is a well-established questionnaire that researchers have used to evaluate nine dimensions of job satisfaction related to overall satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Researchers can apply the fifth means of measuring job satisfaction (the index of work satisfaction) to measure the extent to which employees enjoy their jobs (Stamps, 1997).

Demographic survey. The Demographic Survey consists of five open-ended questions about the employee's current personal information, such as age, gender, educational background, job classification, and years of service (Green & Salkind, 2016). Descriptive statistics are then applied to measure the central tendency of a specific variable using minimum, median, maximum, and standard deviation (Green & Salkind, 2016). Descriptive analysis was applied to the summary of answers to determine the frequency and percentage distribution of the demographic variables.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The MSQ is one of the first instruments created for measuring job satisfaction (Weiss, Davis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The MSQ is available in a long form and a short form (Purohit, Yadav, & Goyal, 2016), with the long form consisting of 100 items divided into 20 five-item scales and relating to reinforcement in the work environment (Purohit et al., 2016). The short form consists of 20 items extracted from the MSQ long form (Purohit et al., 2016). The 20 five-item scales measure utilization ability, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, coworkers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision human relations, supervision technical, variety, working conditions, and general job satisfaction (Oliver, 2014). The MSQ lists response options on a scale, where 1 indicates *very dissatisfied*, 2 indicates *dissatisfied*, 3 indicates *neither satisfied nor dissatisfied*, 4 indicates *satisfied*, and 5 indicates *very satisfied* (Purohit et al., 2016).

Researchers have used the MSQ extensively to study job satisfaction, specifically to measure the intrinsic components, such as employee feelings toward the nature of the

job, as well as the extrinsic components separate from the work itself (Worsfold, Fisher, McPhail, Francis, & Thomas, 2016). Researchers have used the MSQ in hospitality studies; they have shown it as a valid and reliable measure of job satisfaction and its component parts (Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014). The 5 minutes time to complete the short form, versus the 15 to 20-minute timeframe to complete the long form, contributed significantly to my choice of this instrument as the primary data collection vehicle for this study. I have chosen the MSQ to address numerous facets of job satisfaction; therefore, I can provide greater detail.

Turnover intention scale (TIS-6). For this study, I used the TIS-6 to measure the dependent variable employee turnover intentions. The TIS-6 originated from a 15-item scale developed in 2004 by Professor Gerdt Roodt to measure employee turnover intention (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). Roodt (2004) later developed a shorter version of the turnover intention scale that included 6 of the original 15 items, named TIS-6. The TIS-6 allows the research to assess an employee's intent to leave an organization by measuring six items on a 5-point Likert scale with options ranging from 1 (never to always) to 5 (highly likely) (Roodt, 2004). Samples of questions in the TIS-6 include "How often have you considered leaving your job?" and "How often do you look forward to another day at work?" (Bothma & Roodt, 2013, p. 4). Permission to reproduce and use the TIS-6 for noncommercial research is available in Appendix C.

The TIS-6 is an acceptable instrument in the research community as numerous researchers have used it to assess employee turnover intentions (Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish 2013; Taboli, 2015; Yusoff, Rimi, & Meng, 2015). Mxenge et al. (2014)

confirmed the reliability coefficient for the turnover intention scale, developed by Roodt (2004), was .80 and Malik and Khalid (2016) confirmed the Cronbach alpha score was .79. Bothma and Roodt (2013) confirmed the reliability of the six-item TIS-6 ($\alpha = .80$). The alpha value represents the level of significance and the Cronbach alpha factor is the measure of internal consistency (Bonett & Wright, 2015).

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

Intrinsic job satisfaction is multifaceted, and researchers have examined its effects on work outcomes, such as employee commitment and turnover intentions (Basak, 2014). Business leaders can use a comprehensive understanding of intrinsic job satisfaction to identify factors that influence intrinsic job satisfaction, explain various layers of work outcomes, and increase organizational productivity (Che Nawi et al., 2016; Girma, 2016a). Researchers have identified relationships between intrinsic job satisfaction and an organization's ability to achieve financial goals, producing substantial findings with a direct relationship to organizational performance (Ahamed & Sunderasan, 2016). Researchers have also shown intrinsic job satisfaction to affect employee commitment, which influences organizational performance, as well (Kanyurhi & Bugandwa Mungu Akonkwa, 2016). Intrinsic job satisfaction derived from numerous factors can lead to significant contributions to the survival of an organization (Girma, 2016b).

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from an individual's evaluation of job rewards. Ngo, Foley, Ji, and Loi (2014) explained it as a positive attitude toward one's job as a social exchange between obligation and rewards. Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) defined it as an individual's description of

their level of contentment and attachment towards their job. Shukla and Singh (2016) and Castanheira (2014) defined job satisfaction as an individual's level of contentment and attachment toward the characteristics of the job itself, as well as the work environment. Job satisfaction is also an employee's attitude towards the holistic or specific facets of their job (Owusu-Ansah, 2014). Herzberg et al. (1959) described job satisfaction as the extent to which people liked or disliked their jobs. Millán, Hessels, Thurik, and Aguado (2013) explained job satisfaction as the degree to which people liked their work, with the self-reported information being the determining factors.

A consistent theme is the idea that people who are satisfied with their work perform better in their jobs (Che Nawi et al., 2016). Previous researchers have identified links, both direct and indirect, between intrinsic job satisfaction and organizational performance (Liu & Liu, 2014; Yousef, 2017). In summation, intrinsic job satisfaction encompasses the degree to which employees like or dislike their job or the contentment they feel with the job or with specific aspects of the job (Owusu-Ansah, 2014).

Work content. According to Dugguh and Dennis (2014), work content can include the work itself, as well as its challenges, and can consist of the technical skills that contribute to the performance of a specific job. Work can also involve an employee's perception of a job's difficulty or interest level (Scheers & Botha, 2014). Work content is a measure of a job's level of autonomy, creativity, and difficulty and can significantly predict intrinsic job satisfaction (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014). An employee's job description can have a significant influence on intrinsic job satisfaction (Landis, Vick, & Novo, 2015), as can the question of whether the work is of personal interest to the

employee (Mbogo, 2016). When an employee invests himself or herself in work because the work is interesting and challenging, they become intrinsically motivated to put forth the effort and grow (Delaney & Royal, 2017).

Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2013) conducted a longitudinal study of 288 chemical plant employees; they examined employees' abilities to craft their job demands and resources, which was a reliable predictor of their welfare and intrinsic job satisfaction. Tims et al. hypothesized that employee job crafting would affect work engagement, intrinsic job satisfaction, and the burnout that could result from changes in job demands and job resources. The results indicated that employees who invested themselves in their work or engaged in job crafting had increased intrinsic job satisfaction, and Tims et al. concluded that employers should give employees the opportunity to craft their jobs.

When leaders enrich their employees' jobs with autonomy, creativity, and multiple tasks, the employees' sense of responsibility increases, and there is a greater opportunity for achievement and employee satisfaction (Lopes, Lagoa, & Calapez, 2014). Similarly, employees accomplish more job-related tasks when they have greater control and autonomy of their job (Duarte et al., 2015). Shantz, Alfes, Truss, and Soane (2013) examined the role of employee engagement in the relationships between job design and task performance, citizenship, and deviant behaviors. Shantz et al. used a survey of 283 employees in a United Kingdom consultancy and construction firm, gathering supervisors' independent performance evaluations for review and analysis. Findings indicated that employees whose jobs provided high levels of autonomy, task variety, task significance, and feedback tended to participate more, earn increased performance ratings

from their supervisors, portray greater organizational citizenship behaviors, and engage in fewer deviant behaviors (Shantz et al., 2013).

Imran, Arif, Cheema, and Azeem (2014) examined the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and job performance attitude toward work and organizational commitment by examining a sample of 200 employees from different public and private educational institutes in Pakistan. Findings indicated a positive relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and performance. Additionally, findings indicated that organizational commitment had a significant relationship to performance and attitudes towards work (Imran et al., 2014). Imran et al. concluded that an employee's ability to do their job with greater efficiency led to a greater organizational commitment by the employee.

Recognition. People have a fundamental need for appreciation (Lester, 2013). When employees receive recognition, they feel a sense of value, which contributes to their intrinsic job satisfaction, productivity, and motivation (Knight & Kleiner, 2015; Zeb, Jamal, & Ali, 2015). Employee recognition often has greater value than compensation packages and serves to encourage employee creativity (Kanten, 2014). All individuals in an organization want recognition for their job achievements (Imran et al., 2014). The accomplishment does not have to be significant, but the recognition should be immediate and sincere (Zwickel et al., 2016).

Recognition can be in the form of public affirmation, written commendation, financial reward, or recognition by a formal recognition program in the organization (Bhatnagar, 2014). In theory, employees who receive recognition for achievements are

likely to have higher intrinsic job satisfaction levels compared to those who do not (Knight & Kleiner, 2015; Zeb et al., 2015). In addition to the effect that recognition has on intrinsic job satisfaction, employee recognition also makes significant contributions to employee retention (Vaiman, Haslberger, & Vance, 2015). Employee retention is an organizational benefit, as leaders can use it to maintain top talent and inspire employee engagement (Vaiman et al., 2015).

Bradler, Dur, Neckermann, and Non (2016) investigated the causal effect of recognition on employee performance, focusing specifically on exclusive recognition. In a field-controlled experiment, 343 individuals received unexpected recognition (a “thank you” card personally signed by the head of the research department) at the 2-hour mark of a 3-hour task (Bradler et al., 2016). To examine the effects of exclusive recognition, researchers selected recipients for the recognition in three ways: giving the card to the best single individual, to the best three individuals, or the entire work group (Bradler et al., 2016). Findings indicated that when recognition was exclusive toward the best performer, individuals’ subsequent performance increased (Bradler et al., 2016). Conversely, recognition to the top three performers was found to yield the greatest effect on group productivity (Bradler et al., 2016). The exclusive recognition provided the greatest increase in nonrecipient performance due to conformity preferences; when employees found that they were not one of the top performers in the group, they manifested an inclination to improve performance to adhere to group norms (Bradler et al., 2016). Findings also indicated that recognition was a cost-effective tool for increasing

employee effort because recognition was limited to a small number of high performers (Bradler et al., 2016).

Tessema, Ready, and Embay (2013) analyzed the effects of employee recognition, pay, and benefits of intrinsic job satisfaction, using survey responses from 1,195 United States, Malaysian, and Vietnamese university students in a cross-sectional study to reveal that both financial and nonfinancial rewards had a significant influence on intrinsic job satisfaction and employee performance. Employee recognition produces employee value, increases self-worth, and augments the ability to contribute, which boosts productivity, as well as employee satisfaction (Zeb et al., 2015). According to Tessema et al., regular expressions of appreciation by managers and leaders encourage employee behavior that coincides with reaching organizational strategic goals.

Ineson, Benke, and László (2013) identified employee recognition as a key contributor to intrinsic job satisfaction in a study of 600 Hungarian hotel employees. Ineson et al. identified the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and organizational loyalty; they concluded that managers' treatment of employees was a more significant contributor to employee loyalty compared to monetary rewards. Personal satisfaction gained from participation and recognition, as well as a commitment to managers and company, were a few of the principal components identified as key contributors to intrinsic job satisfaction and employee loyalty respectfully (Ineson et al., 2013).

Responsibility. An employee's responsibility is the degree of freedom that they have to make decisions and implement ideas regarding a job (Appelbaum et al., 2013).

When an employee is permitted to exercise this type of responsibility, they are more inclined to work harder on a project and enjoy greater satisfaction from the results (Duffy, Autin, & Bott, 2015). In addition to participating in the decision-making process, employees want to be accountable for their work (Appelbaum et al., 2013).

In a study of attitudes at work, Zopiatis et al. (2014) used a structural equation model for investigating the causal roles that job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction played in the intentions of hospitality personnel employed on the island of Cyprus to either remain at or leave their jobs. The results indicated a positive association among the factors of job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Zopiatis et al., 2014). The findings indicated a positive association between affective and normative organizational commitment and between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; the findings further indicated a negative association among the factors of organizational commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Zopiatis et al., 2014). Yeh (2013) concluded that job involvement had a significant and positive influence on job satisfaction. An employee's ability to achieve intrinsic job satisfaction derives from their perspectives of the job itself and empowerment—factors that allow for innovation and positive emotions regarding the job itself (Lyons, 2016).

Bayraktar, Araci, Karacay, and Calisir (2017) examined the relationship between employee involvement and job satisfaction among 400 financial sector employees. The researchers defined employee involvement as synonymous with employee responsibility, saying that it consisted of giving employees opportunities to contribute to the decisions

and actions that affected their jobs (Bayraktar et al., 2017). Rewards also benefit the organization as a whole because these prompt employees to act in line with organizational goals (Bayraktar et al., 2017). Bayraktar et al. used hierarchical linear regression analysis and found rewards mediated the relationship between employee involvement and intrinsic job satisfaction.

Growth potential. According to Lester (2013), growth potential encompasses both advancement potential and the possibility of growth; moreover, it influences overall job satisfaction. For example, if advancement is expected but does not occur, there is a negative influence on extrinsic job satisfaction. Similarly, there is a positive influence on extrinsic job satisfaction in the event of receiving an unexpected advancement (Lester, 2013). An employee's belief in the possibility of growth includes their belief in opportunities to advance and gain knowledge in a new skill set (Kumar, 2016). The perception of growth possibility can also be negative, thereby leading to employee turnover if the possibility of promotion is nonexistent (Dong, Seo, & Bartol, 2014). An employee's desire for personal growth and advancement can produce intrinsic job satisfaction, but it can also increase employee turnover if the intent is to pursue career advancement with another organization (Lester, 2013).

Leaders can provide advancement opportunities for employees to increase job performance so that employees can demonstrate their strengths (Dong et al., 2014). Advancement and personal growth are necessary for employee satisfaction (Lester, 2013), and both promote employee happiness, thereby decreasing employee turnover (Van der Meer, Wielers, & Rozenstraat, 2015). Advancements also increase positive

performance due to the employees' desire to prove advancement worthiness (Wang, Tsai, Lei, & Lai, 2016).

Amissah, Gamor, Deri, and Amissah (2016) focused on factors that affected intrinsic job satisfaction among hotel industry employees. A total of 190 hotel employees provided descriptive data via questionnaires, and results indicated that pay, supervision, promotion, and advancement had a significant influence on intrinsic job satisfaction (Amissah et al., 2016). Additional research findings from researchers who focused on employees in the hospitality industry indicated that career advancement was significant in the measurement of intrinsic job satisfaction and the intention to stay in the hospitality industry (McPhail, Patiar, Herington, Creed, & Davidson, 2015). Sohail and Delin (2013) examined growth potential with a study of 100 academic staff, suggesting that promotion could have different meanings to different staff members but served as a motivator for all. Moreover, Pan (2015) defined promotion as a primary factor in achieving intrinsic job satisfaction.

Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Extrinsic job satisfaction derives from extrinsic job factors and can lead to poor organizational performance (Ahamed & Sunderasan, 2016). Extrinsic job factors include job security, pay, fringe benefits, and working conditions (Purohit & Bandyopadhyay, 2014). Other researchers have revealed that extrinsic job satisfaction leads to decreased productivity and an increase in voluntary terminations (Andrews, Kacmar, & Kacmar, 2014). Hofaidhllaoui and Chhinzer (2014) added that employees could experience extrinsic job satisfaction at work, and they might leave the organization if they found the

situation unendurable. According to Herzberg et al. (1959), employee job dissatisfaction can result from the employee's experience concerning the hygiene factors of satisfaction. According to Schultz, Ryan, Niemiec, Legate, and Williams (2015), an employee's length of employment, as well as their ability to maintain a healthy work/life balance, can contribute to extrinsic job satisfaction. For example, an employee who has been with a certain employer for a short amount of time may become dissatisfied more quickly if they also struggle to reach a comfortable work/life balance (Schultz et al., 2015). Conversely, an employee with longer tenure may be less troubled by overall extrinsic job satisfaction even with work/life balance difficulties in place (Schultz et al., 2015).

Extrinsic job satisfaction is not the determining factor in an employee's decision to exit an organization; rather, it is the level or degree of extrinsic satisfaction (Hofaidhllaoui & Chhinzer, 2014). Research findings indicated that extrinsic job satisfaction was a predictor of employee turnover intention and actual employee turnover, as well (Sheraz, Wajid, Sajid, Quershi, & Rizwan, 2014). Employee turnover can involve combining mental and physical factors; for example, when extrinsic job satisfaction influences the job environment by reducing an employee's contribution to the organization's work (Kumar, 2016). Extrinsic job satisfaction can also be a product of an employee's inability to variables, such as personal values, job expectations, and their attitude toward the job (Ahamed & Sunderasan, 2016).

According to Sankar (2015), hygiene factors encourage employee job satisfaction; however, eliminating these factors can affect extrinsic job satisfaction and increase an employee's intent to quit (Peachey, Burton, & Wells, 2014). The intention to leave an

organization weighs heavily on an employee's extrinsic job satisfaction and perception of their work conditions (Kumar, 2016). In a study about the paper industry, Sankar stated leaders could use hygiene factors to encourage the employee's extrinsic job satisfaction. When examining the influence of hygiene factors, such as salary, job security, and working conditions, on employee retention and job satisfaction, the research findings indicated that satisfaction driven by several key factors should be managed congruently (Sankar, 2015). Herzberg et al. (1959) theorized that hygiene factors (working conditions, job security, salary, and fringe benefits) caused employees to be dissatisfied and led to turnover (Herzberg, 1974).

Working conditions. An employee's working conditions consist of their terms and conditions of employment (Al-Hamdan, Manojlovich, & Tanima, 2017). Working conditions also consist of the physical environment, which can include infrastructure and amenities; the mental environment, such as attitude and behavior of colleagues; and the social environment (Jain & Kaur, 2014). According to Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015), the working condition includes all the different characteristics of a job to include but not limited to the way a job is carried out and completed, as well as the sense of achievement one feels from work. When working conditions in an organization are positive, employee motivation and performance increase, and employee turnover go down (Hayes, Douglas, & Bonner, 2015; Zeb et al., 2015). A positive work climate produces employee respect, recognition, and appreciation, which results in a reduction in employee turnover (Vasquez, 2014). The work schedule, workload, and the degree of safety and danger are

examples of the types of considerations that define the working condition of an organization (Andreassen et al., 2017).

The work schedule is a significant aspect of the overall working conditions because it influences work/life balance, stress levels, and the physical and mental wellbeing of employees (Putnam, Myers, & Gailliard, 2014). Research findings indicated that flexible work schedules improved work/life balance (Putnam et al., 2014) and decreased stress by enhancing extrinsic job satisfaction (Knight & Kleiner, 2015). Research findings from a study about the advantages of working from home indicated a 13% increase in performance from those call center employees who volunteered to work from home (Bloom, Liang, Roberts, & Ying, 2014). The 13% increase in performance occurred because employees took fewer breaks and sick days per shift, thereby increasing total work time by 9%, and they could take 4% more calls in the quieter, home-based working environment (Bloom et al., 2014). Employees who worked at home also reported an increase in extrinsic job satisfaction and a decrease in turnover intentions (Bloom et al., 2014).

Employees have expressed their working conditions are good when they see their workplace as having a safe and healthy environment (Matz, Woo, & Kim, 2014). The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 requires employers to maintain a safe and healthy workplace for employees (McSweeney-Feld & Rubin, 2013). According to Zeb et al. (2015), leaders can use good working conditions to enhance employee commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction, thereby decreasing employee turnover.

The findings of worksite wellness and safety study of 16,926 employees in Colorado across multiple industries indicated that effective workplace safety measures reduced absenteeism and improved job performance (Jinnett, Schwatka, Tenney, Brockbank, & Newman, 2017). The findings of the study indicated that employers should put a greater emphasis on improving the fit between a worker's duties and their abilities (Jinnett et al., 2017). Findings from other research similarly indicated that those organization leaders who concentrated on employee welfare increased their organizations' safety level climate and reduced safety accidents, particularly when they addressed employees' objectives in ways that helped them do their jobs safely and efficiently (Andreassen et al., 2017). Additional findings from other studies showed that workplaces with exemplary health and safety conditions gained the positive participation of employees, increase extrinsic job satisfaction, and decrease employee turnover (Jinnett et al., 2017).

Workload refers to the amount of work an employee must complete or accomplish, although an employee's perception of what needs completion can often differ from the organization's actual requirements (Ilies, Huth, Ryan, & Dimotakis, 2015). The amount of work to be done is quantitative, whereas the difficulty of the work has a qualitative aspect (Ilies et al., 2015). Work overload can have a negative effect on employee motivation (Van Yperen, Wörtler, & De Jonge, 2016). Organization leaders who effectively assess the operator workload of human-machine systems can identify workload bottlenecks and overload in advance, preventing work exhaustion, work burnout, and stress, all of which are determinant factors in turnover intention (Jung &

Yoon, 2014). Emotional exhaustion can result from work overload, and a nonsupportive work environment has a negative effect on employee performance (Saleem, Ahmed, & Saleem, 2016). Emotional exhaustion also reduces extrinsic job satisfaction levels (Cho et al., 2013), and work overload contributes to employee burnout, which has a negative effect on the employee's commitment to the organization (Saleem et al., 2016).

Salary. Call, Nyberg, Ployhart, and Weekley (2015) suggested compensation was important to the employee's overall extrinsic job satisfaction, motivation, performance, retention, and the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. Compensation is also strategic, as it can be a means of influencing employees' motivation of one another (Gerhart & Fang, 2014). In the areas of high performance and organizational success, Yanadori and Cui (2013) suggested that organizational success had an indirect relationship with employee compensation. According to Giancola (2014) and Mulla, Vyas, and Hanji (2014), salary is a factor that can contribute to extrinsic job satisfaction.

Hegde, Bhagwatwar, Bala, and Venkataraman (2014) focused on the issues of compensation, compensation satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction, constructing three hypotheses: (a) compensation positively influences extrinsic job satisfaction; (b) compensation positively influences compensation satisfaction, and (c) compensation satisfaction positively influences extrinsic job satisfaction. Hegde et al. found that when employees were satisfied with their compensation, they were likely to stay with their current organization. They expected that their compensation in the organization would increase in proportion to their tenure and experience.

Other study findings showed that offering monetary and nonmonetary awards beyond an employee's existing salary could similarly have a positive effect on productivity, but findings indicated that nonmonetary awards had less impact on dissatisfaction than monetary rewards (Bareket-Bojmel, Hochman, & Ariely, 2014). These findings aligned with Herzberg et al.'s (1959) motivation-hygiene theory that materialistic values could be dissatisfying. Additional findings indicated a significant correlation between salary and extrinsic job satisfaction, and a significant effect of financial rewards on extrinsic job satisfaction (Mulla et al., 2014).

The compensation system that organization leaders offer can greatly influence their employees' commitment and retention (Kwon, 2014). Terera and Ngirande (2014) determined the influence of rewards on employee retention to determine whether relationships existed among the factors of rewards, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee retention. A total of 180 randomly selected nurses responded to a self-administered questionnaire; the results indicated that compensation could influence employee retention but did not necessarily indicate extrinsic job satisfaction (Terera & Ngirande, 2014).

Job security. Shoss (2017) defined job security as the probability of an employee maintaining continuous employment with an organization. Moreover, a characteristic of job insecurity is the presence of an uncontrollable threat to employment (Cheng, Mauno, & Lee, 2014). Employees are confident about their job security when employers assure them of continued employment (Millán et al., 2013). An employee's perception of job security can significantly influence their satisfaction with the job (Rigotti, Mohr, &

Isaksson, 2015). According to Ellonen and Natti (2015), perceived job insecurity is an employee's beliefs that there is an impending loss of employment. Research findings indicated a significant negative relationship between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction (Zheng, Diaz, Tang, & Tang, 2014).

The influence of job insecurity serves as a mediating role in extrinsic job satisfaction (Ouyang, Sang, Li, & Peng, 2015). When job insecurity becomes a source of stress for an employee, negative attitudes can develop about the job and the organization, resulting in a decrease in job performance, as well as a decrease in extrinsic job satisfaction (Urbanaviciute, Lazauskaite-Zabielske, Elst, Bagdziuniene, & De Witte, 2015). Ouyang et al. (2015) examined the correlation between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction, using the MSQ as a data collection tool. Study participants consisted of 420 information technology employees, and findings indicated a significant correlation between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction (Ouyang et al., 2015).

Cheng et al. (2014) revealed the threat of losing a job became a permanent phenomenon for many employees. Cheng et al. conducted a study of the relationships among the factors of job insecurity, job control, and extrinsic job satisfaction of 926 Finnish employees over 3 years. The findings of the study indicated that job control was the most effective buffer against job insecurity; therefore, social support buffered against the negative effects that job insecurity had on extrinsic job satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2014). The relationship between job insecurity and extrinsic job satisfaction has also been found to differ depending on whether employees are self-employed or directly employed (Millán et al., 2013). According to Millán et al. (2013), self-employed individuals are

more likely to have elevated levels of enjoying extrinsic job satisfaction but are less likely to enjoy feelings of job security in comparison with paid employees.

Fringe benefits. Fringe benefits are those desirable job attributes that can increase extrinsic job satisfaction (Ahmad & Scott, 2015). Fringe benefits, such as paid leave, insurance plans, and retirement savings plans, are vital components of compensation and have the added benefit of not being subject to taxation (Urbancová & Šnýdrová, 2017). Research findings indicated that employees viewed benefits as a substitute for wages and were often willing to accept lower wages in exchange for greater benefits (Rodgers, 2016). Fringe benefits are also an effective means of attracting, retaining, and motivating employees (Mamun & Hasan, 2017).

Employees may view fringe benefits as nonwage job amenities (Rodgers, 2016). Through the lens of diminished sensitivity (loss aversion), employees tend to place more value on fringe benefits than on a similar increase in wages (Eriksson & Kristensen, 2014). The endowment effect (giving ownership) can cause an employee to be more attached to the fringe benefit than to the equivalence in money (Shealy, Klotz, Weber, Johnson, & Bell, 2016). The framing effect (cognitive bias) influences an employee's evaluation of the fringe benefit relative to their evaluation of the monetary wage (Shealy et al., 2016). The amount an employer reports to the tax authorities for providing a fringe benefit can increase the employee's view of its value (Rodgers, 2016). The perceived increase in value reinforces the motivation to view the benefit as a nonwage job amenity (Rodgers, 2016).

Employees and employers both gain health advantages because of fringe benefits (Zimmer, 2015). Health shocks in the form of disease or because of the death of a loved one can profoundly affect an employee's view of fringe benefits, such as health insurance and paid sick leave (Zimmer, 2015). Research findings showed that employees who experienced a health shock but had employer-provided health benefits did not resort to an excessive reduction in employment activities via their paid sick leave; however, they used the benefit wisely (Zimmer, 2015). Employers have viewed fringe benefits as a means of recruiting and retaining employees, of motivating employees to exhibit consistent high performance, and of distinguishing their organization from their competitors (Urbancová & Šnýdrová, 2017).

Research findings showed that employers who provided a suitable system of remuneration and fringe benefits had increased retention of satisfied and loyal employees (Urbancová & Šnýdrová, 2017). Understanding the relationship between fringe benefits and employee retention can help an organization develop an effective and competitive fringe benefit package (Mamun & Hasan, 2017). Ahmad and Scott (2015) studied 104 managers from luxury hotels on Langkawi Island, Malaysia; they revealed a significant relationship between fringe benefits and organizational commitment. Ahmad and Scott focused on relocation allowances, sports, and social facilities, birthday celebrations, and free laundry services; they found that the fringe benefits had the most significant effect on affective commitment. Their findings also indicated a difference in the value that managerial and nonmanagerial hotel employees placed on fringe benefits (Ahmad & Scott, 2015). Also, the researchers found that employees were more motivated by a

combination of salary and fringe benefits, and fringe benefits might attract a high caliber of job applicants, thereby providing the organization leaders with a competitive advantage (Ahmad & Scott, 2015).

Employee Turnover Intentions

Mobley (1982) defined turnover intent as an employee's voluntary plan to terminate employment, characterized by an employee's frequent thoughts about quitting or efforts to seek employment elsewhere (Tastan, 2014). Turnover intent can lead to an actual turnover, which can be harmful and costly for an organization (Mishra, Mishra, & Grubb, 2015). The turnover intent, as well as actual turnover, has a negative effect on employee morale and effectiveness, which is harmful to an organization (Lin, Lin, Liu, & Liu, 2017). Turnover intent that results in actual turnover influences the costs associated with recruitment, training, and the retention of the replacements (Harrison & Gordon, 2014).

Factors that influence turnover intentions include low wages, negative prospects for advancement, and job dissatisfaction due to organizational culture and performance (Campbell, Loving, & Lebel, 2014; Christian & Ellis, 2014; Dusterhoff, Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2014). Turnover intentions can also derive from employee workload (Saleem et al., 2016) and of an employee's determination that there are other employment opportunities that appear easily obtainable (Long, Ajafbe, & Kowang, 2014). Managing the antecedents to turnover intent can increase employee satisfaction and decrease employee turnover intention (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979). The

antecedents that decrease employee turnover intent include employee engagement, employee commitment, and employee retention (Jinnett et al., 2017).

Employee engagement. Mone and London (2014) defined employee engagement as the degree to which an employee was committed to helping an organization, reflected by the willingness to do a better job than required to hold the job. Employee engagement has three components: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral; these result in employee motivation and employee loyalty (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014). Rana, Ardichvili, and Tkachenko (2014) used Dubin's (1978) two-part, 8-step theory building methodology to identify the major antecedents to employee engagement, concluding the following four antecedents: job design and characteristics, relationships between supervisors and coworkers, workplace environment, and human resource practices. Mone and London found major organizational outcomes, such as job performance, turnover intention, and organizational citizenship behavior, influenced employee engagement.

According to Eldor and Vigoda-Gadot (2017), how employees feel about the work, the work environment, and the energy put forth to represent the good of the employer or the organization determines the level of employee engagement. Employee engagement flows from the combination of (a) the resources that support and facilitate the employee's work, (b) the challenge involved in the task performed, and (c) the fairness, resulting in the trust that the employee experiences (Mone & London, 2014). In a service setting, such as the luxury hotel industry, employees who experience fair treatment exert extra energy toward behaving dutifully toward their customers because of their emotional commitments to the organization (Mone & London, 2014). Employees

showing this behavior create customers who feel as though they have been justly treated well, thereby enhancing their customer experience (Mone & London, 2014).

Findings from a systematic synthesis of 214 studies focusing on meaning, antecedents, and outcomes of employee engagement indicated five groups of factors serving as antecedents of employee engagement (Bailey, Madden, Alfes, & Fletcher, 2017). These groups included psychological states, job design, leadership, organizational and team factors, and organizational interventions (Bailey et al., 2017). Additionally, Bailey et al. (2017) found that morale, task performance, and organizational performance had a positive relationship with employee engagement.

Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) supported the idea that employee engagement referred to the positive attitudes and behaviors that resulted in high job performance aligning with an organization's mission. Employee retention depends on consistency in service climate, quality of service provided, and continued increase in profits because of high job performance (Hong, Jiang, Liao, & Sturman, 2016). Employee engagement is a significant driver of organizational success due to its influence on increased productivity, improved organizational commitment, and greater managerial effectiveness (Blomme, Kodden, & Beasley-Suffolk, 2015). Characteristics of an engaged employee's feelings include enthusiasm, pride, and inspiration to perform their job (Carter, Nesbit, Badham, Parker, & Sung, 2016). Organizational success depends on employee engagement because of employee engagement influences productivity, profitability, and sustainability (Strom, Sears, & Kelly, 2014).

Employee commitment. According to Fraj, Matute, and Melero (2015), employee commitment greatly influences an organizational leader's ability to be competitive and innovative. Understanding the drivers of employee commitment to the organization is a priority for employers who wish to minimize turnover (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). According to Lau, Tong, Lien, Hsu, and Chong (2017), there is a significant relationship between employee commitment and positive job performance.

Employee commitment consists of three components: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014). An employee's emotional attachment to the organization is their affective commitment (Zhou et al., 2015), while continuance commitment is the employee's attachment to an organization because of instrumental considerations and normative commitment that derives from the employee's moral obligation to the organization (Albdour & Altarawneh, 2014). According to Albdour and Altarawneh (2014), each of the three components of commitment connects with the other components. Research indicated that affective commitment promoted workplace innovation but did not affect employee turnover intention (Zhou et al., 2015). However, research findings did not indicate affective commitment as a link between mentoring and employee turnover, as mentoring increased employee motivation (Zhou et al., 2015). One factor that contributed significantly to employee commitment was employee motivation (Anitha & Begum, 2016).

Employee motivation results from various motivational factors, such as increased pay, job security, and employee support from leadership (Ahamed & Sunderasan, 2016). In addition to those motivational factors, an employee's perception of the work environment and the quality of organizational communication can be a significant determinant of employee motivation (Porter, Riesenmy, & Fields, 2016). Employee development is a motivation strategy that organizational leadership can implement into the work environment (Devito, Brown, Bannister, Cianci, & Mujtaba, 2016). Research findings indicated using employee development as a motivation strategy enhanced employee engagement, satisfaction, commitment, and performance (Vaiman et al., 2015). According to Ncube and Samuel (2014), leaders can use business relations in an organization to increase employee motivation and decrease turnover. Other research findings indicated that employee motivation in the hospitality industry was the key to employee retention because of the constant contact between employees and guests (Marshall et al., 2016).

Employee retention. Vaiman et al. (2015) defined employee retention as the successful efforts of organizational leaders to retain a substantial number of employees and maintain them for organizational success. In an increasingly globalized business world, the hotel industry leaders rely on projecting consistent, quality branding across geographic regions, and sometimes around the world (Vasquez, 2014). Employee retention is a key element in a hotel chain's ability to cultivate customer loyalty by projecting an image of consistent customer service and customer satisfaction (Vasquez, 2014). Retaining employees can pose a challenge to a variety of organizations (Mishra et

al., 2015), and organizational success hinges on successfully recruiting and retaining key employees (Al-Emadi, Schwabenland, & Qi, 2015). An organization leader remains competitive by having strategies for attracting, hiring, developing, and retaining exceptional talent (Oladapo, 2014), and the cost is one of the challenges to maintaining employee retention (Vasquez, 2014).

The costs associated with employee retention strategies consist of effective human resources practices, which include plans for sustaining valuable and competent staff, developing employees, and providing mentorship (Almaaitah, Harada, Sakdan, & Almaaitah, 2017). Additional costs result from organizational investments in training programs that increase employee skill sets, making employees more competitive for promotion in the organization (Vasquez, 2014). A key element of employee retention is a focus on performance management strategies, which develop and increase the employees' expertise and maximize employees' performance potential (Kahn & Du, 2014). Retaining current staff decreases the costs associated with the hiring and training of new employees (Laudicina, Moon, Beck, & Craft, 2014). Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, employee engagement, and employee loyalty provides indicators of an employee's intent to remain with an organization and is an excellent method of examining the strategies conducive to increasing employee retention (Ashmore & Gilson, 2015; Shacklock, Brunetto, Teo, & Farr-Wharton, 2014). Failure to maintain employee retention can result in a voluntary turnover, which creates training and replacement expenses (Vasquez, 2014).

Understanding what causes turnover can help to increase employee retention and improve organizational performance and success (Vasquez, 2014). Factors that increase employee retention include satisfied employees (Vaiman et al., 2015); moreover, employees believe they have organizational support (Mishra et al., 2015), and leaders can use intrinsic rewards, such as meaningfulness and voice (Menges, Tussing, Wihler, & Grant, 2017). Organization leaders who understand employee needs are better equipped to develop effective retention strategies (Gouviea, Milfont, & Guerra, 2014).

Transition

In summation, I examined the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in luxury hotels. As discussed above, the findings of this study may contribute to the existing knowledge regarding the employee turnover intentions of front-desk, customer service employees of Las Vegas luxury hotels. The findings may also provide information that hospitality leaders can use to augment their understanding of the factors that influence turnover intentions. The information in the preceding literature review detailed the existing writings regarding the factors that determine intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intention. The information contributes to the body of knowledge that luxury hotel leaders may use to reduce the turnover intentions of their front desk, customer service employees of luxury hotels.

In Section 2, I outlined the role of the researcher, the chosen research method and design for this study, and the participant sampling methods. The section also included information regarding ethical research, data collection instruments, techniques, and

analysis, as well as an explanation of the validity of the research instruments employed.

In Section 3, the findings and recommendations for action and future research were reported.

Section 2: The Project

In this section, I offer a detailed review of the study. The section includes an overview of the purpose statement, a discussion of the role of the researcher, and a description of the participants. Moreover, the section includes a discussion of the research method, research design, population and sampling techniques, ethical research practices, instrumentation, the data collection process, data analysis techniques, and study validity.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. The independent variables were two types of job satisfaction: intrinsic and extrinsic. The dependent variable was employee turnover intentions. The targeted population was front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels in Las Vegas, Nevada. The implication for positive social change included providing a framework for hotel industry leaders to understand better employee retention, thereby developing and investing in future leaders to reduce the local unemployment rate and contribute to their surrounding communities.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher's role in a quantitative study is to obtain numeric data to examine relationships between variables and to compile, organize, and analyze the data to answer the research question, test the hypotheses, and present the findings in an unbiased and ethical manner (Ho, 2015). The MSQ and the TIS-6 were distributed to the participants via a web-based application. Both instruments are reliable and empirically valid (Bebe,

2016). Participants accessed the data collection device through the Internet, and I monitored the responses.

My past employment and business relationships in the hospitality industry have familiarized me with the issues of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions for front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. I have 15 years of experience in various areas of hospitality, ranging from business ownership to executive positions in a Fortune 500 global hospitality corporation. I used this experience to understand employee perspectives in the industry. The selected properties for this project were luxury hotels that belonged to large hospitality corporations and provide a niche service to a target population in Las Vegas, Nevada. I neither work for any of the companies included in the study, nor do I have any continuing business arrangements with them.

Adherence to all ethical guidelines set forth by Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) and to the protocols outlined in the *Belmont Report* was met. The *Belmont Report* indicated the following principles: respect for participants, beneficence, and justice (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research., 1979). I have completed the National Institutes of Health training on the protection of human participants in research and met the necessary qualifications to protect participants 'rights during my research. Because data collection has the potential for bias influence that can contaminate the data (Ho, 2015), adherence to ethical norms in research remains imperative (Yardley, Watts, Pearson, & Richardson,

2014). I worked to separate my perceptions, morals, and beliefs from the research question and hypotheses.

Participants

Study participants consisted of individuals who were at least 18 years of age and were full- or part-time front desk customer service employees with at least 1 year of employment in a five-star luxury hotel in Las Vegas, Nevada. Proper and ethical selection of participants with experience in the area under study is imperative to the success of a doctoral study (Montalvo & Larson, 2014). After receiving Walden University's IRB approval to conduct the proposed study (approval number 08-21-19-0460827), participants were accessed by using the snowball sampling method. According to Waters (2015), the snowball sampling method consists of researchers contacting some respondents, those respondents then passing the survey information on to other respondents who meet the research criteria, and so forth until the researcher can achieve the necessary sample size. Via email or letter, I provided each potential participant information regarding the objective of the survey, a consent form, information regarding how confidentiality and anonymity of each participant would be handled, and instructions on how to access the website where they could complete the survey. Developing a working relationship with participants is conducive to garnering their open and transparent survey responses (Campbell et al., 2014).

Research Method and Design

Research Method

Worldview, data requirements, and the nature of the study are a few factors that a researcher considers when deciding what research method to use (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). To obtain meaningful results, a researcher must select the right method for the line of inquiry (Yin, 2014). The three available methods for conducting research include qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods, with each method resulting in different types of information (McLaughlin, Bush, & Zeeman, 2016; Yin, 2014). The objectives of a qualitative method include a description, exploration, and discovery of the subject under study (Makrakis & Kostoulos-Makrakis, 2016; Percy, Kostere, & Kostere, 2015), while the objectives of a quantitative method include descriptions, explanations, and predictions of the subject under study (Kahlke, 2014). A mixed methods researcher applies both qualitative and quantitative methods (Sparkes, 2014).

Researchers use a quantitative method to gather statistical data to test hypotheses and make statistical generalizations (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Researchers can use a quantitative method for precise statistical analysis to generalize findings due to the method's replication in many different populations and subpopulations (Bryman, 2015). Researchers can use the quantitative method to obtain data useful for making quantitative predictions and doing so promptly (Kavoura & Bitsani, 2014). Because of these factors, I determined that a quantitative approach was the most appropriate.

A qualitative approach was not appropriate for this study because this method is limited to verbal expressions and uses open-ended questions (Noble & Smith 2015),

whereas the data analysis in this study relied on statistical processes. I chose not to use a mixed methods approach because this design incorporates qualitative and quantitative methods (Archibald, 2015). Mixed methods research requires the researcher to conduct two full studies (one qualitative study and a second quantitative one), interpret data from both studies, and describe the research findings for both studies (Venkatesh et al., 2013); therefore, due to time constraints, mixed methods research was not appropriate for this study.

Research Design

Researchers select a design based on its appropriateness for the desired population (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Quantitative designs can be experimental, quasi-experimental, or nonexperimental, which includes correlational, descriptive, and evaluation methods (Gabbiadini & Greitemeyer, 2017). Qualitative designs consist of grounded theory, ethnography, phenomenological study, narrative, and case study methods (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014). A correlational model was the most appropriate quantitative design for this study. Bettany-Saltikov and Whittaker (2014), stated researchers should use correlational designs when measuring two or more quantitative variables from the same group of participants to find a relationship between those variables. Therefore, I used this design to examine the relationship between independent variables intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction and the dependent variable of employee turnover intentions.

The alternative quantitative designs not chosen for this study included experimental, quasi-experimental, descriptive, and evaluative methods. Manipulation,

control and random selection are characteristics of the experimental design (Delost & Nadder, 2014). According to Fischer, Boone, and Neumann (2014), the quasi-experimental design lacks one or both essential properties of randomization and a control group. Descriptive research consists of the researcher characterizing a population versus testing a hypothesis or examining relationships between variables and does not provide for random selection of a group (Delost & Nadder, 2014). This research did not involve the manipulation or control of the research; therefore, the experimental, quasi-experimental, and descriptive methods were not appropriate for this study.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study included front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels located in Las Vegas, Nevada. Participants were men and women who were a minimum of age 18, were full- or part-time employees, and who had been employed by the hotel for a minimum of 1 year.

I used snowball sampling, which is a purposive nonprobabilistic sampling and consists of nonrandom selection (Catania, Dolcini, Orellana, & Narayanan, 2015). The snowball sampling method consists of researchers contacting some respondents, those respondents then passing the survey information on to other respondents who meet the research criteria and so forth until the researcher can fulfill the necessary sample size (Waters, 2015). Snowball sampling was my choice because it was cost effective and allowed me to reach potential participants from various companies instead of limiting the sample to one company. Limiting the sample to one company has the potential of bias as a result of the influence of one company's internal culture (Ho, 2017). Nonprobabilistic

sampling is most effective when researchers seek to understand the participants' perspectives (Emerson, 2015). According to Coolican (2014), when participants of the target population meet specific inclusion and exclusion criteria, they fit the purpose of a study and do not depend on random selection. Probabilistic sampling consists of various random selections; therefore, nonprobabilistic sampling was appropriate for this study (Tillé & Wilhelm, 2017).

Other categories of nonprobabilistic sampling include convenience and quota sampling (Erens et al., 2014). The benefit of convenience sampling is participant availability (Leiner, 2014); however, participants may not represent the population (Catania et al., 2015). Quota sampling ensures specific, population appropriate representation at a reasonable cost (Yang & Banamah, 2014). The disadvantage of quota sampling is that variability and bias cannot be measured or controlled (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013).

I chose not to use probabilistic sampling, which includes simple random sampling, systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling. Probabilistic sampling has the advantage of allowing for the generalization of findings in a target population (Tillé & Wilhelm, 2017). However, it is costly and only allows for generalizations in the population outlined (Acharya et al., 2013).

Using the correct sample size ensures a reduction in the mean standard error (Akobeng, 2016). Field (2013) suggested hypothesis testing using correlations and moderated regression equations. G*Power 3 software was used to determine the appropriate sample size for this multiple regression study. Analysis of multiple regression

studies evaluating the variance of the independent and dependent variables require statistical power, alpha level, and effect size, which a priori sample does (Field, 2013). Utilizing two independent predictor variables, an a priori power analysis, which assumes a moderate effect size ($f = .15$), $\alpha = .05$ showed a minimum sample size of 68 participants to achieve a power of .80. The study power range is .80 to .99, $\alpha = .05$, with the participant range of 68 to 146 (see Figure 1).

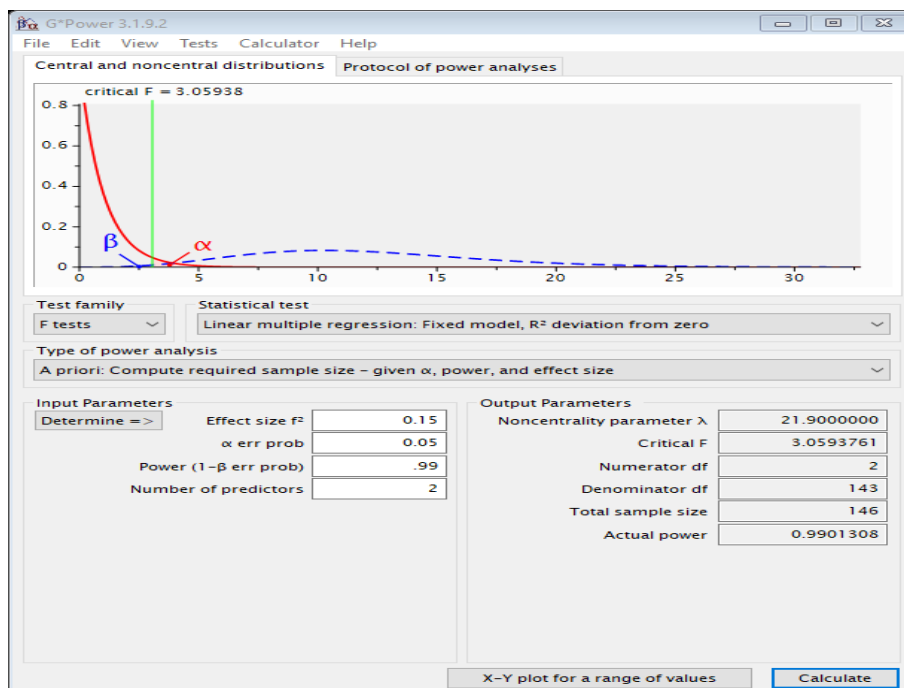
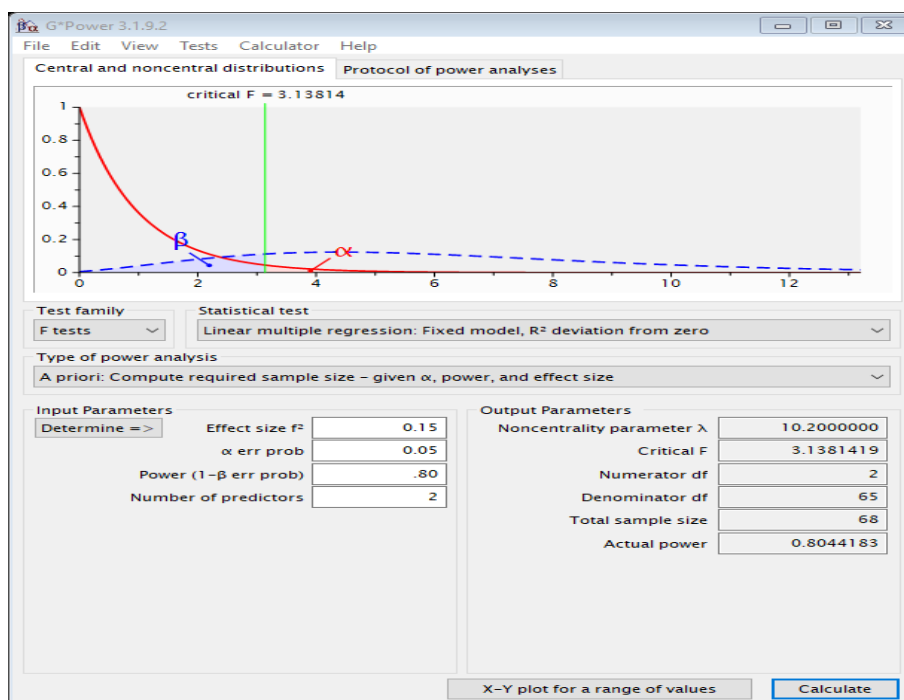


Figure 1. Graphical model of G*Power analysis to determine sample size.

In a quantitative study, an accurate sample size ensures significant statistical results and the efficient and ethical use of all resources (Ott & Longnecker, 2015). Participants expect their input to increase knowledge in an area of study (Ritter & Kim, 2014). Therefore, if the sample size is insufficient, the questions may be invalid, making participant enrollment unethical (Ritter & Kim, 2014). Sample sizes that are too large or small may also lead to ethical concerns involving wasting research funds, as well as participants' time, and data that are irregular and not transferable (Ott & Longnecker, 2015).

Ethical Research

Guidelines on how a scientist should perform their research is one definition of research ethics (Rivers & Lewis, 2015). When humans are part of the research, a review from an independent agency shall ensure ethical compliance (Gelling, 2016). Following IRB approval to conduct the proposed study, my initial contact with potential participants was an invitation to participate via letter or email. The invitation to participate contained the purpose of the research, a consent form, information regarding how I would handle participant confidentiality and anonymity, the right to withdraw at any time without consequences, and a specification that there are no incentives, benefits, or penalties for participating or declining the invitation. The invitation letter also contained access information to the survey. Once the potential participant accessed the survey, the consent form appeared again. A requirement to agree to participate was necessary for the participant to continue to the survey. The informed consent process involves ensuring that participants understand their rights and benefits before participating in research

(Montalvo & Larson, 2014), a measure that protects the participant from any ethical concerns that may arise with their participation (Judkins-Cohn, Kielwasser-Withrow, Owen, & Ward, 2014). I provided participants with my contact information if they had any questions in the future. The names of participants and workplace identity was not a source of data on the survey, preserving anonymity and confidentiality. According to Judkins-Cohn et al. (2014), any research submissions and summary results must remain confidential for five years to protect the confidentiality of the participants and organizations. For security purposes, all collected data that held the testing and results of my research was safely stored using an encrypted password through MS Office and will be stored in a locked cabinet, which only I will have access to. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Data Collection Instruments

Data for this study was collected using a 5-question demographic survey (see Appendix A), the 1977 unmodified version of the MSQ short form, and the TIS-6 survey. SurveyMonkey was the web host for the data collection instruments because researchers have suggested SurveyMonkey is a useful aid in creating surveys and gathering data results (Middleton, Bragin, Morley, & Parker, 2014). Appendices B and C contain the permission to use and reprint the MSQ and TIS-6 surveys. Multiple regression analyses was conducted to test the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Demographic Survey

The demographic survey consists of five open-ended questions to gather employees' current personal information, including age category, gender, educational

background, job classification, and years of service, as based on researchers' suggestions (Green & Salkind, 2016). I analyzed the demographic responses with descriptive statistical design to summarize and describe the percentage distributions of the demographic variables. Descriptive statistics refers to a process for measuring the central tendency of a specific variable using minimum, median, maximum, and standard deviation (Green & Salkind, 2016).

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

The MSQ instrument is a valid and reliable tool used to discriminate among various occupational groups (Weiss et al., 1967). Internal validity refers to whether one can use the questions in the survey to explain the outcome of the research (i.e., the level of job satisfaction; Halperin, Pyne, & Martin, 2015). The MSQ short form has criterion-related validity, as its general satisfaction scale correlates with the job description index scale and measures of job satisfaction (Zopiatis et al., 2014). Performance, also known as construct validity, is the chief method for determining validity in the MSQ (Raggi et al., 2014). Performance in previous studies indicates whether the construct validity of the MSQ is acceptable (Abugre, 2014). Content validity is the degree to which a measurement represents all aspects of a construct or the theoretical content domain (Kelly et al., 2016).

The MSQ consists of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction variables that all statistically explain the theoretical constructs of job satisfaction (Brigham, Lumpkin, Payne, & Zachary, 2014). The MSQ evidence of validity properties is expressed regarding intercorrelation coefficients (i.e., .80, .85, etc.) like reliability coefficients

(Purohit, Yadav, & Goyal, 2016). As detailed by Dawis and Lofquist (1984), the construct validity of the theory of adjustment comes from its performance per theoretical expectations. The MSQ construct validity has been shown through data from various occupational groups to differentiate job satisfaction at the .001 significance level on all scales (Weiss et al., 1967). Purohit, Yadav, and Goyal (2016) validated the MSQ contracts by using the Spearman-Brown coefficient and research methods for organizational studies.

The ability to verify that a questionnaire can predict the research outcome constitutes internal validity. In this study, internal validity was confirmation that the MSQ short form predicts job satisfaction. Construct validity is also known as performance and is the method for identifying the validity of two instruments. Abugre (2014) and Buitendach and Rothmann (2009) performed studies that supported the acceptability of construct validity of the MSQ. External validity refers to the ability to generalize study findings to other populations (Lancsar & Swait, 2014). External validity measures the generalization of the results to populations outside of the study population (Lancsar & Swait, 2014). Masvaure, Ruggunan, and Maharaj (2014) verified external validity in a study of job satisfaction, work engagement, and intrinsic motivation in a mining company. The Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from .54 to .90, in Masvaure, Ruggunan, and Maharaj's (2014) study; therefore, indicating that the MSQ was reliable. According to Abugre (2014), the MSQ is reliable in both the short and long form. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 is an acceptable criterion for internal consistency reliability (Ibrahim & Perez, 2014).

The MSQ's high validity when predicting job satisfaction, its ease of completion, and its general acceptance as a research instrument (Cicolini et al., 2014) makes it an appropriate survey for this study. As originally designed, the MSQ consists of a 100-item instrument measuring actual satisfaction with facets of a job (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ short form extracts 20 representative items, one from each scale of the long form (Weiss et al., 1967).

Scoring of the MSQ yields three categories of employee satisfaction: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967) (see Table 1). The general category includes intrinsic and extrinsic employee satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). There are 12 intrinsic factors and 6 extrinsic factors (Weiss et al., 1967). In this study, the degree to which intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction correlated to turnover intention was measured. The MSQ has a five-point Likert scale to measure intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and general satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). Participants indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the 20 statements using the following scales: *1 = very dissatisfied*, *2 = dissatisfied*, *3 = neither dissatisfied nor dissatisfied*, *4 = satisfied*, and *5 = very satisfied* (Weiss et al., 1967). Each participant will have three scores: one representing their level of intrinsic satisfaction, one representing their level of extrinsic satisfaction, and one representing their level of general satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967).

Intrinsic factors are an individual's desire to perform a specific task because its results are by his/her belief system or fulfill a desire (Weiss et al., 1967). Extrinsic factors are an individual's desire to perform a task and are controlled by an external factor which

is rewarding for the individual performing the task (Weiss et al., 1967). The measures for the intrinsic factors are activity, independence, variety, advancement, recognition, moral values, achievement, social service, authority, ability utilization, creativity, responsibility, and achievement. These are represented on the scale by items 1-3, 7, 9-11, 14-16, 19, and 20 (Weiss et al., 1967). Activity (work content), advancement, responsibility, and recognition, represented by scale by items 1, 14, 15, and 19, are the measures for this study. The measured extrinsic factors are company policies, social status, compensation, supervision-technical, supervision-human relations, working conditions, co-workers, and security. These are represented on the scale by items 4-6, 8, 12-13, 17, and 18 (Weiss et al., 1967). Security, compensation (salary and fringe benefits), and working conditions, represented on the scale by items 8, 13, and 17, are the measures for this study.

Table 1

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Satisfaction Scales

Intrinsic satisfaction	Extrinsic satisfaction	General satisfaction
Ability utilization	Advancement	Coworkers
Achievement	Company policies & practices	Working conditions
Activity	Compensation	
Authority	Recognition	
Creativity	Supervision human relations	
Independence	Supervision technical	
Moral values		
Responsibility		
Security		
Social services		
Social status		
Variety		

Turnover Intention Scale

The TIS-6 is a valid and reliable one-dimensional construct, originated from a 15-item scale developed in 2004 by Professor Gert Roodt to measure employee turnover intentions (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). TIS-6 allows the research to assess an employee's intent to leave an organization by measuring six items on a 5-point Likert scale with options ranging from 1 (never to always) to 5 (highly likely) (Roodt, 2004). Turnover intention is a proxy for employee turnover, and turnover intention is the strongest indicator of actual employee turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2013).

Bothma and Roodt (2013) verified the validity of the TIS-6 short version, as a predictor of turnover and a measurement of turnover intention. According to Bothma and Roodt (2013), the TIS-6 measured turnover intentions with reliability ($\alpha = 0.80$) and

factorial validity. Bothma and Roodt studied a census-based sample of 2,429 employees and found they could significantly distinguish between employees who stayed and employees who left confirming the criterion-predictive and differential validity of the scale. Ribeiro, Bosch, and Becker (2016) conducted a study and found the TIS-6's internal reliability to be .81, indicating an acceptable fit. The internal consistency uses .70 as its cutoff point to accept the alpha's reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Bothma and Roodt (2013), and Ribeiro et al. (2016) showed a positive internal consistency, which demonstrates the TIS-6, is a valid instrument to be used in the study.

The results from the TIS-6 survey were downloaded into a database for review, analysis, and interpretation. The purpose of collecting and analyzing the raw data for this study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in luxury hotels. For security purposes, I will keep all data secured using an encrypted USB thumb drive and store in a locked safe which I only have access to. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Data Collection Technique

Online surveys are a convenient and reliable quantitative data collection technique (Basil, 2017). As suggested by Basil (2017), I collected data by hosting an online survey created through the SurveyMonkey website, rather than using survey vehicles such as paper, email, or social media that have a lower response and completion rates, as well as higher costs. Online surveys were used to collect data from the target population of front desk, customer service employees, measuring their level of intrinsic and extrinsic job

satisfaction regarding various aspects of their jobs and measuring their level of turnover intentions.

The benefits of online surveys included their ease of use, rapid deployment, low cost, convenience for respondents, and quick response time (Walsh & Brinker, 2014), making them an amicable medium for gathering data (Alwin, 2014). Online surveys do have potential disadvantages as well, including low response rates, sample bias, an inability to reach individuals who have limited Internet access, and the potential for survey fraud (Middleton et al., 2014). Another disadvantage of the online survey is that participants may withdraw at any time, leaving surveys incomplete (Middleton et al., 2014). Management researchers consistently prefer online surveys for data collection after considering the advantages and disadvantages of those vehicles compared with others (Walsh & Brinker, 2014). According to Bryman and Bell (2015), online surveys are the most effective and efficient way to collect data in quantitative research. Using a pre-established instrument with acceptable reliability and validity values supports the validity of a study (Ertürk, 2014; Hom et al., 1984; Kihm et al., 2014). A pilot study involves testing the design of a full-scale study on a smaller sample to evaluate time, cost, statistical variability, and predict validity (Denscombe, 2014). A pilot study was not used due to my using an existing established survey.

SurveyMonkey is a secured, web-based solution with multiple layers of security to protect data privacy, and it also supports security data integration in IBM SPSS Version 25.0 for Windows (Skinder Savic & Skela-Savic, 2014). The Demographic, MSQ, and TIS-6 survey instruments were created in SurveyMonkey. Participants were

accessed by using the snowball sampling method. According to Waters (2015), the snowball sampling method consists of researchers contacting some initial respondents, those respondents then passing the survey information on to other respondents who meet the research criteria and so forth until the researcher can meet the necessary sample size. Potential participants were provided information via email or letter regarding the objective of the survey, information regarding how the confidentiality and anonymity of each participant would be handled, and instruction on how to access the website where they could read and provide consent as complete the survey. The survey remained available for as long as necessary to complete the sample size goal. Upon completion of the survey, the participants received a thank you note, and the survey window closed. Once all data collection was complete, I transferred the information to the SPSS software for analysis.

Data Analysis

The research question that guided this study was:

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions?

*H*₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

*H*_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

IBM SPSS Version 25.0 for Windows is computer software that can analyze data statistically and graphically (Green & Salkind, 2016). This software provides Pearson's

correlation coefficient analysis, multiple regression analysis, and descriptive statistics to describe the general distributions by frequency and percentage (Green & Salkind, 2016). SPSS is effective in analyzing large data sets that predict linear relationships between multiple independent variables and dependent variables (Brezavscek, Sparl, & Znidarsic, 2014). SPSS was used to analyze the relationships between the independent variables of intrinsic job satisfaction factors and extrinsic job satisfaction factors, and the dependent variables of employee turnover intentions. A null hypothesis will be accepted or rejected as a result of inferences made regarding responses from participants.

Multiple linear regression analysis is a statistical technique used (a) to evaluate the relationships between multiple independent variables and a dependent variable; (b) to explain variances among independent variables and their relationships to a dependent variable; and (c) evaluate explanatory variables when used to predict outcome of a response variable (Chen, Li, Wu, & Liang, 2014). Multiple regression analysis was used for this study because the goal was to evaluate the extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction levels predict employee turnover intentions.

Homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that the variance of error terms is similar across the independent variables (Guo & Fraser, 2014). The assumption of linearity refers to the expectation that the value of the dependent variable will be a straight-line function of each independent variable, holding the others fixed (Harrell, 2015). Independence of errors references the distribution of errors as random with no influence from errors in prior observations (Jarque & Bera, 1980). SPSS statistics was used to test the five major assumptions (multi-collinearity, the normality of error,

homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of errors) associated with multiple regression analysis. Activities that negate violations of multiple linear regression assumptions include using a different linear model, performing transformations to correct non-normality, non-linearity, and multi-collinearity, removing outliers; and using weighted linear regression model (Chen et al., 2014). I applied these activities if I found any violations.

Other regression techniques meriting consideration include hierarchical, stepwise, and bivariate techniques. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis involves variable control (Feldt, Lee, & Dew, 2014); stepwise multiple regression analysis consists of identifying the independent variable that has the strongest relationship to the dependent variable (Elzamly & Hussin, 2014); and the bivariate linear regression analysis predicts the effects of one variable versus multiple variables (Green & Salkind, 2016). My goal was to evaluate the extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction factors predicted employee turnover intentions; therefore, hierarchical, stepwise, and bivariate regression tests was inappropriate for this study.

The use of descriptive statistics allows for identifying measures of central tendency, including minimums, means, maximums, and standard deviations (Green & Salkind, 2016). Understanding the frequency and percentage level of each variable helps to identify general distribution (Green & Salkind, 2016). Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the demographic aspect of the survey, as well as to provide a visual link between participant responses and variables in the study. According to Bryman (2015),

missing data is inevitable in electronic surveys. To address missing data, any incomplete surveys were removed from the analysis.

Multiple linear regression analysis requires validation of five major assumptions: multi-collinearity, the normality of error, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of errors (Green & Salkind, 2016). These assumptions, if not met, can result in erroneous findings, Type 1 errors or Type 2 errors. Multi-collinearity exists if there is a correlation between two or more independent variables (Green & Salkind, 2016). According to Zainodin and Yap (2013), the assumption of multiple regression is that collinearity among independent variables does not exist. Multi-collinearity is present when a correlation coefficient is $\geq .01$. A tolerance close to 0 indicates multi-collinearity. I used a cutoff of 0. If the tolerance was more than .1, I knew that multi-collinearity among the independent variables did not exist.

The assumption of the normality of error describes that there is a normal distribution of variables (Harrell, 2015). When there is a violation of the normality of error, this violation may lead a researcher to inaccurate inferential statements (Jarque & Bera, 1980). Tests for normality include visual inspections of data plots, skewness, kurtosis, P-P plots, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests for normality, following the established techniques recommended by Williams, Grajales, and Kurkiewicz (2013) for multiple regression tests. Normality was assessed by plotting data into a SPSS graph. If the data reflected normal distribution, the data points would be close to the diagonal line. However, if the data points are not near the line in a non-linear form, then the data was not normally distributed.

Homoscedasticity is an assumption that denotes a variance around the regression line is the same for all values of the predictor variable (Jarque & Bera, 1980). A sign of problems in the assumption can be a growing dispersion of the residuals with larger or lower values of the predicted values. Outliers, the use of enhanced data collection techniques and omitting a variable from the dataset are probable causes of violating homoscedasticity (Ude, 2015). Violating this assumption could result in bias in standard errors and improper inferences (Schützenmeister et al., 2012). I assessed homoscedasticity visually using a scatter plot chart in SPSS. Normally distributed scores appear above the regression line.

The assumption of linearity is that there is a linear relationship between the research variables (Harrell, 2015). The linear relationship implies that one standard deviation change in any of the parameter values results in the same change to the dependent variable (Harrell, 2015). If no linear relationship exists, then the OLS estimator cannot give an estimate of the regression parameters (Harrell, 2015). Independence of errors checks the assumption that there are no patternless residuals which show that all variables stand alone, and no serial correlations are in operation (Jarque & Bera, 1980).

Multicollinearity, the normality of error, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of errors were all assessed by examining the normal probability plot of the regression standardized residual, histogram, and the scatter plot of the standardized residuals. If I found any violations of the multiple linear regression assumptions, my actions included using a different linear model, performing transformations to correct

non-normality, nonlinearity, and multi-collinearity, or using a weighted linear regression model. These are recommended action for a violation of multiple regression assumptions (Hassan, Farhan, Mangayil, Huttunen, & Aho 2013; Zainodin & Yap 2013). According to Meeker and Escobar (2014), researchers also use bootstrapping techniques to estimate reliable statistics when data normality assumptions cannot meet expectations. When there are questions regarding the validity and accuracy of the usual distribution and assumptions that limit the behavior of the results, bootstrapping is useful (Cohen et al., 2013). I used bootstrapping techniques to combat the possible implications of any data assumption violations.

Due to the importance of data collection and data analysis, data cleaning is crucial to achieving data quality (Cai & Zhu, 2015). In quantitative research, cleaning data is a process that allows the researcher to check for extreme values, ensure research accuracy, prevent threats to validity, and ensure generalizability (Cai & Zhu, 2015). Data cleaning also enables the researcher to look for missing data and check for unusual patterns (Bhattacharjee, Chatterjee, Shaw, & Chakraborty, 2014). The data was cleaned to identify extreme values, missing data, and unusual data patterns. I used Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients to interpret correlation analysis results and measure effect sizes as negligible, weak, moderate, strong, or very strong.

Study Validity

Crucial components of quality research consist of both reliability and validity (Darawsheh, 2014). Reliability of a study refers to the degree that an assessment instrument produces consistent results (Darawsheh, 2014). The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967)

was designed to measure an employee's job satisfaction and has a high-reliability coefficient ranging from .84 to .91. The intrinsic median reliability is .86, while reliability coefficients for the extrinsic scale ranged from .77 to .82, with a median of .80 (Weiss et al., 1967). For the general satisfaction scale, the coefficients ranged from .87 to .92, with a median reliability coefficient of .90 (Weiss et al., 1967).

A view of reliability in this study is in the MSQ's performance, also known as construct validity. Confirmation of MSQ's reliability is a result of using the measure Cronbach's alpha $\alpha = .05$ to test the survey's reliability (Masvaure et al., 2014). In Masvaure et al., (2014), a study of job satisfaction, the Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from 0.54 to .90, thus indicating that the MSQ was reliable. Saner and Eyupoglu (2015) sampled 723 bank employees using short-form MSQ in which the internal consistency was 0.92, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Other researchers also deem the MSQ as reliable (Abugre, 2014; Cicolini et al., 2014).

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it purposes to measure (Kelly, Fitzsimons, & Baker, 2016). The MSQ also provides additional evidence of validity. Like reliability coefficients, validity properties are expressed in terms of intercorrelation coefficients (i.e. .80, .85, etc.). In accordance with the theoretical expectations as specified by the Theory of Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), construct validity is derived from its performance. Data from various occupational groups reveal MSQ construct validity to differentiate job satisfaction at the 0.001 significance level on all scales (Weiss et al., 1967). Purohit, Yadav, and Goyal (2016) validated the MSQ contracts by means of Spearman-Brown Coefficient and Research methods for

organizational studies. Consistent data collection, documentation, analysis, and interpretation are crucial factors for achieving validity (Barry, Chaney, Piazza-Gardner, & Chavarria, 2014). Moreover, reliance was placed on the rigor and quality of the design, analysis, and data interpretation to achieve validity in this study, using psychometric scales with facet scales to cover and align my research study constructs.

Characteristics of instrument validity include content, construct, and criterion-related (Barry et al., 2014). Content validity is the degree to which a measurement represents all aspects of a construct or the theoretical content domain (Kelly et al., 2016). The MSQ consists of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction variables that all statistically explain the theoretical constructs of job satisfaction (Brigham, Lumpkin, Payne, & Zachary, 2014). Construct validity is a measure of how well an instrument measures the theoretical construct (Barry et al., 2014). I expected to achieve construct validity in this study because of using instruments with consistently proven validity (Kelly et al., 2016). The MSQ short form was used in a study with a sample size of 417 information technology employees (Ouyang et al., 2015). The findings of this study revealed the MSQ coefficient alpha for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction to be 0.814 and 0.846, and the validity demonstrating a satisfactory fit with a comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96 and the root square residual (SRMR) = 0.06 (Ouyang et al., 2015). Similarly, Li, Wang, Gao, and You (2015), used the MSQ short form to measure intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction factors of middle school teachers in China. The results of Lu et al. (2015) indicated the internal consistency for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction to be 0.75 and 0.82, and the validity showed the CFI to be 0.92, the RMSEA to be 0.06, and the SRMR

to be 0.07, indicating an acceptable fit. Barry et al. (2014) defined criterion-related validity as the comparison of scores from two different scales, or the extent of agreement of how close instruments and measurements relate to other constructs. The MSQ short form has criterion-related validity, as its general satisfaction scale correlates with the job description index scale and measures of job satisfaction (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Bothman and Roodt (2013) verified the validity and reliability ($\alpha = .80$) of the TIS, short version, as a predictor of turnover and a measurement of turnover intention. The results of Borthman and Roodt's (2013) study identified a significant difference in the turnover intention scores of employees who resigned ($M = 5.14, SD = 1.26$) versus the scores of employees who stayed ($M = 4.13, SD = 1.28$): $t(170) = 5.20, p < 0.001$ (two-tailed). The difference in the means (1.01, 95% CI: 0.63 to 1.39) has a large effect ($\eta^2 = 0.14$). These findings confirm the criterion-predictive validity as well as the differential validity of the TIS-6 (Borthman & Roodt, 2013). The sustainability of the results was verified over a four-year period, with equally supportive results of this instrument's validity to predict turnover intention. The internal consistency uses 0.70 as its cutoff point to accept the alpha's reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Bothma and Roodt (2013) and Ribeiro et al. (2016) showed a positive internal consistency, which also demonstrates the TIS-6, as a valid instrument for use in this study.

Threats to validity can be both internal and external (Kelly et al., 2016). In this study, the aim was to determine the extent of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable and not looking for causal relationships; therefore, internal validity was not an issue. Internal validity relates to the existence of a true causal

relationship between variables, and it applies only to experimental studies (Campbell & Stanley, 2015). Internal validity is the degree to which scores on an instrument lead to meaningful conclusions and are free from confounding issues that cause bias, such as reactivity and missing data (Chung et al., 2015). According to Venkatesh et al. (2013), threats to internal validity derive from experimental procedures, treatments, or participant experiences that may influence the researcher's ability to make correct inferences. In quantitative research, internal validity often applies to causal relationships (Campbell & Stanley, 2015). In this study, relationships between variables were examined rather than identifying causation between variables; therefore, threats to internal validity are not a concern.

External validity refers to the extent to which a researcher can generalize the findings of a study over entire populations that are not an original part of the study (Lancsar & Swait, 2014). Henderson, Kimmelman, Fergusson, Grimshaw, and Hackam (2013) noted threats to external validity include multiple treatments. Generalization can be limited when multiple treatments occur on subjects (Funderburk, Kenneson, & Maisto, 2014). Multiple treatments were not administered in this study, thus eliminating this external threat. One means of avoiding threats to external validity is drawing a sample from a diverse group of participants, which enhances representation and increases generalization to larger populations (Noble & Smith, 2015).

Statistical conclusion validity, another concern with quantitative research, refers to the degree to which inferences regarding relationships among variables based on the data are correct (Barry et al., 2014). Combating this threat requires a laser focus on test

results, response processes, internal structures, relationships among other variables, and consequences of testing (Barry et al., 2014). Quantitative researchers minimize threats to statistical conclusion validity by selecting the appropriate level of significance (α -value) for their study (Perez, Amaro, & Arriola, 2014). An appropriate α -value helps to minimize the risk of a Type-I error, which occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected by the researcher when he or she should have accepted it (Cho & Kim, 2015). A p -value of 05 is typical for business research (Cho & Kim, 2015). The threats to statistical conclusion validity were minimized by selecting a p -value of 05 as the appropriate level of significance for this study.

Transition and Summary

In summary, the reason for this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions in luxury hotels. Organization leaders may use the findings of this study to develop and improve business practices to enhance business sustainability, profitability, and growth. In this section, I explained my role as the researcher, my need to remain unbiased and ethical, and the sampling process to be used. I discussed the targeted population for this study, using the MSQ as a data collection tool, and using multiple linear regression to test the hypotheses regarding the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and employee turnover intentions.

In Section 3, an overview of the research study, the findings of the study, and the ability to translate the results are provided. I applied these results to real-life applications

and strategies for implementing change. Recommendations for future research as well as personal research reflections of this study were made.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee extrinsic job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intention. The independent variables were extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction. The dependent variable was employee turnover intention. The model was able to significantly predict turnover intentions, $F(2, 72) = 13.756$, $p < .000$, $R^2 = .276$. The R^2 (.276) value indicated that approximately 28% of variations in turnover intention were accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction). In the final model, extrinsic job satisfaction factor ($t = -3.861$, $p < .000$) was the only statistically significant predictor.

In this section, I present the findings of the study, applications to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action, recommendations for further research, and a reflection of my experience with the DBA doctoral study process. Additionally, I include a thorough evaluation of the statistical tests I performed of the data collected using SPSS version 25. The statistical tests performed were descriptive statistics, the test of assumptions (normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of error), and multiple regression analysis.

Presentation of the Findings

The reliability of all variables in this study are considered weak, as a result of all reliability values being less than 7 (Table 2). In addition to the reliability of all variable findings, I discuss the testing of the assumptions, present descriptive statistics, present

inferential statistic results, provide a theoretical conversation pertaining to the findings, and conclude with a concise summary. My goal of this hypothesis testing was to examine whether a relationship exists between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions.

Table 2

Reliability Statistics for Study Constructs

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Extrinsic job satisfaction	.626
Intrinsic job satisfaction	.687
Turnover intentions	.442

Note: N = 75.

Tests of Assumptions

I used SPSS to test and evaluate each assumption before analyzing the data to ensure no violations occurred. The tests conducted were (a) multicollinearity, (b) outliers, (c) normality, (d) linearity, (e) homoscedasticity, and (f) independence of residuals. According to Williams et al. (2013), testing the assumptions of multiple regression analysis is recommended to identify if any violations have occurred that could cause data bias and untrustworthy information.

Multicollinearity. I evaluated multicollinearity by examining tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF). Daoud (2017) noted that multicollinearity is indicated when tolerance values levels are less than 0.10 and VIF's are greater than 5. Table 3

depicts the multicollinearity values of the independent variables and reflects no evidence of a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity.

Table 3

Multicollinearity Statistics

Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Intrinsic job satisfaction	.695	1.439
Extrinsic job satisfaction	.695	1.439

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I evaluated outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals by examining the normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residual (Figure 2) and the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3). The examinations indicated there were no major violations of these assumptions. The tendency of the points to lie in a reasonably straight line (Figure 2), diagonal from the bottom left to the top right, provides supportive evidence the assumption of normality has not been grossly violated (Swanson et al., 2015). The lack of a clear or systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 3) supports the tenability of the assumptions being met. I used a histogram (Figure 4) to test for outliers. The one outlier noted (extrinsic job satisfaction, record ID 40) did not affect the results of the study.

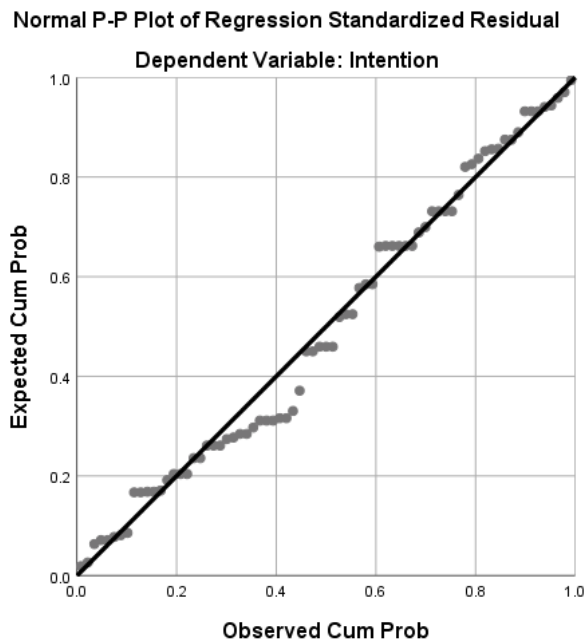


Figure 2. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals.

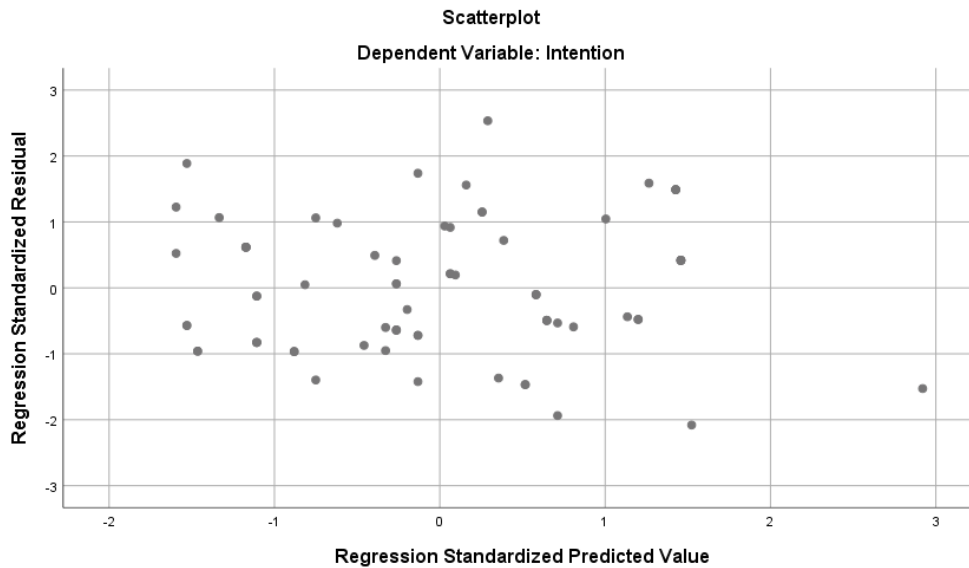


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the standardized residuals

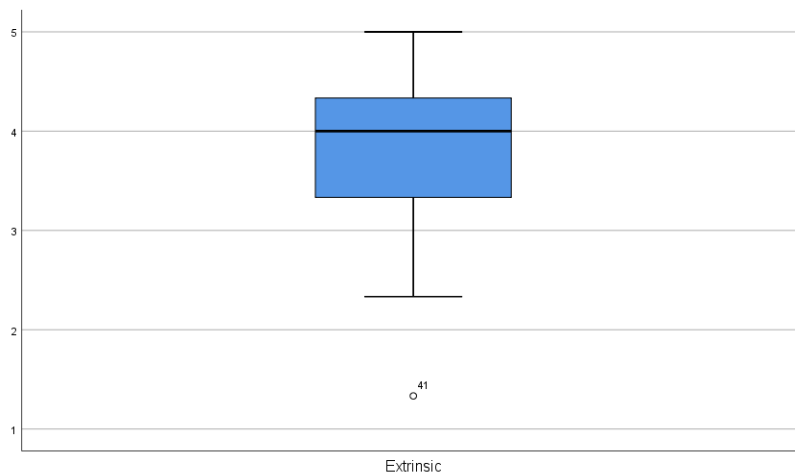


Figure 4. Histogram of outliers

Descriptive Statistics

I received 75 surveys. All submissions were valid, resulting in 75 records for analysis. Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the independent and dependent variables. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics for baseline demographic variables.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Predictor and Criterion Variables

Variable	N	M	SD
Turnover intentions	75	3.048	.5504
Intrinsic job satisfaction	75	3.923	.7260
Extrinsic job satisfaction	75	3.773	.8241

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender		
Male	35	46.7
Female	40	53.3
Age		
18 – 25	22	29.3
26 – 49	50	66.7
50 – 64	3	4.0
65 and older	0	0
Education		
Less than high school		
High school diploma/GED	4	5.3
Some college but no degree	20	26.7
Associates degree	4	5.3
Bachelor's degree	38	50.7
Graduate degree	9	12.0
Years with company		
1 – 2 years	13	17.3
3 – 4 years	14	18.7
5 – 9 years	35	46.7
10 – 19 years	12	16.0
20 or more years	1	1.3
Years in position		
1 – 4 years	29	38.7
5 – 9 years	33	44.0
10 – 19 years	12	16.0
20 or more years	1	1.3

Note. $N=75$

Inferential Results

I used standard multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed) to examine the efficacy of intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction in predicting turnover intention. The independent variables were intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic satisfaction. The dependent variable was turnover intention. The null hypothesis was that intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction would not significantly predict turnover intention. The alternative hypothesis was that intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction would significantly predict turnover intention. I conducted preliminary analyses to assess whether the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, and independence of residuals were met; no serious violations were noted. The model was able to significantly predict turnover intentions, $F(2, 72) = 13.756, p < .000, R^2 = .276$. The $R^2 (.276)$ value indicated that approximately 28% of variations in turnover intentions were accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction). In the final model, extrinsic job satisfaction ($t = -3.861, p < .000$) was the only statistically significant predictor. Table 6 depicts the regression summary.

Table 6

Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	4.513	.321		14.057	.000
Intrinsic job satisfaction	-.075	.091	-.100	-.828	.411
Extrinsic job satisfaction	-.310	.080	-.464	-3.861	.000

Note. $N = 75$.

Analysis summary. The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. I used standard multiple linear regression to examine the ability of intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction to predict turnover intention. I assessed assumptions surrounding multiple regression with no serious violations noted as evidenced in Figures 5 through 10 and Table 8. Although the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test of normality revealed all three variables (intention, intrinsic, and extrinsic) to be significant. (Table 7), I used additional tests to determine normality. Figures 5 through 10 and Table 8 represent normal distribution of all three variables and validate no serious violations noted. Normally distributed data in a Q-Q Plot show all data points close to the diagonal line. Acceptable skewness values for normality are -0.5 and 0.5, and 0 to 3 for kurtosis (Ho & Yu, 2015).

Table 7

Test of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Intrinsic	.142	75	.001	.941	75	.002
Extrinsic	.155	75	.000	.950	75	.005
Intention	.134	75	.002	.954	75	.009

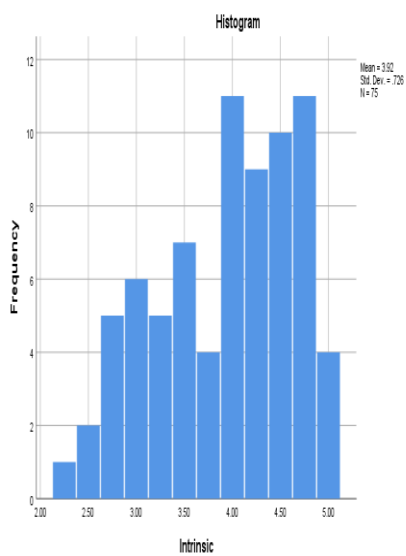


Figure 5. Histogram of intrinsic

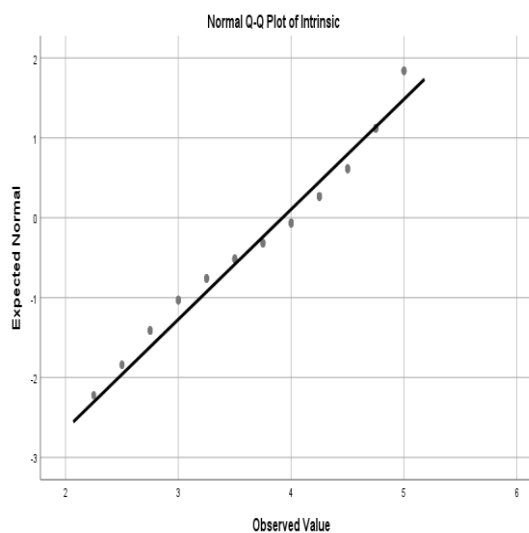


Figure 6. Normal (Q-Q) plot of intrinsic

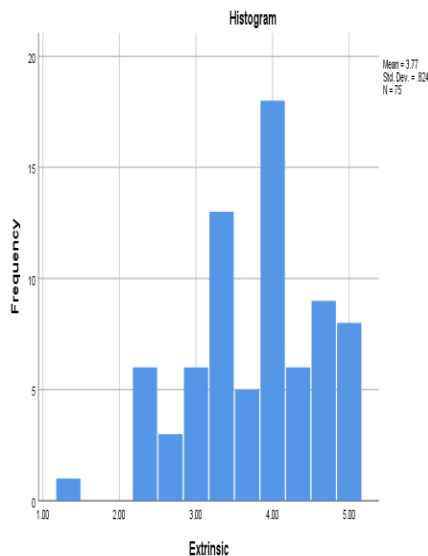


Figure 7. Histogram of extrinsic.

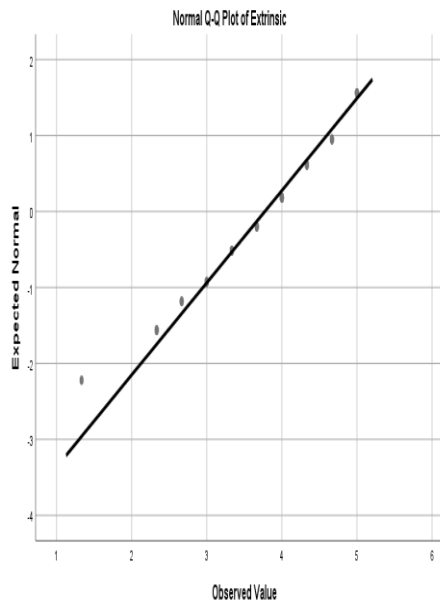


Figure 8. Normal (Q-Q) plot of extrinsic.

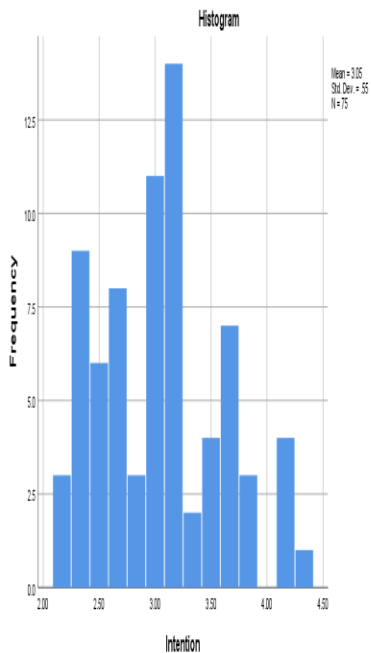


Figure 9. Histogram of intentions.

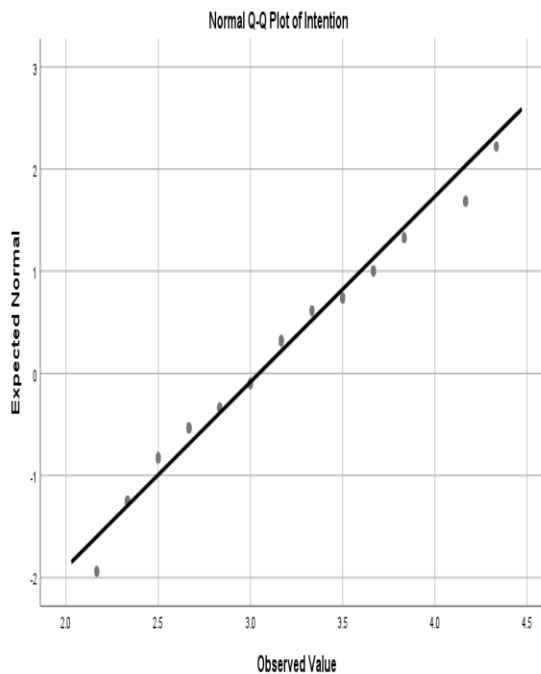


Figure 10. Normal (Q-Q) plot of intention.

Table 8

Skewness and Kurtosis Descriptives

	Skewness	Kurtosis
Intrinsic	-.431	-.864
Extrinsic	-.445	-.175
Intention	.380	-.533

Note. $N = 75$.

With the model as a whole, I was able to significantly predict turnover intention, $p < .000$). Extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction provided useful predictive information about turnover intention. The conclusion from this analysis is that extrinsic job satisfaction is significantly associated with turnover intention.

Theoretical discussion of findings. The findings from the current study supported Herzberg et al.'s (1959) motivation hygiene theory. Herzberg argued that when job satisfaction factors increased, employee turnover decreased. Intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction are separated as two different phenomena because a certain set of workplace factors cause employees to be satisfied with their jobs, while a separate set of factors cause employees to be dissatisfied with their jobs (Herzberg et al., 1959). For example, Zopiatis, Theocharous and Constanti (2017) asserted that positive associations exist between extrinsic job traits, and both career satisfaction and future intention. Similarly, Asaduzzama, Hossain, and Rahman (2014) asserted that intrinsic job traits such as promotion affected the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of employees.

Herzberg's (1966) findings were consistent with other researchers' findings. Stamolampros, Korfiatis, Chalvatzis, & Buhalis's (2019) findings in the hospitality industry indicated that job satisfaction factors were significant factors to reduce employee turnover intention. Chin (2018) found career development to be a work factor that promoted employee job satisfaction in the manufacturing industry of Malaysia and decreased employee turnover. The finding of Savoy and Wood (2015) identified radiation therapists who experienced sufficient levels of motivators, such as recognition and personal growth, and hygiene factors, such as salary and job security, were satisfied with their jobs and were less likely to leave their work.

My findings are supported by the findings of Rafiq, Khan, & Batool, (2018), Jabeen, Friesen, & Ghoudi, (2018), Saif & Adnan, (2019), and Hur & Perry (2019), all of whom found the extrinsic job satisfaction factor of job security or some other element of extrinsic job satisfaction to be significantly related to turnover intention. Also supporting my findings are the research of Bayraktar et al., (2017), Lyon (2016), and Duffy, Autin, & Bott (2015), all of whom found the intrinsic job satisfaction factor responsibility significantly related to turnover intention.

Applications to Professional Practice

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intention in the luxury hotel industry. The independent variables were extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction. The dependent variable was employee turnover intention. The findings of this study led to the rejection of the null hypothesis

because a statistically significant relationship existed between extrinsic job satisfaction and employee turnover intention. The findings from this study can help business leaders apply intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction factors that could lead to employee retention in their organization. Organizational leaders who understand the various factors that motivate or fail to motivate employees can result in valuable employee retention strategies. According to Houlihan et al. (2015), understanding strategies that improve employee retention can help in creating an environment of engaged and satisfied employees. Based on the findings from this research, I found that not all motivators or hygiene factors lead to an equivalent retention outcome.

Monitoring the main reason why an employee leaves an organization can provide significant information for improving employee retention. Employee departures are inevitable (Shipp, Furst-Holloway, Harris, & Rosen, 2014; Zopiatis et al., 2014), thus the application to professional practice is emphasizing the ways to reduce the cost associated with turnover of luxury hotels front desk customer service employees. Managers can influence organizational performance by empowering employees actively to participate and support the various policy and practice processes. Managers who have a planned employee retention strategy in place mitigates the intention of an employee to leave an organization as well as the costs associated with that departure (Deery & Jago, 2015).

Implications for Social Change

The cost of employee turnover contributes to the need for examining what factors contribute to intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. Leaders in the hospitality industry can use this information to implement strategies that increase job satisfaction and

decrease employee turnover. The implication for social change, as a result of employee retention strategies such as employee development have the potential to (a) increase retention, (b) provide advancement opportunities, (c) reduce turnover costs, (d) increase morale, (e) retain employee knowledge, (f) improve employee wellbeing, (g) reduces unemployment, (h) increase productivity, (i) promote organizational and economic growth, and (j) create and maintain positive relationships with families, communities, and organizations.

Hospitality leaders who understand the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to employee retention have the potential to help reduce the unemployment rate, contributing to stability in the community, all while maintaining positive relationships with employees, their families, and the local community. When employees are satisfied with their employment, they have the potential of being the best advertisers for an organization. Satisfied employees will talk about their employer to family, friends, and those in the community. These conversations send a positive message to the community with the potential for leading to increased business sales. Additionally, satisfied employees will recruit like-minded individuals to apply for employment, thus reducing the necessary energy needed for cultural orientation.

Increased retention also leads to sustainable financial performance and business growth. When turnover decreases, the financial burden spent on hiring and training new employees can be reallocated and invested in the current employee, the business, and the community. Organizational leaders who employ strategies that increase employee

satisfaction tend to attract and retain employees who offer exceptional service to the communities they serve (Lu & Gursoy, 2016).

Recommendations for Action

The findings of this study support that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors influence the employees' turnover intention in the luxury hotel industry to leave or stay in their job. However, a significant finding in this study shows that extrinsic satisfaction factors were the influential predictors of turnover intentions. According to Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, and Raymond, (2016), employers need to make turnover a priority to achieve organizational sustainability. Research reveals a correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention (Alshammari, Al Qaied, Al-Mawali, & Matalqa, 2016). When skilled front desk customer service agents leave an organization, components such as employee morale, human capital, business profits, and competitive advantage can be negatively affected (Mamun & Hasan, 2017).

A comprehensive recommendation for action to reduce turnover intentions while increasing intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction with front desk customer service employees in luxury hotels could involve career development training that results in sustainability as well as a path for promotion (Khan, Rajasekar, & Al-Asfour, 2015). This career development training requires organizational leaders maintain focus on changing values associated with work as a priority (Parul & Havisha, 2015). Additionally, there needs to be continuing development of an extrinsically rewarding corporate culture that results in a workforce of highly satisfied, affectively committed employees (Khan, Rajasekar, & Al-Asfour, 2015). Employees can be motivated with a

simple change in the nature of a task by way of job enrichment, and a design that allows for greater responsibility and increased challenge. Greater responsibility and increased challenge with a job can result in opportunities for advancement, growth, and recognition (Fayyazi & Aslani, 2015).

According to Brett, Bransetter, and Wagner (2014), employees who are satisfied with their work environment will remain with their organization. A threat to service quality as a result of inconsistent service is how employee turnover among hospitality employees can affect an organization. There is an increase in awareness amongst business leaders to create strategies and policies that align with a sustainable workforce (Parakandi & Behery 2016).

Researchers may find the results of this study beneficial for further research. I plan to share the findings in online meeting sessions hosted by professional associations of hospitality industry leaders I plan to publish this study in the ProQuest/UMI dissertation database and in scholarly journals to help disseminate the findings to a broader audience.

Recommendations for Further Research

Recommendations for further research related to turnover intentions in the luxury hotel industry includes (a) focusing on all employees in the luxury hotel industry and not just front desk customer service employees, (b) expanding the study to different industries, (c) expanding the study to different geographical locations, (d) using different measurement instruments to identify other job satisfaction contributors and turnover intentions reasons, and (d) conducting a qualitative study. The targeted sample size was

68 participants based on G*Power 3.1. The targeted population was front desk customer service employees in Las Vegas, NV, in non-management positions. Turnover intentions from employees in other luxury hotel properties may differ from those in Las Vegas, NV. Expanding the study to other industries and geographical locations outside of Las Vegas, NV may produce different opinions and views regarding employee job satisfaction from both smaller and larger populations.

Additionally, the information could further aid in identifying strategies to help reduce costs aligned with turnover intentions. Using pre-configured surveys limited the participant's expression of thought and opinions. For future research, I recommend utilizing a case study, mixed-method approach, or self-designed surveys, which may have the potential to explain the phenomenon further. As a result of qualitative research, the findings could garner more significant organizational-specific solutions to turnover intentions and may be transferrable to other industries.

I recommend using instruments other than the MSQ and TIS-6, which were the focus of this study, to collect data associated with intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Other instruments that measure job satisfaction and turnover intention include, but are not limited to, the job satisfaction survey (Spector, 1985), the job descriptive index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin 1969), and the intent to leave the job (ILJ) survey (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984). Researchers who use other data collection instruments may identify additional job satisfaction factors related to turnover intention not discussed in this study. The utilization of a qualitative study in future research may allow researchers to understand better the various strategies organizational

leaders are using to retain employees. Additionally, different instruments, as well as a qualitative study may enable the researcher to add to the current scholarly knowledge a better understanding of retention strategies that help reduce turnover intentions.

Reflections

My experience with the DBA Doctoral Study process was both challenging and humbling. I would have thought work-life balance would have been most prevalent; however, I found meeting the requirements of scholarly writing my most significant obstacle. I experienced several delays as a result of this deficiency; however, addressing all feedback with an open mind, and striving to meet and exceed all of the Walden University requirements, such as the DBA rubric, APA standards, and the IRB review process, has resulted in a product I am proud to achieve. Additionally, traveling this journey with a group of like-minded cohorts proved to be a tremendous asset for overcoming stress and frustration. The examination of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, as well as employee retention, has been a personal and professional interest of mine since opening my first catering business. I have an active interest in the subject. The findings of this study affect me personally as a business owner as well as an instructor of hospitality and tourism. As a business owner and employee, I am aware of the dissimilar perspectives that managers and subordinates have about employee retention strategies and how a lack of intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction can negatively affect an operation's productivity and profit margin. I am incredibly passionate about balancing the needs of the employees and the sustainability of the organization. I started this study, assuming that all identified variables in this study would be statistically related. I found

through this research process that even though correlations or relations exist, not all would be similarly statistically significant. I am hopeful this examination will allow me to provide various leadership teams with valuable information that may change their results in a positive manner.

Overall this DBA experience has been challenging yet so rewarding at the end. The most rewarding aspect I discovered was my inner strength and tenacious endurance. This journey has also given me a greater insight into patience. As hard as it was for me to accept the timeframe it took to complete this program, it turns out time is the vehicle that presented the opportunity to increase my confidence both personally and professionally. I learned that surrendering to my fears of scholarly writing was not an option. Ultimately this entire process enhanced my skills, behavior, and knowledge. I'm also grateful for the new friendships and trust that was developed, leading me toward an original path of professional growth.

Conclusion

The high employee turnover rate in the hotel industry is a global problem and causes significant challenges for hospitality business leaders. Employee turnover increases an employer's direct and indirect labor costs, reduces employee efficiency, and impedes the financial performance of the business, making turnover costly to the organization. The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job satisfaction, and employee turnover intentions of front desk customer service employees of luxury hotels. I used SPSS version 25 to test the hypotheses by analyzing the descriptive statistics, testing the

assumptions, and performing a multiple linear regression analysis. I found that job satisfaction/dissatisfaction was the common reason front desk customer service employees leave their job. The findings revealed that employee turnover intention had a statistically significant relationship with extrinsic job satisfaction.

The results of this study support Herzberg et al. (1959) two-factor theory (i.e., motivation-hygiene theory), which explains how certain factors contribute to job satisfaction and how a separate set of factors contributes to job dissatisfaction. The findings of this study show a direct relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and intent to leave an organization. It is my hope that the results of this study will provide valuable information to luxury hotel leaders and invoke positive change in the industry. I concluded from the findings of this study that employee retention needs to be a priority for business leaders. Employee retention is possible through employee development, which can lead to a greater sense of employee responsibility and job security. Organizational leaders can use strategies such as selecting candidates best suited to the specific culture of the hotel, provide training specific to a skill set with the employees' jobs, and create growth opportunities for outstanding employees.

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Appendix A: Demographic Survey Questions

Demographic Information Questions 1-5 will provide demographic background information. Please answer all items candidly and honestly, remembering your responses are anonymous and confidential.

- a. At the time of this survey, how old are you?
 - a. 18-25
 - b. 26-49
 - c. 50-64
 - d. 65 and older

- b. What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

- c. What is the highest-grade level of formal education that you have completed?
 - a. Less than High School
 - b. High School/GED
 - c. Some College but no degree
 - d. Degree
 - e. Bachelor's degree
 - f. Graduate

- d. About how long have you been with the company?
 - a. Less than 1 year
 - b. 1-2 years
 - c. 3-4 years
 - d. 5-9 years
 - e. 10 -19 years
 - f. 20 or more years

- e. About how long have you been in your current position?
 - a. Less than 1 year
 - b. 1-4 years
 - c. 5-9 years
 - d. 10 -19 years
 - e. 20 or more years

Appendix B: Permission to Use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Survey

(MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

VPR no longer sells the MSQ questionnaires. All forms are available under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License. This license allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent, provided that you acknowledge Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, as the source of the material in your reproduced materials (printed or electronic). This license does not allow commercial use or reproduction for sale. The MSQ may be used without cost, however, for employee surveys provided that the survey is implemented within an organization and that no charges are made for its use.

VPR and the University of Minnesota do not offer scoring for the MSQ and cannot answer questions about its administration or scoring. Directions for scoring the MSQ are in its manual.

Appendix C: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

TIS-6 turnover intention Scale

Inbox**Grayce James [McClure Women's Correctional Center]**

<jamesgl@nv.ccsd.net>

Wed, Feb
20, 9:03
AM (1 day
ago)

to groodt

Dear Dr. Roodt:

My name is Grayce James and I am a doctoral student from Walden University writing my dissertation titled "Relationship Between Job Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Turnover Intention in Luxury Hotel Industry" under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Natalie Casale. I am seeking permission to use your TIS-6 instrument (Turnover Intention Scale-6) as referenced in your study: The validation of the turnover intention scale (2013). I would like to use and print your survey instrument under the following conditions:

- I will use this survey instrument only for my research study
- I will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.
- I will include a copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.

If there is something more specific you would like to know I can certainly provide it.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please provide approval via email to

jamesgl@nv.ccsd.net or grayce.james@waldenu.edu.

Respectfully yours

Grayce James

Dear Grayce

You are welcome to use the TIS!

For this purpose please find attached the longer 15-item version of the scale. The six items used for the TIS-6 are high-lighted. You may use any one of these two versions. The longer scale will generate higher coefficient Alpha reliabilities.

You are welcome to translate the scale if the need arises. I would like to propose the translate – back-translate method by using two different translators. First you translate from English into home language and then back from home language to English to see if you get to the original English wording.

This is the fourth version of the scale and it is no longer required to reverse score any items (on TIS-6). The total score can be calculated by merely adding the individual item scores. I would strongly recommend that you also conduct a CFA on the item scores to determine if any item scores should be reflected.

There is unfortunately no manual for the TIS-6. But scoring is easy. Total scores may range between 6 (6 x 1) or 30 (6 x 5). The scale mid-point will be 18 (6 x 3). Scores higher than 18 will therefore indicate a higher desire to leave the organization and scores lower than 18 a stronger desire to stay with the organization.

The only conditions for using the TIS is that you acknowledge authorship (Roodt, 2004) by conventional academic referencing (see article by Bothma & Roodt, 2013 in the SA Journal of Human Resource Management). The TIS may not be used for commercial purposes.

I wish you the very best with your research project!

Best regards

Gert

Prof Gert Roodt

Dept Industrial Psychology & People Management