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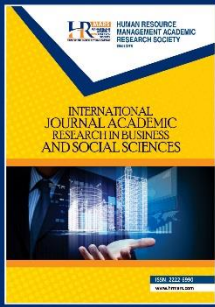
# Employee Turnover in the Hospitality Industry using Herzberg's Two-Factor Motivation-Hygiene Theory

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## Abstract

The purpose of this correlational study, grounded in the motivation-hygiene theory, was to assess the relationship between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, and work environment. A convenience sample of 156 hospitality employee from Western Georgia; Central Mississippi; and North Central Texas completed an online survey. Simultaneous multiple linear regression was the statistical technique used to analyze this data. In the final model, the 5 predictors accounted for approximately 36% of the variance in turnover intention, and the result was statistically significant, ($R^2$ =. 36, F (5, 105) = 11.57, p < .001). Motivation was not a significant predictor of employee's turnover intentions. Ultimately, hospitality leaders' ability to implemented strategies and policies into their business practice to reduce high turnover is vital for organizational to retain skilled worker while maintaining profitability. The study underscores the importance of job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, and work environment to reduce employee turnover in the hospitality industry. The fact that motivation was not a significant predictor of turnover intentions, this study opens avenues for further research on turnover intentions and motivation. Human beings are complex individuals and so what motivates them is also complex. Further research is needed to examine responses of individuals on different forms and processes of motivation to provide a more meaningful contribution of the role that motivation plays on turnover intentions, not only in the hospitality industry but other industries as well.

***Keywords:*** *Employee Turnover, Job Satisfaction, Employee Compensation, Employee Engagement, Employee Motivation, Work Environment and Hospitality Industry*

## Introduction

Employee turnover is detrimental to the competitiveness and profitability of organizations in the hospitality industry. Employee turnover jeopardizes organizational

performance and profitability because of its associated loss of critical corporate resources and company assets (Guilding, Lamminaki, & Mcmanus, 2014). Hospitality industry leaders can better implement policies and strategies that will enhance organizational competitiveness and profitability if they understand factors that significantly affect turnover rates among employees (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). These factors include, but not limited to, inadequate employee compensation, disengagement, lower motivation, job dissatisfaction, and non-conducive work environment, to mention a few.

Research on the effects of HRM practices on employees' behavior, including turnover intention is scanty. Most research studies have focused on the effect of HRM practices on the success of hospitality organizations only, but have not delved into the relationship of these practices to employee-turnover intentions. Also, few studies of HRM practices in the hospitality and tourism industry exist. Determining the principal reasons hospitality employees leave their positions in such great numbers is difficult at best. Researchers proffer substantive reasons for hospitality employee turnover (Chang et al., 2013). Although researchers, such as Cheng, Yang, Wan, and Chu (2013) examined different aspects of workplace factors involving leaders and coworkers as hospitality professionals, there is a continuing need for additional study of the various types of relationships among variables that include turnover among hospitality workers in the employment environment. The paucity of research in this area leaves unclear how employees have reacted to specific HR practices leading to their intentions to leave or stay in the organization. Chang et al. (2013) suggested that future studies should focus on employee recruitment, retention, and employee turnover in the hospitality service industry. Therefore, there is a need to focus on employees' perspectives on HRM and policies because these are significant antecedents of employee-turnover intention (Nivethitha et al., 2014).

**Literature Review**
**Background to the Hospitality Industry**

The hospitality industry represents one of the most dynamic and thriving industries in the United States, as well as in countries all over the world. Some countries, such as the United States, have retained a significant tourism industry that supports activities that have shaped the country's economy. Teng (2013) described the hospitality industry as an organization with a purpose to satisfy a full range of needs such as food, beverages, and accommodations. The hospitality industry involves frequent guest–host interactions and hospitality organizations that cater to the needs of a diverse group of people. Commercially, the hospitality industry has existed for almost 4,000 years. The hospitality industry remains a billion-dollar industry that depends on the disposable income and availability of its customers (Knani, 2014). The hospitality industry consists of various service fields that include lodging, restaurants, event planning, theme parks, transportation, cruise lines, and others. Numerous groups of employees run these establishments with various responsibilities, such as directors of operations, management or leadership roles, human resources, facility maintenance, and marketing positions (Ruizalba, Bermúdez-González, Rodríguez- Molina, & Blanca, 2014).

The hospitality and tourism industry provides many jobs around the globe and extensively contributes to many countries' gross domestic product (GDP) (Vasquez, 2014). Therefore, additional research may help leaders in such industries improve employees' performance,

enabling them to compete more effectively in the hospitality industry (Dobre, 2013; Dragoni, Park, Soltis, & Forte-Trammell, 2014; Verbos, Miller, & Goswami, 2014).

Globalization has created business mobilization opportunities for individuals that are beneficial for the hospitality industry (Grobelna, 2015). The travel and tourism economy contributes trillions of dollars to the global GDP; at a global level, experts anticipate profits and revenues from the tourism and hospitality industry will continue to grow (Vasquez, 2014). The hospitality industry employs a significant number of workers worldwide (Grobelna, 2015). The hospitality industry has already surpassed other industries, such as agricultural science, mining, and even retail, in its contribution to global GDP and the number of people working for the industry (Vasquez, 2014).

Organizations spend a significant amount of money to replace an already-trained manager (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). Training a new employee or manager also means losing the productivity of the trainer (Bryant & Allen, 2013). Replacing experienced employees, from managers to hourly employees, could become costly to the hospitality industry because preparing new workers takes a significant amount of labor, which equals lost money (Milman & Dickson, 2014). Bryant and Allen (2013) indicated that organizational leaders spend 30% to 50% of the yearly salary for entry-level employees, up to 150% of the salaries annually for middle-level employees, and as high as 400% of the annual salary to replace those in upper management positions. They argued that if a hospitality organization retains steady, long-term employees, its productivity would likely increase from increased employee loyalty (Mensah, 2013). High employee turnover rates often lead to business failure, an unmotivated workforce, and lack of attractiveness to skilled workers in the hospitality industry (Surji, 2013). Although retention strategies reduce turnover and retention costs, few organizations have retention plans in place (Bourke, Waite, & Wright, 2014; Cascio, 2014).

**Theory**

The theoretical framework used in this study is essential for providing an examination of the relationship between the variables and perceived experiences of the respondent in the study. The study is laden upon Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (1966). This theory is followed by two turnover models: The Price and Mueller 1981 and 1986 Turnover Models (Price and Mueller, 1977, 1981 & 1986) and Modified Greenhaus, Collins, Sing, and Parasuraman's Model of Voluntary Turnover (Greenhaus, Collins, Sing, and Parasuraman, 1997). These models and theory were selected to enhance our understanding of the relationships between employee turnover intention and job satisfaction, employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, and work environment in this study.

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory accounts for the relationships among employees' job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction in the environment where the employee performs the work. Herzberg et al. (1959) collected data from interviews with 200 engineers and accountants to understand motivating factors that related to employees satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their employment. Motivation factors are those that can affect employees' job attitudes to be more positive because employees' self-actualization needs are satisfied. Examples of motivation factors include achievement, recognition, positive feedback, more responsibilities, advancement, and promotion, as well as the work itself (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg identified the following motivational constructs affecting employees' motivation and job satisfaction: (a) achievement,

(b) recognition, (c) employees' perceptions, (d) responsibility, (e) advancement, and (f) possibility of growth.

According to Herzberg (1966), when the satisfaction need of an employee is high, dissatisfaction diminishes, preventing poor performance; however, the only satisfaction of motivation factors can lead to improved productivity. According to the Herzberg theory, attitudes can affect performance. Favorable attitudes lead to better performance compared to unfavorable attitudes toward the company; negative attitudes toward the company can also lead to psychological withdrawal from the job (Herzberg et al., 1959). Job satisfaction is a predictor of loyalty. Unique to this theory is a deviation from the conventional notion of job satisfaction, which is that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are extremes of a single continuum (Herzberg, 1966).

Price (1977) established a model identifying five determinants of turnover: pay, integration (relationship with a supervisor or coworkers), effective communication (clearly defined work roles), formal communication (organization communication practices and policies), and centralization (distribution of power in the organization). Price further introduced a moderator of job satisfaction and turnover, dubbed opportunity, defined it as the availability of alternative employment in the environment. As with many models, following the testing of the Price model, some shortcomings emerged. Therefore, in 1981 Price and Mueller revised and expanded the earlier model.

According to the Price and Mueller (1981) model, repetitive work reduces satisfaction. However, workers are more likely to be satisfied with their work when they are participating in job-related decisions, receiving work-related information, forming close friendships with others at work, earning reasonable and fair compensation, and enjoying opportunities for promotion (Price & Mueller, 1981). Price and Mueller proposed that the availability of alternative job opportunities moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover. Addressing the problem of small statistically significant correlations in their studies that necessitated future studies to focus on additional variables and measurement considerations, Price and Mueller (1986) revised and updated the model in 1986, to include the concept of role overload as antecedents to satisfaction. They found that workgroups and size of the organization, as precursors of organizational commitment, added to the employees' intention to leave. They also introduced the commitment to the organization as a mediator between job satisfaction and intention to leave. Price and Mueller's updated model included many of the earlier retention factors as well as several additional ones.

One valuable addition to the model was distributive justice, drawn from Price and Mueller (1981) literature on equity theory. This theory suggested that employees would be more likely to stay if they feel that the outcomes they receive reflect the effort and other inputs they invest. Price and Mueller (1981) grouped the factors into two groups known as the motivators and dissatisfies. Price and Mueller contributed to voluntary employee turnover by developing a comprehensive set of determinants of turnover and introducing salient variables that have now become part of the withdrawal process. Price and Mueller's models emphasized the importance of pay (compensation), training, and promotional opportunities (career management) to retention, which are quite relevant to the current study. Price and Mueller's (1986) model provided the causal determinants of turnover by treating turnover as an outcome emerging from a decision process that an employee undertakes. They placed the causal determinants in this

model into three major groups: environmental such as opportunity and kinship responsibilities, individual, such as compensation and general training opportunities and structural factors, such as advancement opportunities and routinization.

The Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, and Parasuraman (1997) model of voluntary turnover allowed researchers to study turnover in professional accounting firms. Greenhaus et al., (1997) posited that apart from working long hours, particularly during certain busy periods, professional accountants and banking professionals alike must progress through several positions before reaching the partnership level, occupying positions of increasing responsibility along the way. The modified model of voluntary turnover includes four sets of potential influences on the turnover process: (a) work experiences (work overload, career development opportunities, advancement aspirations, and advancement expectations), (b) family responsibilities, (c) work-home conflict, and (d) stress. According to Greenhaus et al., (1997), work overload was a predictor of intention to leave and actual departure. The lack of career development opportunity may cause an employee to decide to leave and that a strong desire for promotions sustained interest to remain in the organization, potentially reflecting increased levels of commitment. Likewise, optimistic advancement expectations decrease the likelihood of leaving an organization or profession.

**Employee Turnover Intentions**

Turnover intention is the behavioral attitude of a person desiring to withdraw from an organization (Awang, Amir, & Osma, 2013), and is a useful predictor of actual turnover. The success of hospitality industry primarily depends on the recruitment, management, and retention of employees. In addition, the seasonal nature of the hospitality industry remains a significant reason behind the high turnover rates (Faldetta et al., 2013). Even though hotel managers commonly hire and fire employees based on seasonal fluctuations, managers remain ignorant of the labor-versus-demand concept; therefore, they remain unprepared to synchronize labor to demand (Faldetta et al., 2013). Particular challenges from personalization/customization, service management, branding, and social media use might influence turnover rate. A significant need for industry leaders is to utilize better management techniques that would aid in retaining the most valuable, well-trained employees, effectively helping the industry compete in the hospitality market (Brown, Thomas, & Bosselman, 2015).

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

AbuKhalifeh and Som (2013) focused on the antecedents affecting employee engagement and organizational performance. Karatepe (2014) similarly studied and reported employee engagement as a component of organizational performance outcomes. Barrick, Thurgood, Smith,

and Courtright (2014) also focused on employee engagement from the perspective of the collective in an organization. Employee engagement studies occurred to determine the factors that could shape employee engagement and work outcomes by studying the perceptions of leaders, human resource professionals, and employees. Similar outcomes were that employee support represented an important contribution to engagement and work outcomes of employees (AbuKhalifeh & Som, 2013; Barrick et al., 2014; Karatepe, 2014).

Bryant and Allen (2013) and Hurley (2015) explored ideas to reduce turnover rates. Bryant and Allen described high employee-turnover rates as costly and disruptive. Bryant and Allen offered a range of possibly effective strategies to manage turnover. Strategies included compensation and benefits-based solutions, as well as solutions that provide aid beyond the material needs of employees.  The findings from Bryant and Allen identified several strategies that are available for organizations to employ, which could enable companies to more effectively lower turnover rates by providing different solutions to such a dynamic problem.

Deery and Jago (2015) examined various strategies that the hospitality industry could employ to resolve the turnover crisis. The researchers considered talent management, work-life balance, and other retention strategies. Deery and Jago conducted a literature synthesis and analysis using a framework that demonstrated the possible correlations with the antecedents of organizational and industry attributes, such as personal employee dimensions, work-life conflicts, organizational strategies, job-satisfaction outcomes, organizational commitments, and employee retention. A finding reported by Deery and Jago was that ensuring work-life balance was one of the most effective methods to improve retention rates. Moreover, any change in work-life balance could directly influence factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, stress, and alcohol use (Deery & Jago, 2015).

Other researchers have conducted studies to examine the reasons why turnover has remained high in this industry and what organizational leaders of the industry may do to change these high turnover rates (AlBattat & Som, 2013a; Sharon, Goziker, & Shahrabani, 2014). Although most researchers on turnover have posited that organizational factors such as commitment, engagement, satisfaction, and compensation could affect turnover (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy, & Lee, 2013) could explain the high turnover of the hospitality industry, the issue remains vague and worthy of further research. The high turnover rates of this industry are among the greatest challenges that HRMs face (Nayak, Pai, Prabhu, & Granil, 2015; Pearlman & Schaffer, 2013).

## Factors contributing to employee turnover
## Compensation

AlBattat et al., (2014) argue that compensation and extrinsic rewards affect employee turnover in the hospitality industry. Unacceptable working conditions, inadequate training, and unsatisfactory salaries could also lead to high employee turnover. Lee & Chao (2013); Mohsin, Lengler, & Aguzzoli (2015) also argue that the effects of job security, earnings, and organizational loyalty on turnover correlate with one another. Mohsin et al. (2015) examined the quadratic and linear relationships between the intention to leave one's job and their antecedents on a sample of 884 hospitality staff members in India and found the effects of organization enthusiasm and stimulating job experiences on employee turnover to be quadratic. Management was mostly responsible for keeping staff from leaving.

Pohler and Schmidt (2015) also examined the relationship between financial incentives and employee turnover. They evaluated the effects of managerial pay-for-performance on the turnover of employees in non-management positions, using the agency and equity theory and concluded that managerial pay-for-performance policies might negatively affect the relationship between employees and management, leading to a high employee-turnover rate. The findings from research conducted by Pohler and Schmidt supported previous literature assertions that pay could affect employee outcomes such as job satisfaction. Aside from pay, institutional factors such as opportunities for advancement and promotions, the existence of work-group cohesion, effective and supportive leadership, and adequate compensation could influence turnover (Qiu, Haobin Ye, Hung, &York, 2015).

Santhanam, Kamalanabhan, & Dyaram (2015) evaluated the effects of frontline employees' perceptions of human resource practices such as recruitment, selection, training, promotion opportunities, performance appraisal, feedback processes, and pay. They found that among HR practices, perceptions about selection and compensation practices significantly affected turnover intentions among frontline employees. In addition, they found that organizational identification could moderate the effects of perceived selection practices on employees' turnover intentions.

Brown, Thomas, and Bosselman (2015) evaluated the turnover intention and actual turnover rate of Generation Y hospitality employees to discern why this generation's employees entertain thoughts of leaving their jobs or leave their jobs. They found that Generation Y employees leave for the desire of an exciting and challenging career. Other factors included work-life imbalance, insufficient remuneration, long working hours, and better opportunities elsewhere.

Kuria et al. (2012) examined factors affecting turnover in the hospitality industry in the context of three- and five-star hotels in Kenya. They identified factors such as management style, working environment, and compensation benefits that could affect turnover intentions. They found that performance of the organization affects turnover such as the (Kuria et al., 2012). Employees who perceive their organization to be in poor financial condition may anticipate future layoffs and may preemptively leave (Kuria et al., 2012). Similarly, the local or regional economy contributes to employees' decisions; poor economies may inspire employees to seek work elsewhere, and rich economies may provide opportunities for job growth and expansion, which may also result in employees leaving. Also, some personal factors such as employee's unrealistic expectations affect turnover (Kuria et al., 2012, p. 314).

**Engagement and Embeddedness**

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

increased level of engagement, employees may become more satisfied and committed. When employees' personal values conformed to organizational norms, they were more likely to receive more responsibilities. As a result, employees would feel more empowered and engaged, which could lead to better performance and higher overall job satisfaction (Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013).

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

Karatepe and Shahriari (2014) evaluated the moderating effects of job embeddedness on the possible relationship between the factors of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and turnover intention. To do so, the researchers gathered data from full-time frontline hotel employees serving in hotels across Iran.  The findings from Karatepe and Shahriari research indicated that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice reduces turnover intentions. Moreover, the relationship between justice dimensions and turnover intention was stronger among employees who had high levels of job embeddedness. If employees perceived employers treat them without bias, they feel dignified and respected, increasing their sense of self-identity and self-worth. As a result, they are less likely to leave their jobs. Findings from this study-supported factor other than job embeddedness such as that form of organizational justice determine turnover intentions and actual turnover rates of employees (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014).

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

**Job Satisfaction**

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

employee's decision to quit a job (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). Herzberg et al. (1959) provided a set of motivational factors that could influence employees' job satisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959) assessed motivational levels of employees by asking them to describe what workplace conditions made them feel good about their jobs and what factors made them feel the opposite. Their research indicated that the motivation of employees increased in conditions where they felt that they could achieve and have more responsibility. Also, they found that hygiene factors were also influential on the satisfaction of employees. According to Venkataramani et al. (2013), meeting these factors does not immediately lead to satisfaction or motivation. Some hygiene factors resided in company policies, administrative regulations, technical supervision, and the quality of relationships with supervisors, peers, and subordinates.

Katsikeaet al. (2015) developed a comprehensive conceptual model that provided 17 hypotheses about relationships among structural, supervisory, and psychological factors behind turnover intentions of export sales managers. Their findings indicated that formalization and centralization could positively affect the role ambiguity and role conflict that most salespeople seem to experience. However, role stressors could negatively affect the satisfaction levels of salespeople, and as a result, make them want to leave their jobs. The study also indicated that job satisfaction directly related to job turnover intentions. Various factors found in the workplace shaped job satisfaction, and satisfaction directly affected employees' turnover intention.

Zopiatis et al. (2014) examined the levels of job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction that caused employee turnover in the hospitality industry in Cyprus. They found positive causal relationships between job involvement, effective and normative commitment, and intrinsic job satisfaction. They also identified positive relationships between affective and normative organizational commitment levels and job satisfaction, extrinsic and intrinsic. Levels of job involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction could all influence the decision to stay or leave one's job. In particular, a negative relationship existed between affective organizational commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Mismanagement of people and resources could lead to high turnover rates and, possibly, the demise of establishments in the hospitality sector (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

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

**Work Environment**

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

They further found that perceived organizational contracts could improve relational organizational support, but not transactional contracts. More importantly, only relational organizational contracts could affect turnover intentions, whereas transactional contracts could not.

Tews et al. (2013) evaluated the effects of coworker support on employee turnover among workers in the hospitality industry. Using data gathered from a sample of 188 services employees in a restaurant chain in the United States, they evaluated how two types of coworker support, emotional and instrumental, could affect turnover. Their study revealed that only emotional support from coworkers was related negatively to turnover. Emotionally supportive coworkers led to higher employee retention. Instrumental coworker support led to a higher turnover, contrary to the Tews et al. hypothesis. Finding from this study emphasizes the need to discourage traditional hierarchical relationships and encourage work collaboration between employers and employees (Tews et al., 2013).

Kim et al. (2015) evaluated how mentoring could reduce the turnover rates in the hospitality industry. They examined how specific mentoring functions could alleviate role stress, improve job attitudes, and reduce turnover intentions among hospitality industry workers. Kim et al. gathered data in South Korea from employees who received mentoring while working for luxury hotels. Specifically, mentoring employees involved providing assistance on career development, offering psychosocial support, and setting up role models. Kim et al. found that among the three types of mentoring functions, psychosocial support led to the most significant effects on employees' satisfaction levels and organizational commitment. Psychosocial support was also the most significant function for reducing role conflict, role ambiguity, and turnover intention. Therefore, effective mentoring programs should include a psychosocial-support function.

Madera et al. (2014) suggested that in the hospitality industry, which employs many immigrant employees, language barriers constitute a problem that might lead to employee turnover. With a majority of immigrant employees having limited English-speaking abilities, managers must often address miscommunication and other communication issues. Madera et al. examined whether these communication barriers could affect turnover intentions by evaluating the effects of these barriers on managers' satisfaction with employees and employees' subsequent feelings of role ambiguity and role conflict. The results from a survey of 130 hotel and lodging managers indicated that managers who were able to engage in quality communications with employees who only spoke limited English could reduce feelings of role ambiguity and role conflicts, lowering turnover intentions. Their findings indicated that managers who faced these communication barriers remained unlikely to entertain thoughts of leaving. Managing these barriers might increase pressures from the job, create misunderstandings, and lead to conflicts that may lead to turnover intentions. Occupational stress factors, especially unfair treatment, could lead to turnover (Hwang, Lee, Park, Chang, & Kim, 2014). According to Arnoux-Nicolas et al., (2016), work environment, which could represent a source of workplace stress, may lead to adverse outcomes such as high turnover. Moreover, meaningful work mediates the relationship between poor working conditions and turnover intention in a variety of job contexts (Arnoux-Nicolas et al., 2014). Hwang et al. (2014) suggested that if employees perceive they receive unbiased treatment, they felt dignified and respected they increase their

sense of self-identity and self-worth. They become less likely to leave their jobs (Karatepe & Shahriari, 2014).

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

Leadership behaviors may affect turnover intention indirectly through enhancing or decreasing job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Mathieu et al., 2016). In their study of fun activities, Tews, Michel, and Allen (2014) found that socialization with coworkers and managers' support for fun activities, improved retention rates. Similarly, Mathieu et al. (2016) examined how other supervisory behaviors, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment could shape turnover intention. The findings were consistent with those of Venkataramani et al. (2013) who studied positive and negative workplace relationships, noting the role of social satisfaction in employees' organizational attachments.

According to Mathieu et al. (2016), supervisory leadership could affect the well-being of employees, their satisfaction levels, and their commitment to their jobs and the organization. Mathieu et al. proposed a structural turnover-intention model that encompassed the variables of supervisory behavior, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Using a sample data of 763 employees working across different types of companies, they demonstrated that supervisors who exhibited person-oriented leadership could influence employees' feelings of satisfaction, commitment, and ultimately their decisions to leave or stay with the company (Mathieu et al., 2016).

Manager support also could alleviate the effects of work-family conflict on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions of frontline employees working for travel agencies in northern Cyprus (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015). Karatepe and Kilic (2015) recommended that increased managerial support could be one of the most fundamental and most essential strategies to lessen the risks of employee turnover. Management styles could also affect employees' decisions to stay or leave the organization (Kara et al., 2013). According to Chen, Friedman, & Simons, (2014), mid-level managers' satisfaction with senior managers' supervision could affect line employees' turnover intentions. Transformational leadership could also affect turnover intentions by motivating, inspiring, and showing empathy to their employees (Tse et al., 2013).

**Employee Motivation**

Maintaining business relations in the organization could lead to higher levels of employee motivation, and thus, lower levels of turnover (Ncube & Samuel, 2014). In the hospitality industry, in particular, motivation remains the key behind employee retention, due to frequent contact among the employees and clients or visitors (Marshall et al., 2016). Therefore, the higher the level of motivation of employees, the happier they are, the more productive they may be in interactions with clients, and the better service clients may receive, with overall improvements in organizational performance (Dobre, 2013).

Employees perceive they are not merely selling products; instead, they could make an impression on the clients and cause clients to return or not return to the organization and they

may feel a sense of empowerment in their jobs (Sahin, Cubuk, & Uslu, 2014). Sahin et al. (2014) theoretically linked organizational support, transformational leadership, personnel empowerment, work engagement, and performance that enhanced psychological capital. Employee empowerment that can stem from leader effectiveness can result in positive behaviors and individual satisfaction (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013). A dynamic and interactive environment, the higher the satisfaction of the employee who is always in direct contact with the clients, the higher employee retention and customer satisfaction for the hospitality industry are uniquely important (Robinson et al., 2014).

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

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

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

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

Tews, Michel, and Stafford (2013) examined the impact of workplace fun on employee turnover and performance, based on the idea expressed by Vasquez (2014) that if undermining the role of leaders continues in the hospitality. They concluded that undermining of leaders roles in the industry hospitality would affect an organization's ability to increase employee retention, leading to economic destabilization. Employees stay with the hospitality industry as long as they perceive they have enough support from management, feel a sense of contentment or a sense

of pride about the tasks they carry out for the organization, and social relationships appear to be fulfilling, rewarding, and stable (Venkataramani et al., 2013).

Other researchers have discussed possible challenges to employee retention and possible solutions. They have argued that although the retention strategies of other industries could apply in the hospitality industry, the industry has some unique challenges, making turnover a persistent problem (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013, Knani, 2014). First, the industry needs to attract efficient and suitable labors that can work effectively with diverse populations of consumers (Grobelna, 2015). However, when the industry has a continuously high level of employee turnover, this translates into a significant loss of investment in human capital and training (Bryant & Allen, 2013), and in the firm's quality of services, profitability, and success (Hancock et al., 2013). The lack of training and skill developments is are vital reasons the hospitality industry experiences such high turnover rates (Barbosa-McCoy, 2016). Formal and informal training is vital in reducing employee turnover (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013). As Mapelu & Jumah allude, although the hospitality industry remains highly people-intensive, employees may not receive enough career-growth opportunities to make them want to stay. To reverse the trend of high employee turnover, hospitality and tourism organizations should focus on inclusion of all staff in training activities and programs (Mapelu & Jumah, 2013).

The concept of a psychological contract is vital for understanding employee turnover in the hospitality industry. This concept refers to the reciprocal and mutual obligations between organizations and employees. Each of the parties might have different perceptions of these obligations (Tsui et al., 2013). HR practices such as recruitment, training, performance appraisal, salary, and benefits affect an employee's employment relationship with the organization (Tsui et al., 2013). How these HR practices affect employees' psychological contract might be critical in how organizations work on more consistent communication and management of this psychological contract. As employees and employers interact with each other, psychological contracts develop (Hemdi, Hafiz, Mahat, & Othman, 2014; Wu & Chen, 2015).

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

**Methodology**
**Population and Sampling**
The population for this study consisted of low- to mid-level hospitality employees who within the four sectors of the hospitality industry located in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. The four sectors include food and beverage, lodging, recreation, travel and tourism working in Atlanta, Georgia; Dallas, Texas; and Jackson, Mississippi. A convenience sample of 156 participants was used.

**Instrumentation**

The selected instruments for the measurement of the variables were the following: (a) Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) developed by Spector (1985) to measure job satisfaction, (b) Compensation Scale (CS) developed by Mensah (2014) to measure compensation, (c) Utrecht Work Employee Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002) to measure employee engagement, (d) Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS), developed by Tremblay et al. (2009) to measure employee motivation, (e) Work Environment Scale (WES) developed by Rossberg et al. (2004) to measure work environment, and (f) Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) developed by Khan and Du (2014) to measure employee turnover intentions. Although there were subscales present as part of the surveys, the composite scores of the scales were used. All surveys were in a Likert-scale format, and all composite scores resulted from summated items in each scale, after reversing scoring, as necessary and appropriate. The instruments were adopted, with author's permission, to collect data from the target population who were working in a service industry. Instruments were initially tested for validity and reliability; therefore there was no need for revalidation.

**Data Analysis**

Correlation and Multiple linear regression analyses were used to examine the relationship between variables. The three phases of data analysis were (a) descriptive data analysis; (b) correlation analysis and (c) multiple linear regression analysis to test the null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationships exist between employee compensation, employee engagement, employee motivation, job satisfaction, work environment, and employee turnover in the hospitality industry.

Prior to analysis, data were screened data for missing values, outliers, and tested for underlying statistical assumptions that influenced multiple regression analysis. Tests for assumptions included checking for departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity that could affect the derived correlations between variables.

**Results**

Table 1 (see Appendix) displays the results of the descriptive analysis. Participants' views on the predictor variables were as follows showed that:

(i) Job satisfaction scores (M=129.01, SD = 16.19) indicating that participants were generally ambivalent than positive or negative about their views on their job satisfaction as reflected by a mean group score that was not much higher than the midpoint of 126.

(ii) Employee compensation scores (M=14.2, SD=4.67) indicating that the participants collectively expressed less satisfactory views of their compensation than neutral or positive views.

(iii) Employee engagement scores (M=66.51, SD=20.64) indicating that the participants collectively expressed higher satisfactory views of employee engagement than neutral or contrary views.

(iv) Employee motivation scores (M=57.55, SD= 9.40) indicating that the participants collectively had more favourable views of motivation than negative or neutral

perceptions about the motivation they experienced at work within the hospitality industry.

(v)     Work environment scores (M= 24.26, SD= 7.03) was lower than the midpoint of 30, reflecting a less than neutral or positive collective view of participants about their work environments.

(vi)    Employee turnover intention score (M= 10.28, SD = 2.34) indicating that the participants collectively had a slightly higher turnover intention than neutral views.

**Correlation Analysis Results**

Table 2 (see Appendix) displays the results of the correlation analysis of the relationship between employee engagement, employee compensation, work environment, job satisfaction, and employee motivation and turnover intention. The results show significant associations between the dependent variable, turnover intention with employee engagement, employee compensation, work environment, job satisfaction, and employee motivation. In particular, the Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and employee engagement was (r (139) = - .54, p< .01), indicating a significant moderate negative relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and engagement. The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and compensation was (r (151) = - .34, p < .01), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and compensation.

The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and satisfaction was (r (139) = .25, p< .01), indicating a significant small positive relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and satisfaction. The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and motivation was (r (137) = - .21, p< .01), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and motivation. The Pearson correlation coefficient of linear correlation between turnover intention and the environment was (r (152) = - .26, p< .01), indicating a significant small negative relationship. Therefore the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship between turnover intention and work environment.

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

**Multiple Regression Analysis Results**

The results of linear multiple regression showed that the model comprising the five predictors, work environment, employee motivation, job satisfaction, employee compensation, and employee engagement combined accounted for about 36% of variance in turnover intention and the result was statistically significant ($R^2$ = .36, F (5, 105) = 11.57, p< .001). Therefore we fail to reject the null hypotheses of no statistically significant relationship between employee compensation, employee motivation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and work environment to turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. A review of the beta weights specifies four variables, compensation $\beta$ = -.23, t (105) = -2.34, p < .05; engagement $\beta$ = -.39, t (105) = -3.59, p < .00, satisfaction $\beta$ = -.17, t (105) = -2.05, p < .05, and environment $\beta$ = -.16, t (105) = -1.90, p < .05, significantly contributed to the model. Motivation did not significantly contribute to the model $\beta$ = -.13, t (105) = -1.36, p > .05. While the beta weights for four variables, employee compensation, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and work environment were significantly related to turnover intention, motivation was not significantly related to turnover intention.

**Discussion/Conclusion/Implications**

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

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

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

of families in the community through employment and tax revenues reinvested into the organization's community.

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

The concept of job satisfaction is not new and requires that leaders understand what leads to job satisfaction. A reconciliation of what employees believe are satisfying job experiences with what leaders require of and extend to their employees may lead to a better understanding of the concepts of job satisfaction in their hospitality roles. Addressing issues of employee motivation, also linked to employee compensation and engagement, and ensuring that employees have positive perceptions about their motivation, engagement, and compensation may help to reduce turnover intention.

Addressing compensation may be more straightforward than enhancing other motivators and engagement of employees; however, employee engagement appeared to be the most reliable predictor of employee turnover intention in the model advanced in this study. Therefore, we recommend that leaders should design hospitality workplace settings that have the potential for optimal employee engagement. Similarly, attention to the work environment with the purpose of developing an enriching and supportive work environment may likely help reduce turnover intention of hospitality employees.

### Limitations and Future Research

The use of US-based employees working in the hospitality industry was the first limitation. The second limitation was the biases and honesty of the study's participant with their responses to the survey questions, as the validity and accuracy of instruments used in assessing the variables. Third, the sample of the participants was drawn from employees working in the industry in the following locations: (a) Atlanta, Georgia; (b) Dallas, Texas; and (c) Jackson, Mississippi; therefore, there could be differences in experiences among participant working in the different location. Fourth, the study was restricted to five independent variables and one dependent variable, thereby limiting the findings to the variables within the study. These factors limited the generalizability of the study's results.

A related recommendation for future research would be including senior-level employees and management in a similar study. This research could lead to additional findings of the experiences and views of senior-level hospitality employees and managers who may experience similar or dissimilar perceptions of the factors influencing turnover with other employees in the industry. Because of the specificity that may be inherent to certain hospitality sectors or organizations, a qualitative study encompassing turnover intention and the five predictor variables in this study could yield useful information that leaders can use to formulate and implement turnover

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

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

Whereas the Herzberg (1966) motivation-hygiene theory was theoretical framework for this study, results did not fully conform to the Herzberg theory; it was unclear from the results of the study how job satisfaction and motivation related. The relationship between motivation and job satisfaction was not statistically significant. Although, according to the Herzberg theory, the environment might be hygiene rather than the motivational factor, in this study, environment-related positively and significantly to job satisfaction. Future researchers could consider using social exchange theory or person-environmental theory. The social exchange theory accounts for the individuals who needed to be a social circle that meets their needs, whereas, with the person-environment theory, certain people are more suitable for particular environments. In particular environment, satisfaction is more or less of a guarantee.

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**Appendix**

Table1

*Descriptive Statistics (N-156)*

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

Table2
*Correlation Coefficient between Study Predictor Variables (N=156)*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| (Constant) | 10.793 | 1.885 | | 5.725 | .000 | | |
| Compensation Scale | -.120 | .051 | -.235 | -2.341 | .021 | .608 | 1.644 |
| Utrecht Work Engagement Scale | -.046 | .013 | -.398 | 3.592 | .001 | .501 | 1.997 |
| Spector Job Satisfaction Scale | .026 | .013 | .172 | 2.053 | .043 | .874 | 1.145 |
| Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale | .035 | .025 | .134 | 1.363 | .176 | .632 | 1.583 |
| Work Environment Scale | -.055 | .029 | -.164 | 1.905 | .059 | .833 | 1.200 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention Scale

Table 3

*ANOVA (N=156)*

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

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention Scale

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

Table 4

*Model Summary*

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

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

Table 5
*Correlation Coefficient between Study Predictor Variables (N=156)*

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| (Constant) | 10.793 | 1.885 | | 5.725 | .000 | | |
| Compensation Scale | -.120 | .051 | -.235 | -2.341 | .021 | .608 | 1.644 |
| Utrecht Work Engagement Scale | -.046 | .013 | -.398 | 3.592 | .001 | .501 | 1.997 |
| Spector Job Satisfaction Scale | .026 | .013 | .172 | 2.053 | .043 | .874 | 1.145 |
| Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale | .035 | .025 | .134 | 1.363 | .176 | .632 | 1.583 |
| Work Environment Scale | -.055 | .029 | -.164 | 1.905 | .059 | .833 | 1.200 |

a. Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention Scale