

**PERCEIVED AND PREFERRED ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON BEHAVIOR
INTENTIONS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

by

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Abstract

Already a challenge to human resource professionals is retaining talented employees. Increasing human resource management's knowledge of how employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture contributes to job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization could have a significant positive impact on the reduction of turnover intention. In this quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational study, the researcher investigated the relationships between the independent variables (i.e., employees' perceived culture and employees' preferred culture) and the dependent variables (i.e., employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization), while controlling for specific demographics. The Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) was used to measure the independent, dependent, and control variables. There were total of 143 survey participants actively working in the hospitality industry resulted in 88 completed surveys for a response rate of 62%. Regression analyses were conducted to assess the relationships among perceived and preferred organizational culture, job satisfaction, intent to remain with the organization, or willingness to recommend the organization. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicated that there was a 25% variability in job satisfaction, 23% variability in intent to remain, and up to 44% variability in willingness to recommend. The results of this research identified that a relationship does exist between the employees' perceived organizational culture and the behavioral intentions of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and their willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Because of the lack of younger workers that participated in the study in the age category of 22-34 ($n=27$, 19%), a recommendation for future research would be to conduct a study directed at the millennials who are working in the hospitality industry. This may add to the

body of knowledge and have a practical application for human resource management when making adjustments to the culture of the organization.

Dedication

I would like to give all praise and glory to God for giving me the strength, courage, and perseverance to never give up and complete my educational goal. I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my wife Charity, who took the reins of leading our family during the missed days and long hours that I was away researching and writing. You are a fantastic mother and I am so blessed to have you by my side as my wife. You inspired me, pushed me, and picked me up when I thought I could not continue, and for that, I am eternally grateful. To my daughters, Kaylee and Sarah, you are my inspirations and I really did appreciate the gentle and subtle hints to quit watching TV and write. I will never forget your bedtime prayers asking God for more people to take my survey so I can finish and we could do things as a family again. You all sacrificed time away from daddy in order for me to complete my journey and for that, I have been truly blessed for your understanding. I hope you have learned that it takes hard work and dedication to accomplish your goals as nothing is handed to you.

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I would like to acknowledge that without God, I would have never started or finished this degree or had the support of a loving family. I would also like to acknowledge my mentor and committee chairperson Dr. Charlene Dunfee. You are a magician to take me on from where I was to see me at the finish line. I will forever remember the level of enthusiasm and the writing you expect. To the rest of my committee, Dr. Adrienne Isakovic and Dr. Bruce Winston, thank you for taking time from your busy lives to see others reach their educational goals. Your dedication to education sets an example that I will try to live up to.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Human resource leaders often look only at the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the applicants. Researchers have indicated that this approach fails to place individuals in positions in which they will wish to remain, because equally important factors such as personal values, organizational culture, and person–organization fit (POF) do not receive consideration (Hsieh & Chen, 2011; Tepeci, 2001, 2011). Through this study, the researcher sought to add to the existing body of knowledge in the field of human resource management. The study involved using a quantitative methodology to examine the influence of employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture on the following behavioral intentions: job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Chapter 1 included the foundational elements of the study, which included a background discussion of the current state of scholarly research, identification of an applied business problem, articulation of the study's purpose, the rationale for the study, and research questions. Chapter 1 also included an examination of the nature of the study that forms the theoretical framework to guide the researcher.

Background

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) and Tepeci (2011) investigated whether employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture influenced their behavioral intentions. Tepeci and Bartlett studied the following behavioral intentions: job satisfaction, intent to remain with the organization, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Tepeci

and Bartlett designed an instrument that measured employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture, their individual values, and the fit between the two.

The extent to which employees believe that their perceived and preferred organizational culture matches their environment has an effect on an organization's culture. Employees who experience a high degree of similarity between their perceived and preferred organizational culture likely have a higher degree of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work (Tnay, Othman, Siang, & Lim, 2013). Employees satisfied with their jobs are more likely to feel committed to the organization and to affect customer satisfaction positively (Tepeci, 2011).

Person-organization fit is the congruence of employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture (Alniacik, Alniacik, Erat, & Akcin, 2013; Tepeci, 2011). Perceived organizational culture exists when employees believe a fit exists between their individual values and those of the organization (Kwok, 2012; Tepeci, 2011). Preferred fit exists when there is congruence between the individuals' values and those of the organization (Kwok, 2012; Tepeci, 2011). Researchers and practitioners recognize the impact of employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture on employee turnover (DelCampo, 2006), job satisfaction (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), intent to remain (Alniacik et al., 2013), and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work (see Figure 1).

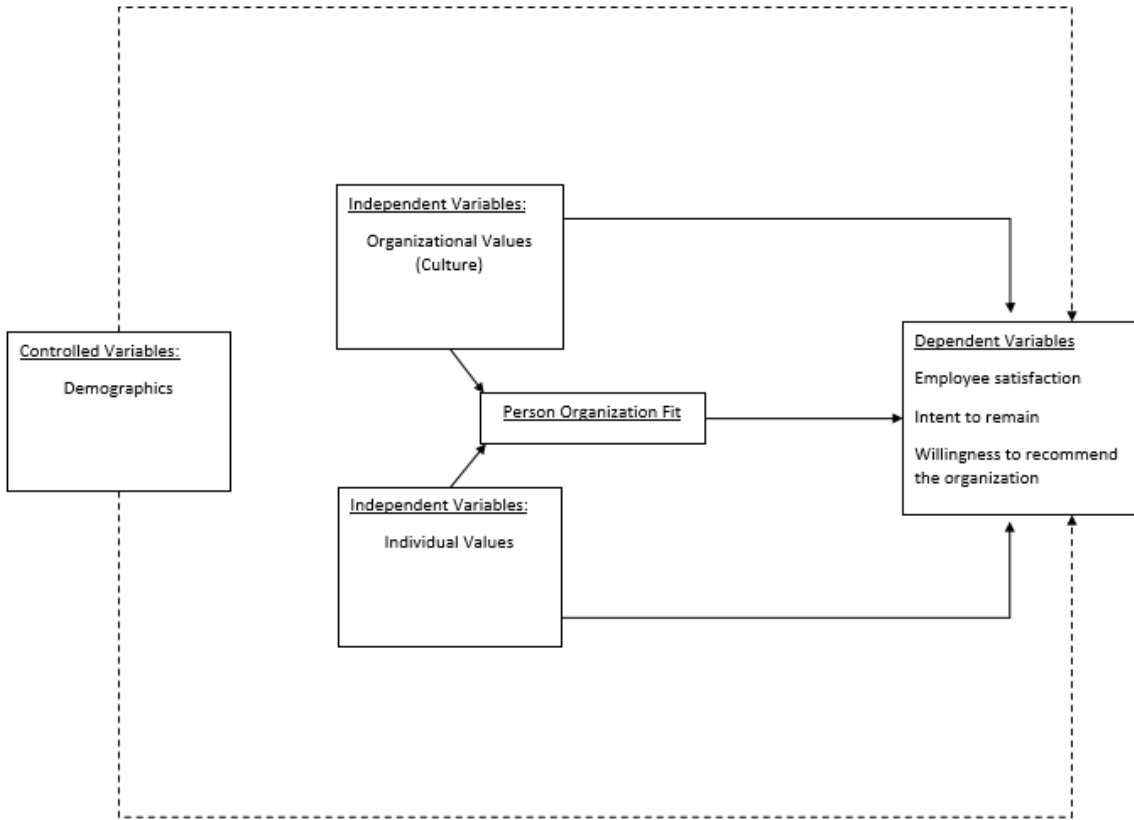


Figure 1. Person-organization fit.

How well employees' values fit in with those of the organization also has a significant impact on job satisfaction. In turn, job satisfaction links to reduced turnover intention (Tugal & Kilic, 2015). In a 2002 study, Tepeci and Bartlett measured employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture as it related to job satisfaction within the hospitality industry. Tepeci and Bartlett determined that the more employees' values matched those of the organization, the more satisfied the employees were with their jobs. Employees' job satisfaction has a direct correlation with their intent to remain with the organization (Dawson, Abbott, & Shoemaker, 2011). Employees' degree of job satisfaction and their commitment to the organization have a significant impact on their intention to remain with the organization (Tugal & Kilic, 2015).

When employees believe their perceived and preferred organizational culture is congruent with that of the organization, the employees are more likely to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Via employees' willingness to recommend their organization, Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) measured the employees' degree of perceived and preferred fit. A link exists between job satisfaction and employees' willingness to recommend their organization as a good place to work (Alniacik et al., 2013).

Business Problem

The specific problem explored in this study was that human resource leaders do not always recognize that employees' preferred organizational culture does not always align with their perceptions of the existing organizational culture, which results in job dissatisfaction, voluntary turnover, and a lack of willingness to recommend the organization to others (Hsieh & Chen, 2011; Tepeci, 2011; J. Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012). Research illuminating the relationship between the independent variables employees' perceived culture and preferred culture and the dependent variables employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for specific demographics is valuable (Jang & George, 2012; Tepeci, 2011; K. Yang & Yu, 2014) and will add to the body of knowledge in human resource management.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the correlation between the independent variables employees' perceived culture and preferred culture and the dependent variables employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for specific demographics. The researcher used the

Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) to measure the independent, dependent, and control variables (see Appendix B). The population for the study consisted of full-time employees currently working in the hospitality industry, and the study took place in Georgia.

The study is important, as it was a valuable addition to the existing body of knowledge in the field of human resource management. Some hospitality workers are customer focused, and when such employees become dissatisfied with the organization, their behavior has a direct impact on customers' perceptions of the organization (AlBattat & Som, 2013). Satisfied employees in the hospitality industry connect with customers and develop relationships that build customer loyalty (AlBattat & Som, 2013). By contributing to the examination of employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization beyond what is attributable to organizational culture and individual values, the study indicated that significant relationships exist between these behavioral intentions and employees' perceived culture.

Research Questions

The research questions for the study were as follows:

RQ1: What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their job satisfaction?

RQ2: What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their job satisfaction?

RQ3: What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their intent to remain?

RQ4: What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their intent to remain?

RQ5: What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization?

RQ6: What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization?

Rationale

Research is necessary to understand techniques and strategies that can be implemented to retain valuable employees and improve the organizational culture (Alniacik et al., 2013). While the HICP has been used to measure the perceived and preferred organizational cultures in the Turkish hospitality industry, few studies have used the HICP in other countries (Tepeci, 2011). Additionally, Tepeci (2011) argued the need for further research to understand the precise characteristics that shape the attitudes of employees to implement specific measures to change the culture. Dawson et al. (2011) described the need to measure the relationship between the individual's match with the hospitality industry and job satisfaction.

Increasing human resource management's knowledge of how employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture contributes to job satisfaction and intent to remain could have a significant positive impact on the reduction of turnover intention. Human resource managers should be working hard to develop ways to reduce the loss of talented and experienced employees (P. Ghosh, Satyawadi, Jagdamba, & Shadman, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013). Hidden costs of turnover include customer dissatisfaction due to the poor performance or attitude of dissatisfied employees before they quit, which goes unreported and remains off the books (Jang & George, 2012). Losing good, quality employees can have a negative impact on an organization due to loss of productivity, quality, and customers. Researchers and practitioners

recognize the impact that employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture has on employee turnover (Jang & George, 2012), job satisfaction (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), intent to remain (Alniacik et al., 2013), and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work.

Theoretical Framework

According to the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory, organizations are a function of the people who belong to them (Schneider, 1987). The behaviors exhibited by employees who belong to an organization are not determined by the organization, but by the people working in it. Individuals are attracted to the culture of the organization; they then decide to be part of the environment and stay (Schneider, 1987). The employees within an organization have different characteristics that together constitute a unique mixture that makes up the organizational culture. Because organizations are different, individuals select which culture is attractive to them. When people decide they like an organizational environment, they tend to join, thereby further differentiating that organizational environment from others. The ASA theory cycle regulates why organizations look and feel different from each other (Schneider, 1987).

The ASA theory integrates individual and organizational theories into a cycle that is the result of three interconnected processes: attraction, selection, and attrition (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). According to the ASA theory, this cycle determines the types of people in an organization, which subsequently determines the nature of the organization and its culture (Schneider et al., 1995).

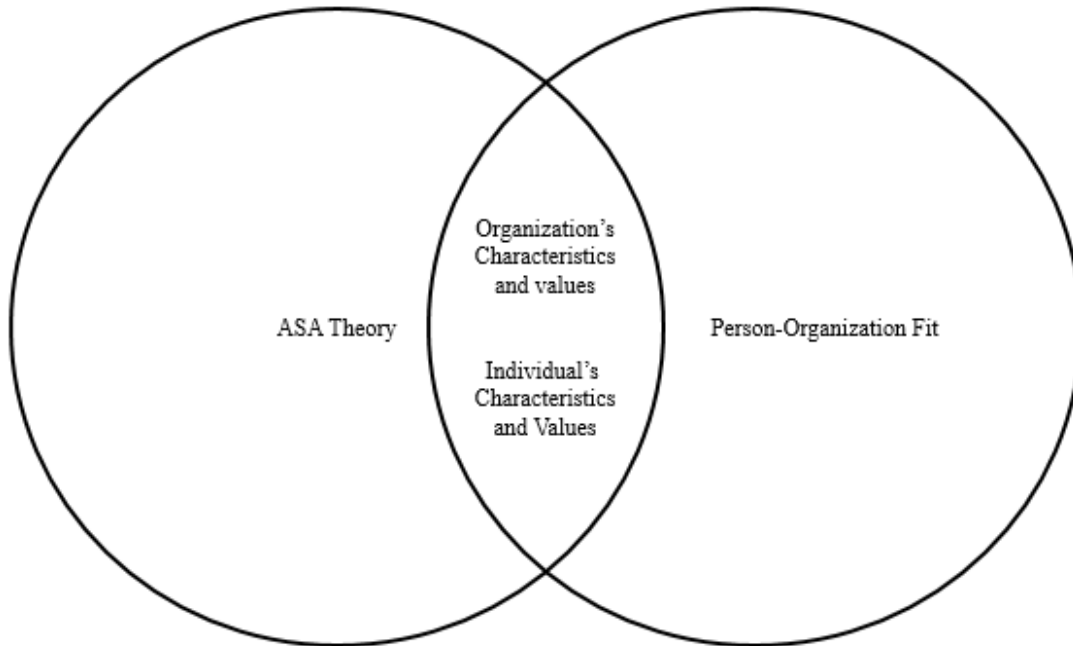


Figure 2. Theoretical framework.

Person theorists were early scholars in the study of behaviors from a person perspective. Person theorists assumed that if organizational leaders identified and hired cooperative people, those people would remain cooperative anywhere in the organization (Schneider, 1987). In contrast, interactional theorists required more information about both the individual and the situation (Schneider, 1987). Interactionalists contended that cooperative people hired and placed in different environments that did not match their perceived or preferred culture could change the organization over time (Chatman, 1989). Chatman (1989) noted that the connection between ASA theory and the tenets of POF is interactional, as both focus on an organization's characteristics and values and on an individual's characteristic and values.

Employees' displayed behaviors within an organization have many variances, just as individual personalities do (Chatman, 1989). Researchers have proposed that individuals select careers or jobs that are comparable with or fit within those individuals' self-concepts (O'Reilly,

Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The study involved an attempt to measure what impact, if any, perceived and preferred organizational culture has on employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

Significance

Implications for Scholarship

In a study of hospitality industry culture, Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) measured individual values, the culture of the organization, and employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture with behavioral intentions as predictors of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. The study replicated the methodology and HICP instrument developed by Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) to yield additional data to examine within the hospitality industry in Georgia. Dawson et al. (2011) contended that the HICP instrument was the only developed instrument that measured organizational culture and individual values in the hospitality industry.

Roberts (2010) explained that a replication study adds knowledge cumulatively over time as each study is completed. Replication studies add strength and clarity with each research finding (Roberts, 2010; Duvendack & Palmer-Jones, 2013). The continued testing and refining of measuring instruments, such as Tepeci's (2001) HICP, is a vital quantitative research method that benefits future researchers (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010).

Implications for Business Practice

Work attitudes directly affect employees' perceptions of their degree of fit within an organization. Tepeci (2011) described the impact of POF on employees' attitudes within the hospitality industry in Turkey. Tepeci noted that the precise features of fit, whether perceived or

preferred, could influence change in organizational culture along with the development of new policies and procedures. Tepeci wrote that such changes within an organization could have a significant effect on job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. The core study conducted by Arbour et al. (2014) identified through their research, that POF could be used to predict behavioral outcomes and employees attitudes.

Workers in the service industry have a lot of direct contact with customers. Within the hospitality industry, customer relationships are closely connected to the service provider rather than to the organization itself (Ineson, Benke, & Laszlo, 2013). Dissatisfied employees working in the hospitality industry have a negative effect on the customers with whom they come into contact (AlBattat & Som, 2013). If employees perceive that they do not fit in with the organization, they may become dissatisfied and affect customers' perceptions of the organization (AlBattat & Som, 2013). For human resource managers, reducing turnover is critical to their organizations.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms are applicable to the proposed study:

Intent to remain. Intent to remain is the intention of employees to remain with their current organization (Tepeci, 2001).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs (Tepeci, 2001).

Organizational culture. Organizational culture is the values members of an organization share (Tepeci, 2001).

Perceived culture. Perceived culture (or perceived fit) is employees' belief regarding the degree of fit that exists between their values and the values of the organization (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

Person-organization fit. Person-organization fit is the degree of similarity between organizational values and individual values (Tepeci, 2001).

Preferred culture. Preferred culture (or preferred fit) is how employees' envision the ideal similarity between their own values and the organization's values (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

Willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. This is the degree of willingness of currently employed workers to recommend their organization to family and friends as a good place to work (Tepeci, 2001).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are facts considered to be true but not actually verified (Arbour, Kwantes, Kraft, & Boglarsky, 2014). Information assumed to be true with respect to the study, but that cannot actually be verified, is as follows:

1. Workers in the hospitality industry in southeastern Georgia will respond to the survey and will answer honestly.
2. Workers will have access to the Internet to take the survey.

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses of the study (P. Ghosh et al., 2013). Limitations of the proposed study are as follows:

1. Data collection will be limited to southeastern Georgia and may not represent the hospitality industry in other geographical regions of the United States.
2. The survey will be conducted at one point in time and the employees who participate in the survey may not represent the entire hospitality industry in southeastern Georgia.
3. A single segment within the hospitality industry may have more participants than other segments.
4. Study participants who take the survey may not be satisfied with their organizations for reasons not indicated in the survey instrument.

Organization for Remainder of Study

In Chapter 2, the researcher synthesized and analyzed the literature on perceived and preferred organizational culture and employees' job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. Chapter 3 included the methodology of the research. In Chapter 3, the researcher provided the research design, population, sample size, setting, and instruments used to collect data. In Chapter 3, the researcher also discussed the hypotheses, the data analysis, and the validity and reliability of the instruments. In Chapter 4, the researcher provided the data collection results, the descriptive analysis, and the analysis of the hypotheses. In Chapter 5, the researcher presented the evaluation of the research questions, the fulfillment of the research purpose, the study's contribution to the business problem, recommendations for future research, and the conclusion.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this quantitative nonexperimental study was to examine the relationship between the independent variables employees' perceived culture and preferred culture and the dependent variables employees' job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. The following research questions guided the study: what is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their job satisfaction; what is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their intent to remain; what is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization; what is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their job satisfaction; what is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their intent to remain and what is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization?

The literature in this review represents a reflection on how organizational culture and POF have an impact on employee turnover (DelCampo, 2006), job satisfaction (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014), intent to remain (Alniacik et al., 2013), and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Through a review of the literature, the researcher presented a synthesis of relevant seminal, scholarly, and practitioner literature that exemplifies the in-depth inquiry of theorists, academic researchers, and practitioners on the topic of organizational culture and POF in the hospitality industry. Behaviorists have studied organizational culture and POF to gain a better understanding of the relationship between

workers and an organization's culture. Researchers have developed several instruments to measure organizational culture from a survey of work values (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971) to a hospitality industry culture profile (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

The challenge for human resource professionals is to retain quality employees (Zhang & Gowan, 2012). Human resource staff are continually seeking new ways to gauge and balance job applicants' willingness to work for the organization and current employees' satisfaction (Judge & Cable, 1997). One of the purposes of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of POF and of how human resource staff can match the values of job candidates with those of the organization (Judge & Cable, 1997).

Southeast Georgia is a tourist destination; tourism is the region's biggest industry and employer. Human resource professionals who understand POF and their organization's culture may have a competitive advantage over others in attracting and retaining the best employees (H. M. Chen & Chang, 2010). When employees are willing to stay and are willing to refer others to work for an organization, the employer and the employees win. Individuals looking for jobs and selecting organizations to apply to intend to match their personal values with their employer's values (Cable & Judge, 1996). Chapter 2 includes by research topics relevant to the literature review on employees' perceived and preferred fit and POF. The research topics include organizational culture, hospitality culture, and individual values. Chapter 2 also includes a review of the literature that measures organizational culture, hospitality culture, POF, and individual values, including measuring job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Organizational Culture

Human resource professionals should want to create a positive organizational culture in which employees want to stay and to which they would want to recommend their family and friends. A proper understanding of organizational culture requires a clear definition. R. Y. Chen, Cheung, and Law (2012) in their core works reviewed existing literature from ProQuest Business, EBSCOhost, and Science Direct databases and chose 12 academic journals in the hospitality and tourism industry. From the 12 academic journals, the key phrase of culture and hotel were used to search the three databases. R. Y. Chen et al. examined 107 journal articles published between 1985 and 2010 and observed that, by 1952, there were already 164 definitions of culture. Schein (1984) defined organizational culture as

the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 3)

O'Reilly (1989) described organizational culture as shared beliefs and expectations among members of an organization that shape the behavior of those individuals and groups that belong to the organization. Researchers have also defined organizational culture as values, beliefs, and assumptions shared between an organization and its employees (Ruiz-Palamino, Martinez-Canas, & Fontrodona, 2013; Schneider, 1987). Robbins (1996) defined organizational culture as an arrangement of shared significance among colleagues that differentiates the organization from other organizations. The shared system aligns on key traits and characteristics that the organization values (Robbins, 1996). Organizational culture plays a significant role in attracting and retaining applicants and employees (Catanzaro, Moore, & Marshall, 2010).

In his seminal works, Schein (1984) indicated that organizational culture contains three levels: artifacts and creation, values, and basic assumptions. The three levels in Schein's theoretical framework incorporated workers' dress, workers' behavior, the physical layout of the office, the environment of the organization, and workers' speech patterns. Schein noted that organizational culture is the product of people who live and work together for an extended period. Over time, everyone starts to share the same values as the organization of which they are a part (Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012). As values begin to be shared between the people and the organization, the people determine what is suitable and proper for the success of the organization (Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012).

Robbins's (1996) seminal work supported Schein's (1984) definition of how organizational cultures learn by explaining that employees learn culture in many ways. Employees learn about an organization's culture through stories told and circulated throughout the organization (Robbins, 1996). Rituals reinforce the values of the organization (Robbins, 1996). Material symbols express to the employees who is important and what kinds of behavior are appropriate in relation to, for instance, risk taking and leadership styles (Robbins, 1996).

The group language used within each organization identifies its members from members of other organizations (Robbins, 1996). As human resource professionals gain an understanding of what constitutes organizational culture, this understanding should help shift their organizations' culture to appeal to potential applicants and to retain the existing workforce. This shift would be beneficial in attracting a larger applicant pool and a better quality of applicants by creating a positive organizational culture.

Schneider's (1987) seminal contribution to the theoretical framework of industrial and organizational psychology and interactional psychology paved the way for many scholars to research the ASA theory. Schneider viewed interactional psychology using three hypotheses. Schneider's (1987) first hypothesis was that a work setting, not an experimental lab, was necessary to get a true picture of individual differences. Schneider's second hypothesis was that applicants were the ones that selected into and out of organizations. Finally, Schneider's third hypothesis was that applicants and organizational settings were connected, as the people in the setting made up the organization.

Schneider (1987) summarized ASA research and his theory as grounded in the people who make up an organization's culture. From the ASA perspective, potential applicants choose to apply to an organization because they are attracted to the environment or culture, and they then decide to stay or to move on based on the culture (Schneider, 1987). This selection process is a contributing factor in the differentiation of the cultures of different organizations. Furthermore, ASA theorists assume that individual employees' attributes create an organization's culture (Van Vianen, 2000).

Despite the many definitions of organizational culture, the common denominator of all these definitions is that the traits and characteristics of organizational culture constitute a system of shared values, norms, and beliefs (S. Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014). S. Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) used a quantitative research methodology and constructed a survey instrument for measuring organizational culture. The questionnaire consisted of seven dimensions that described organizational culture, which consisted of trust, openness, freedom to experiment, individualism, attitude, and participation (S. Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014). Of the seven

dimensions, S. Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) arranged five to six items under each of the dimensions for a total of 39 items. The questionnaire was sent electronically to 390 participants. The instrument used to collect the data was a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being *strongly agree* and 5 being *strongly disagree*. The survey participants were selected on a convenience basis and 92 responses were returned complete. S. Ghosh & Srivastava used IBM SPSS software and conducted exploratory factor analysis to analyze the data. The results of the study included the seven dimensions that explained 70% of the total variance. S. Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) concluded their survey instrument was valid and reliable for measuring organizational culture.

Organizations and their members share common traits and characteristics. Each group attempts to gain what it desires from other groups, from the organization, and from the organization's members. As R. Y. Chen et al. (2012) indicated there were 164 definitions of culture as early as 1952, attempting to measure organizational culture has been as controversial as defining it.

Organizational culture has a significant part to play in how employees view their organizations. Culture sets one organization apart from others (Choudhury, 2012). The culture of an organization helps dictate the types of employees who will work there, as well as what is acceptable and not acceptable in the workplace (Ghinea & Bratianu, 2012). Employees judge the organizational culture of values according to their own values (O'Reilly, 1989).

Measuring Organizational Culture

Lee (1992) explained the difference between qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative approach involves using both language and descriptions during the gathering of data

and is subjective (Lee, 1992). The quantitative research method involves using statistics and figures to explain the data and is objective (Lee, 1992).

Allwood (2012) contrasted quantitative and qualitative research methods by explaining that, for qualitative researchers, learning firsthand through direct contact with the research setting garners greater results. In contrast, quantitative researchers believe it is critical to maintain a discrete separation between themselves and the subject or the object of the study (Allwood, 2012). Within a qualitative research method, the subjects studied may alter their behavior and answer interview questions differently depending on what they think the researcher believes is acceptable.

S. Ghosh and Srivastava (2014) noted that early researchers studying organizational culture used the qualitative approach by observing and recording. Researchers have used a number of quantitative instruments to measure organizational culture, including (a) the Survey of Work Values (SWV; Wollack et al., 1971), (b) the Meaning and Value of Work Scale Values (Kazanas, 1978), (c) the Organizational Values Congruence Scale (Enz, 1986), (d) the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989), (e) the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP; O'Reilly et al., 1991), and (f) the HICP (Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002; Tepeci, 2005). The instrument names, numbers of items the instrument measured, and authors appear in Table 1.

Table 1

Values Measure Instruments for Organizational Culture

Instrument	No. of items measured	Authors
Survey of Work Values	67	Wollack et al., 1971
Meaning and Value of Work	50	Kazanas, 1978
Organizational Values Congruence Scale	19	Enz, 1986
Comparative Emphasis Scale	48	Meglino et al., 1989
Organizational Culture Profile	54	O'Reilly et al., 1991
Hospitality Industry Culture Profile	40	Tepeci and Bartlett, 2002

Wollack et al. (1971) developed the SWV, a new instrument, to measure several areas of work values. The SWV used the quantitative research methodology consisting of a questionnaire that measured 67 items. To develop the instrument, the survey population was 495 employees who worked in three glass-manufacturing plants in the Midwest (Wollack et al., 1971). Wollack et al. concluded the SWV met the criteria for construct validity and could be a useful tool in researching work values.

Using the instruments in Table 1, researchers have studied cultural differences within various industries. Chatman and Jehn's (1994) seminal quantitative study within the service industry consisted of 15 firms that represented four different service sectors. Chatman and Jehn researched the correlation between two industry characteristics, which were organizational culture and technology and growth. The OCP was the instrument used to assess organizational culture (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). Analysis of variance was used to assess if the culture dimensions deviated more across different industries than within industries (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). The results of the analysis of variance test identified that cultures vary across different

industries more than within industries (Chatman & Jehn, 1994). For this study, the HICP instrument developed by Tepeci (2001) presented the best opportunity to measure the distinctive cultural differences within the hospitality industry. Although researchers have used the instruments listed in Table 1 to study various items to measure organizational culture, it was essential that researchers explore which items or extents employees or job candidates viewed as important.

Marchand, Haines, and Dextras-Gauthier (2013) selected the OCP instrument when studying organizational culture in the occupational health industry. Marchand et al.'s study of 30 workplaces in the occupational health industry yielded a sample size of 1,164 employees. Exploratory factor analysis was appropriate to assess the scope of the OCP instrument as well as multilevel regression models (Marchand et al., 2013).

Identified limitations to Marchand et al.'s (2013) study included the possibility of workers with low mental health scoring the organizational culture negatively. This could become a factor if a large number of workers with low mental health worked for the organization. Another limitation was the possible influence of the different demographics of individuals taking the survey. Differences in sex, age, generation, education, and national origin could have an effect on organizational culture. Marchand et al.'s decision to select and validate an instrument that measures organizational culture 22 years after it was established shows the relevancy of the OCP to current research.

The OCP includes a set of value statements that researchers can use to calculate both the level to which certain values reflect an organization and an individual's affinity for that specific alignment of values (Dawson et al., 2011). The value statements derive from the organization's

values and culture (Dawson et al., 2011). The completed value statements could depict the values of both the individuals and the organization. The OCP measured by comparing an organization's values with the preferences of individuals (Dawson et al., 2011).

In a study of hospitality industry culture, Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) measured individual values and the cultures of organizations and applied POF as a predictor of intent to quit, job satisfaction, and the intent to refer people to work for an organization. Tepeci (2001) developed an instrument to measure organizational culture in the hospitality industry. To finalize the HICP, Tepeci used the OCP but added additional factors relevant to the hospitality industry.

After testing the instrument using pilot tests, Tepeci (2001) sent the final questionnaire to a sample comprised of 182 upper-class college students majoring in hospitality management. The survey included a Likert-type scale, would take the respondents approximately 10 minutes to fill out, and was analyzed using SPSS. To eliminate order effects, Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) divided the questionnaires into two groups. Half of the questionnaires asked about the *perceived* characteristics of the organizational culture, while the other half asked about the *preferred* characteristics of the organizational culture. Tepeci and Bartlett revealed that only 118 respondents worked in the hospitality industry. The breakdown of workers by sector was as follows: 56% in the restaurant sector, 25% in lodging, 8% in the food sector, and 11% in other hospitality jobs (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

When measuring culture, most of the instruments used by researchers measured according to one of two methods: normative and ipsative (Chatman, 1991). Chatman (1991) described the normative method when respondents used a Likert-type rating scale to rate the extent to which they validated or rated the items. Each value was assessed independently of the

other values (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991). Ipsative methods have a forced choice format, wherein respondents rank or compare the relevance of values within the same value set (Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Enz, 1986, 1988; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Samel, 2014; Tepeci, 2001).

Researchers who use the normative method declare that it has many meaningful advantages (Wollack et al., 1971). Since the values are rated independently of each other using a Likert-type scale, the data gathered may vary from high to low on any or all of the values (Tepeci 2001). The normative method is independent, which allows the capture of complete scores that can be interpretable and meaningful (Samel, 2014). The challenge of the ipsative method is ranking (through rank order and forced choice) the values. The ipsative method presents values' comparative strength relative to other values within the same set.

Many researchers have used the ipsative method to compare values to other values (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991, Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Researchers who have used the ipsative method have maintained that individual values are ranked and organized in order within their value system and that the ipsative method reflects the way individual values are held. Individuals may not be aware of their belief systems. Therefore, their values are measured more truthfully by individual choice situations. Additionally, as the ipsative method requires individuals to rank values in order and forces them to choose certain values over others, the method leads to a greater discrepancy of scores and a more normal distribution (Alwin & Krosnick, 1985).

Researchers studying organizational culture have used the qualitative methodology, which involves observing and recording (S. Ghosh & Srivastava, 2014). Organizational culture

researchers have also used the quantitative methodology by using survey instruments and analyzing the data (Enz, 1986; Kazanas, 1978; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Samel, 2014; Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002; Wollack et al., 1971).

Hospitality Culture

As noted in its *2006-2007 Career Guide to Industries*, researchers at the U.S. Department of Labor observed that careers in the hospitality industry are often stereotyped as being low wage and entry level, with little room for advancement (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2016). The U.S. Department of Labor career guide may indicate an effect on the culture within the hospitality industry and on the individual applicants applying for open positions.

Research on the distinctiveness of culture in the hospitality industry has been limited (Dawson et al., 2011). Attempts to define hospitality industry culture have been limited to specific sectors such as restaurants (Ogaard, Larsen, & Marnburg, 2005; Woods, 1989), supermarkets (Samel, 2014), or hotels (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001), and scholars have found it difficult to define and explain hospitality industry culture (Dawson et al., 2011).

In the culture of the hospitality industry, employees often have direct contact with customers. J. Yang (2010) used the quantitative research methodology. The population for the study was frontline employees who worked in international hotels in Taiwan (J. Yang, 2010). Taiwan has 61 international hotels, and J. Yang reduced the number of participating hotels to 11 to conduct the study. J. Yang gave the questionnaire to the human resource office and the department managers to distribute to the frontline employees who were participating in the study. Approximately 1,500 questionnaires went to each participating hotel (J. Yang, 2010). The

number of returned surveys was 754, with 83 that were not complete, for a total of 671 participants (J. Yang, 2010).

J. Yang (2010) developed the survey instrument on the foundation of extant applicable and validated items, which were statements that used a 7-point Likert-type scale. The survey instrument included three sections. The second section of the questionnaire examined job satisfaction and turnover intention (J. Yang, 2010). The second section of the survey instrument included four items to measure job satisfaction and three items used to measure turnover intentions (J. Yang, 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL 8.52 was suitable to test the measurement model (J. Yang, 2010).

J. Yang (2010) observed that the culture of the hospitality industry is often physically, emotionally, and mentally difficult for workers. The culture of the hospitality industry is often associated with low wages, an unfair compensation system, a lack of career advancement, and a lack of recognition from supervisors and organizations (J. Yang, 2010).

Hospitality workers must often perform multiple tasks or job activities (Jang & George, 2012). It is important for recruiters to identify employees who possess the wide range of skills needed (Bateson, Wirtz, Burke & Vaughan, 2014). Workers' skill sets need to be compatible with the requirements of the organization and the job (Jang & George, 2012).

The culture of the hospitality industry has been a culture of low expectations, wages, and benefits (BLS, 2016). Though research on the hospitality industry's organizational culture is scant (Ogaard et al., 2005), researchers are aware of the consistent contact with customers, the rotating schedules, the high turnover, and the need to multitask to perform all the functions of typical hospitality jobs (Jang & George, 2012; J. Yang, 2010).

Measuring Hospitality Culture

Research that includes discussions and discoveries within the hospitality culture is lacking (Ogaard et al., 2005). Researchers have previously struggled to study organizational culture in restaurants (Ogaard et al., 2005) and hotels (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001). The research methodology for studies on hospitality culture has been largely qualitative (Dawson et al., 2011). Although the researchers of these studies identified values that are particular to the restaurant and hotel sectors, it is uncertain whether the attributes of these two sectors apply universally to the hospitality industry.

Ogaard et al.'s (2005) study of organizational culture in restaurants took place within the Norwegian fast food industry, with 48 restaurants participating. The managers of the 48 restaurants provided data using a questionnaire with a 7-point Likert-type scale (Ogaard et al., 2005). The analysis included correlational analysis with SPSS (Ogaard et al., 2005).

Ogaard et al.'s (2005) research results identified some weaknesses in the relationship between culture and performance. The results also identified a significant relationship between the individual managers' outcomes and performance within the restaurant industry (Ogaard et al., 2005). Ogaard et al. assessed a positive connection between hierarchy values and individual results. Another finding from the study was the results were weaker than a number of other research outcomes that reported a substantial positive relationship between the work environment and individual outcomes (Ogaard et al., 2005).

Kemp and Dwyer's (2001) study included the qualitative method of triangulation to measure the organizational culture at one hotel in Sydney by using multiple sources of data. Some of the sources were face-to-face interviews and observations of the interactions between

the hotel staff and between the hotel staff and customers. The purpose of using triangulation was to establish validity through shared judgement (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001). According to Kemp and Dwyer, the best source for gathering data was the interviews. Kemp and Dwyer interviewed 45 employees ranging from hotel employees to section managers, where the interviews lasted anywhere from 25 minutes to 1 hour. Kemp and Dwyer indicated the culture in the hotel in Sydney was part of the strategy management was trying to achieve. Length of service also was an indicator of the organizational culture, where the longer employees worked at the hotel, the prouder they were to be associated with the hotel (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001).

Within the limited body of research on values and organizational culture in the hospitality industry, only Tepeci and Bartlett established a mechanism to measure organizational culture and individual values within the hospitality industry (Dawson et al., 2011). The HICP instrument integrates the OCP and value characteristics as well as some additional items for measuring customers' values, honesty, and ethics. Tepeci and Bartlett's HICP was able to measure the fit between an organization's culture and its employees' values regarding job satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Dawson et al., 2011).

One of the limitations of the study conducted by Tepeci and Bartlett was that all the participants were hospitality students who had little work experience (Dawson et al., 2011). Tepeci and Bartlett were also not able to address the dependent variables job satisfaction and intent to quit, as 64% of those surveyed were not working at the time they took the survey (Dawson et al., 2011). The researchers behind these studies addressed and identified cultures in the hospitality industry as well as individual values; however, none of these researchers had studied the exclusive perspective of the hospitality industry in southeastern Georgia.

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) studied and measured POF in the hospitality industry using the quantitative research methodology. Tepeci and Bartlett's study participants were 182 upper-class college students majoring in hospitality management. One hundred and eighteen of the students worked in the hospitality industry and answered the questionnaire regarding their current employers in the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The HICP consisted of 40 items that included 10 factors with four items each (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The breakdown of the participants' work categories were as follows: 56% worked in restaurants, 25% worked in hotels and lodging, 8% worked in food service, and 11% worked in other sectors of the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The survey data were entered into SPSS, where Tepeci and Bartlett conducted factor analyses, reliability assessment, and hierarchical regression analyses to study the relationships between the dependent and the independent variables. The results from Tepeci and Bartlett's HICP exploratory factor analyses showed an eight-dimension configuration of perceived hospitality organization culture. The results also indicated that culture is distinctive and precise to hospitality but is only generalizable to hotels and restaurants within the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

While examining organizational culture and the effects of characteristics on organizations, Chatman and Jehn (1994) discovered that employees who work on the same task generally use similar procedures and opportunities. Researchers have studied and measured the hospitality industry using different instruments and populations. Research on the hospitality industry as a whole is limited compared to studies specifically on the restaurant sector (Ogaard et al., 2005) and the hotel sector (Kemp & Dwyer, 2001). The proposed study will involve

gathering data within the entire spectrum of the hospitality industry in one specific geographical location.

Individual Values

Individual values are associated with organizations and their employees; however, organizational cultures do not always reflect employees' individual values. Individual values are the foundations of goals that are important to people in their lives, as such values direct people's decisions, conduct, and perceptions (Parks-Leduc, Feldman, & Bardi, 2015). Parks-Leduc et al.'s (2015) core study involved using a meta-analytic method. To search for articles, Parks-Leduc et al. (2015) used key words in major electronic databases, including *personality*, *traits*, and *values*. Parks-Leduc et al.'s (2015) original search produced 88 possible research studies. It was important for the articles to include a correlation matrix (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). The meta-analysis had 60 research studies, which included 29 published articles, 25 unpublished data sets, one book chapter, two data sets retrieved from conference presentations, and three dissertations (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015).

Parks-Leduc et al., (2015) indicated individuals in hierarchies structure individual values of importance from top to bottom; as such, individual values differ from person to person. Values also motivate people (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). How people acquire individual values has to do with elements of their backgrounds, such as their culture, their education, how they were raised, and their life experiences (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015).

Schwartz (1992) described how values consistently relate to other motivational goals. Schwartz theorized that individual values are organized, are the foundation of how people make decisions, and are therefore a major factor in people's behaviors and attitudes. The theory of

basic values identifies 10 values and their motivating effects on individuals. The 10-value inventory and motivations are (a) power associated with social clout, wealth, and authority; (b) achievement such as ambition and competence; (c) hedonism, which includes sensual pleasure, enjoying life, and having fun; (d) stimulation, which involves having stimulating experiences and an exciting life; (e) self-direction, as in having creativity, independence, and freedom in thought and action; (f) universalism, including social justice, equality, and the promotion of all people; (g) benevolence, or loyalty, honesty, helpfulness, and the promotion of those who are close; (h) conformity, which involves having self-discipline and being obedient; (i) tradition and one's respect for it; and (j) security and safety for everyone, security for the family, and social order (Schwartz, 1992).

Individual values influence people's attitudes and behaviors (Boer & Fischer, 2013). Human resource professionals who want to retain employees and reduce turnover should understand that organizational cultural values should not conflict with the values of individual employees. When a conflict exists in values between the organization and the workers, there could be a change in the attitude and behavior of the employees (Boer & Fischer, 2013). Values are gained when individuals work and live with each other over time. For hiring officials, this may be of particular interest as they seek to understand values and the ways they motivate individuals (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015).

Parks-Leduc et al. (2015) noted that individual values are the foundations of goals that are important to people in their lives and that these values direct people's decisions, conduct, and perceptions. Values are motivators for individuals and helping guide how individuals act, dress, and interact with others, including those with whom they work (Boer & Fischer, 2013; Parks-

Leduc et al., 2015). Human resource managers should be aware of which values they are seeking and displaying when it comes to the relationship between the organization and individuals within it.

Measuring Individual Values

Researchers have used many instruments to measure values, such as the Schwartz Value Survey (SVS), the Big Five Inventory, the International Personality Item Pool, the Ten Item Personality Inventory, and the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ). The SVS has 56 value items that survey participants rate on a scale from 0 to 9 based on the guiding principles in their own lives (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). The PVQ has 40 value items that are descriptive and rated on a 6-point scale (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). Parks-Leduc et al. (2015) noted that researchers had conducted 30 studies using the SVS and 18 using the PVQ. Researchers have used quantitative methodologies such as the following to collect and analyze data: (a) the SWV (Wollack et al., 1971), (b) the Meaning and Value of Work Scale Values (Kazanas, 1978), (c) the Organizational Values Congruence Scale (Enz, 1986), (d) the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Meglino et al., 1989), (5) the OCP (O'Reilly et al., 1991), and (6) the HICP (Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The values measured by these instruments do not relate individual values to organizational values in a way that will address how to consider fit.

Person-Organization Fit

Researchers have pervasively applied POF theory in different disciplines, such as human resources, industrial and organizational psychology, and organizational behavior (Cha, Chang, & Kim, 2014; Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996). Many factors make up an organization and its relationship with people. Many factors such as personality, the abilities of workers, and job

requirements affect behavior within an organization; however, one fundamental behavior-shaping trait remains between the organization and the workforce: their values (Chatman, 1989).

Person–organization fit is the similarity between the goals of individuals and those of their organization (Tugal & Kilic, 2015). Researchers defined POF as the similarity that occurs between an organization and its people when one provides what the other needs or desires or when they share similar key traits (Cha et al., 2014; Kristof, 1996; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Chatman (1989) defined POF as the similarity between the norms and values of organizations and those of their people. The importance of POF within an organization is that employees' degree of perceived fit within the organization correlates to healthier work attitudes and behaviors (Cha et al., 2014).

In studies of POF, researchers have associated fit with many outcomes between an individual and an organization. Researchers have linked POF with employee turnover (DelCampo, 2006); stress (Arbour et al., 2014); organizational attraction (Auger, Devinney, Dowling, Eckert, & Lin, 2013; K. Yang & Yu, 2014); job satisfaction and performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014); commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover (Alniacik et al., 2013); job attitudes and behaviors (Tugal & Kilic, 2015), and cultural strength (DelCampo, 2006). Although researchers have studied POF for various reasons, it is important to note that the hospitality industry as a whole has not been the object of a substantial amount of research and literature to add to the body of POF knowledge.

In their quantitative study of POF and the theory of work adjustment (TWA), in their seminal work, Bretz and Judge (1994) examined the implications of POF for satisfaction and career success. Bretz and Judge incorporated 651 graduates from the industrial relations

program at a large Midwestern university. The measurement for job satisfaction used the G. M. Faces Scale where the participants circle one of six faces ranging from happy to sad (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Although researchers have questioned the reliability of a single-item instrument, they deemed it suitable to use when participants must rate their own level of satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Bretz and Judge assumed that employees who fit well within an organization would be successful (Bretz & Judge, 1994). In contrast, those who did not fit in with the organization would be less likely to succeed (Bretz & Judge, 1994). To analyze the results of the data, Bretz and Judge used confirmatory factor analysis on work perceptions and individual preferences.

Bretz and Judge (1994) noted that individuals needed to be concerned about the degree to which they fit into their organizations, as fit correlates to higher degrees of satisfaction and extrinsic success. Furthermore, human resource professionals might consider choosing applicants based on fit (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Bretz and Judge indicated fit leads to higher degrees of satisfaction and a contented workforce.

The TWA suggests that people and environments force requirements on one another. Although researchers have primarily used the TWA to study person–occupation fit, it can also apply to POF (Bretz & Judge, 1994). According to the TWA, individuals determine their job satisfaction through a personal, subjective assessment of the degree to which the work setting meets their requirements (Bretz & Judge, 1994).

In their quantitative correlational study of the significant impact of POF on job choice decisions, Cable and Judge (1996) incorporated the attraction element of Schneider’s ASA model. Cable and Judge studied 35 organizations recruiting for 320 full-time workers and paid

interns in the industrial relations school at a large northern university. Recruiters received invitations to participate in the study, and 20 recruiters representing 18 organizations responded to the request. Five hundred and six job seekers were interviewed for positions within the 18 organizations, with 320 job seekers completing the survey (Cable & Judge, 1996). Cable and Judge used multiple regression analysis to observe the job seekers' perceptions.

To measure the organizations' values, Cable and Judge (1996) used the OCP for their study, as the OCP was developed to measure POF. Cable and Judge indicated a correlation existed between turnover intention and organizational commitment that was similar to the results of past studies by Chapman and O'Reilly et al. Cable and Judge concluded that human resource professionals, specifically when recruiting, should be conscious of the values they are projecting to job seekers about the organization. According to Cable and Judge, POF is predictive of work attitudes, and human resource professionals should be mindful of the accuracy of the information given to job seekers.

Tugal and Kilic's (2015) POF core study of the relationship between perceived POF levels and job attitudes in Turkey used a quantitative research method. Surveys were sent to college professors who worked for state universities in Turkey. Seven hundred and twenty-five professors worked at those universities; 276 were randomly selected, and 210 submitted usable questionnaires (Tugal & Kilic, 2015). To measure POF, Tugal and Kilic (2015) used a self-reporting method to evaluate how the college professors perceived the level of fit between themselves and their university. Tugal and Kilic used SPSS to analyze the data. Correlation and regression analyses were used to test the relationship between perceived POF levels and job attitudes (Tugal & Kilic, 2015).

Tugal and Kilic (2015) revealed a strong association between POF and individuals' intent to quit, as well as individuals' commitment to the organization. The research also showed that a high POF resulted in a closer congruence between the values of the college professors and the values of the universities, which in turn resulted in higher job performance and job satisfaction (Tugal & Kilic, 2015). Person–organization fit research has resulted in some debate about POF conceptualization, measurement and use (Arbour et al., 2014). Some researchers have observed that scholars and practitioners disagree on how to measure POF (Arbour et al., 2014). Nonetheless, POF does have a positive relationship with job satisfaction and commitment to the organization and reduces the intention to leave.

Researchers have carried out an abundance of studies on the many approaches to or conceptualizations of POF (Cable & Judge, 1996; Cha et al., 2014; Kristof, 1996; K. Yang & Yu, 2014). These researchers have described multiple approaches, which include supplementary fit, complementary fit, needs-supplies, and demands-abilities (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The first set of distinctions is between supplementary fit and complementary fit.

Supplementary Fit and Complementary Fit

Supplementary fit involves a person's perceived fit with others based on sharing the same values, beliefs, and interests (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Supeli & Creed, 2014). Supplementary fit is similar to joining a fraternity, sorority, social club, or service organization. Supplementary fit exists when a person fits into his or her environment by possessing traits similar to those of others in the same environment (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Supeli & Creed, 2014).

Complementary fit occurs when a person complements the traits and characteristics of the environment he or she is in (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Supeli & Creed, 2014). The person makes the environment whole, whereas the environment would be lacking if the person were not bringing his or her traits to it (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). An example of complementary fit occurs between a manager and an employee. There would not be complementary fit if there were two managers and no employees; the same would hold true if the organization had no managers and two employees. For complementary fit to exist, there must be complementary traits and characteristics between two people.

Another perspective on POF involves needs-supplies and demand-abilities. Needs-supplies occur when an organization supplies a person's wants and needs (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Demands-abilities occur when the organization makes demands and individuals meet and satisfy the requirements due to their abilities (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Mehtap and Alniacik (2014) examined the impact that supplementary and complementary fit has on perceptual commitment by employees. Mehtap and Alniacik (2014) used the qualitative research method by distributing an online survey to collect data. Two hundred and twenty-four participants were selected through convenience sampling. The survey participants were employed in multiple industries ranging from higher education to services and construction in Turkey (Mehtap & Alniacik, 2014). The survey data were then coded, and the data analysis was conducted using SPSS (Mehtap & Alniacik, 2014). To test the hypotheses, regression analyses was used (Mehtap & Alniacik, 2014).

To measure the supplementary and complementary fit, Mehtap and Alniacik (2014) used a survey instrument comprised of six items that measured perceived similarity and nine items that measured complementary fit. The survey participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale on their level of agreement to the survey questions (Mehtap & Alniacik, 2014). A regression analysis indicated that both supplementary and complementary fit had a substantial effect on POF (Mehtap & Alniacik, 2014). Mehtap and Alniacik also indicated that supplementary fit does have a higher influence on POF when compared to complementary fit.

Mehtap and Alniacik (2014) used a 5-point Likert-type survey instrument, whereas Guan, Deng, Risavy, Bond, and Li (2011) used a 7-point Likert-type scale for their quantitative research instrument. Guan et al.'s survey participants were bank employees working in China. Guan et al. explored if employees' self-construal had an effect on supplementary and complementary fit with work-related outcomes such as commitment and organizational conduct.

An e-mail was sent to all 695 employees requesting that they voluntarily participate in the anonymous survey (Guan et al., 2011). The number of complete surveys returned and used for the study was 370. To decide if supplementary and complementary fit were distinct concepts, a confirmatory factor analyses was used (Guan et al., 2011). The results indicated that both supplementary and complementary fit positively related to commitment (Guan et al., 2011).

Measuring POF

Researchers can measure POF either directly or indirectly. Those employing direct POF assume that fit exists only if employees perceive that it exists. As direct fit is perceived, it does not matter whether employees' values are comparable with those of the organization (Tepeci, 2001). Two ways of measuring POF are by perceived fit and by preferred fit.

Kristof (1996) identified that, at the time, there were a large number of nonempirical studies and an inadequate number of studies that used different variables, so it was not feasible to conduct a meta-analysis. Kristof used two criteria when selecting research studies. The first criterion was articles that investigated the fit between the person and the organization by searching using electronic databases (Kristof, 1996). The second criterion was using only empirical studies using measurement or the link between the individual and organization variables (Kristof, 1996).

Perceived Fit

Researchers can measure perceived fit by asking workers if they believe that fit exists between their individual values and the values of the organization (Kwok, 2012; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). Because the employees fill out the questionnaire and then make comparisons between their level of fit or their values and those of the organization, using perceived measurement is a simple way of measuring fit or congruence (Enz, 1988; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). Perceived fit measurements allow researchers to calculate value fit or congruence at a perceptual level (Enz, 1988). Kristof (1996) contended that, with perceived fit measurements, it is imperative to ensure the questions asked are clearly defined in terms of what the values are. These definitions can then be considered in the employees' answers; this way, the answers are measured based on the same definitions.

Preferred Fit

Preferred fit is grounded in the equal measurement of an individual's values and the values of the organization (Cable & Judge, 1996; Kristof, 1996; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The measurements are then separated on the same content for comparison. Kristof (1996) explained

that preferred fit measurement contains a clear comparison between the employees' answers concerning the individual values and the values of the organization. Preferred fit measurement reflects actual fit, as the supportable assessment of comparison does not solicit implicit conclusions of fit (Kristof, 1996).

POF in the Hospitality Industry

Researchers have indicated that human resource managers are finding it difficult to find employees to fill open positions (Meyers, Van Woerkom, & Dries, 2013; Sullivan, 2012). The unemployment rate in the United States is at 4.9%; in Southeast Georgia, the unemployment rate is at 5.8%; and in the leisure and hospitality industry in the United States, the unemployment rate is at 6.6% (U.S Department of Labor, 2016).

A survey conducted by researchers for the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) between December 16, 2013, and January 16, 2014, of 3,335 human resource professionals revealed that the leaders of 46% of organizations in accommodation and food services, namely in the hospitality industry, had found it difficult to recruit for full-time positions in the last 12 months (SHRM, 2014). The SHRM survey also identified that the main reason for the difficulty in finding full-time employees was competition from other employers (SHRM, 2014).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is particularly important for employers, as it is one of the qualities organizations strive to imbue in their employees, as job satisfaction has been directly linked to job performance and productivity (Tugal & Kilic, 2015). Job satisfaction refers to employees' level of contentment with the work they perform and with their jobs (Farooqui & Nagendra,

2014). Job satisfaction also refers to a judgment by employees, either positive or negative, of their jobs or job situations (Tepeci, 2001). Hospitality employers who understood the principles of job satisfaction would assist hospitality managers in choosing strategies that would improve job satisfaction and retention while reducing turnover (Tepeci, 2001).

Employee job satisfaction has been linked to absenteeism and turnover rates (Frooman, Mendelson, & Murphy, 2012; Marzec et al., 2011). When job satisfaction is high, employee absenteeism and turnover is reduced (Frooman et al., 2012). In contrast, when employee job satisfaction is low, absenteeism and turnover increase as employees leave the organization (Frooman et al., 2012).

Pelit, Ozturk, and Arslanturk (2011) examined the impact employee empowerment had on job satisfaction. A quantitative research methodology involved participants responding to a questionnaire to collect the required data (Pelit et al., 2011). After the surveys were returned, the data were analyzed using correlation and regression analyses (Pelit et al., 2011).

The population in Pelit et al.'s (2011) study consisted of employees who worked in five-star hotels in Turkey. Pelit et al. noted that the study population was spread out over a large geographical area, so they chose a sample of two hotels in one town and all the hotels in two other cities. The two hotels in one town were chosen because they were in resort towns, while the other five-star hotels were in the two most important cities in Turkey (Pelit et al., 2011).

The participants from the resort hotels returned 1175 questionnaires (Pelit et al., 2011). The participants from the five-star hotels in the two important Turkish cities returned 764 surveys. After rejecting questionnaires for incomplete data, there were 1,854 usable questionnaires for the study (Pelit et al., 2011). To measure job satisfaction, Pelit et al. (2011)

used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure 20 items. The MSQ uses a 5-point Likert-type scale and identifies employees' satisfaction with their present working conditions. Pelit et al. (2011) noted that organizational culture had a positive impact on job satisfaction by creating relationships with coworkers and the physical environment.

Researchers conducted other studies on job satisfaction within the hospitality industry (Ineson et al., 2013; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Lowry, Simon, & Kimberley, 2002). Ineson et al.'s (2013) study on job satisfaction within the Hungarian hotel industry used a quantitative research methodology with a 5-point Likert-type survey instrument to clarify and prompt survey participants for detailed information regarding their perceived loyalty with their current organization (Ineson et al., 2013). Ineson et al. (2013) collected data from over 100 hotels in Hungary, which resulted in 662 responses to the survey. After the surveys were processed using SPSS, the principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted, which resulted in a sample size of 451. Ineson et al. (2013) concluded that employee job satisfaction levels are expressed through turnover rates caused by many factors, including low wages and benefits and poor working conditions.

The ability to retain quality workers is a strategic component of success for organizations (Alniacik et al., 2013). An abundance of literature and evidence shows that job satisfaction and organizational culture increase the worker retention rate and minimize turnover (Alniacik et al., 2013; Christiansen, Sliter, & Frost, 2014; Khalilzadeh, Del Chiappa, Jafari, & Borujeni, 2013). From an employee perspective, job satisfaction incorporates factors such as policies and procedures, salary and work-life balance, and supervisors and managers. Job satisfaction is the perceived difference between what employees expect from their jobs and what they actually get

from their jobs (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014). For an organization in the hospitality industry to remain competitive, effective management of employees and the culture is necessary to reduce employee turnover (J. Yang et al., 2012).

Turnover Intention

Scholars and practitioners alike have conducted comprehensive research on employee turnover to such an extent that it has indicated the importance to organizational behaviorists, managers, and human resource professionals (Memon, Salleh, Baharom, & Harun, 2014). Employee turnover has become such a vibrant research topic that more than 1,500 academic researchers have addressed the phenomenon (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). From a business perspective, understanding how to retain talented employees should be a priority.

With such a high turnover rate in the hospitality industry, the costs associated with the loss of employees in general, and of experienced employees in particular, should have human resource professionals looking at their organizational culture and POF. Based on employees' levels of responsibility, the cost of employees leaving an organization can be as high as 200% of the total compensation package of the employee (Dusek, Ruppel, Yurova, & Clarke, 2014).

The costs of turnover in the hospitality industry should be important to human resource professionals. The costs associated with turnover include the direct cost as well as indirect costs, such as loss of production, lower performance levels, and low morale (Jang & George, 2012). Jang and George (2012) conducted a study in two hotels using quantitative research methodology. After a pilot study of 50 nonsupervisors was conducted, the survey questions were reworded. Jang and George (2012) sent 300 questionnaires to one hotel and 1,400 to the other, for 1,700 total questionnaires distributed to the human resources directors of the two hotels. The

division managers gave the questionnaires to nonsupervisors with their paychecks. Of the 1,700 surveys distributed, 609 surveys were returned and used for the study (Jang & George, 2012). Jang and George (2012) used SPSS to analyze the descriptive statistics. Jang and George (2012) also used confirmatory factor analysis to measure the model analysis and structural equation modeling to test the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Jang and George (2012) noted the hidden costs of turnover, such as customer dissatisfaction due to the performance or attitude of disgruntled employees before they quit, go unreported and remain off the books.

Practitioners and the academic community have agreed that turnover is costly to an organization. The organizational resources needed to advertise, recruit, interview, hire, and train new employees are a cost that human resource professionals strive to reduce (Dusek et al., 2014). When employees leave an organization, they take with them tacit knowledge, and it will take time to recoup that knowledge.

Employees' dissatisfaction with their jobs and with the organizational culture influence a high turnover rate (AlBattat & Som, 2013). AlBattat and Som (2013) reviewed existing literature within the hospitality industry on employee dissatisfaction and the factors that cause turnover in the industry. AlBattat and Som (2013) studied workers in the Malaysian hospitality industry using the Mobley model, which considers seven stages of employee turnover. The seven stages of employee turnover are (a) dissatisfaction with the job, which can lead employees to start thinking of leaving; (b) assessing the benefits of searching for a new job; (c) pondering the cost of leaving; (d) starting to search for a new job; (e) evaluating the acceptability of the

new job; (f) comparing and evaluating the current job against the new job; and (g) leaving, which creates turnover (AlBattat & Som, 2013).

In a quantitative core study of the hospitality industry, Lub, Bijvank, Bal, Blomme, and Schalk (2012) asked whether younger generations had higher turnover intention. Lub et al. gave surveys with a 5-point Likert-type scale to 1,059 employees working for a Dutch hotel chain in 20 four-star hotels in both rural and urban locations. Participants returned 358 usable surveys for a response rate of 34%. The sample statistics accurately represented the Dutch hotel population (Lub et al., 2012). The data were analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance. The results of the study pertaining to the research question about younger workers having a higher turnover intention were positive (Lub et al., 2012). The younger generation had higher levels of turnover intention than older generations (Lub et al., 2012). Lub et al. concluded that workers of different generations had different values and therefore had different organizational expectations with regard to values.

Rondeau and Wagar (2012) conducted a quantitative study of turnover intentions in the health care industry. Rondeau and Wagar mailed questionnaires to 2,008 hospitals in the 10 provinces and three territories of Canada. To qualify for the study, the hospitals had to have 25 or more patient beds. Participants returned 713 surveys and, after the incomplete surveys were removed, a total of 705 questionnaires were deemed complete and were used (Rondeau & Wagar, 2012). Rondeau and Wagar determined that health care organizations that had lower turnover levels also had adopted high-involvement work practices (Rondeau & Wagar, 2012). The organization's culture is proportional to turnover. Health care organizations have high-

involvement work practices to reduce turnover and to serve as a retention strategy (Rondeau & Wagar, 2012).

Karatepe (2013) used the quantitative research methodology to study high-performance work practices in four- and five-star hotels in Iran. For his sample, Karatepe selected frontline employees, which referred to those who worked at the front desk, in guest relations, as door attendants, and as food servers. Two hundred and seventy surveys were conducted during two different time periods; each period had a cutoff date. In all, participants returned 388 complete and usable questionnaires (Karatepe, 2013). The work and the social support had a greater impact on job embeddedness than high-performance work practices (Karatepe, 2013). This finding added validity to reducing turnover intentions because of the informal connections employees have with their coworkers and supervisors that are visible throughout the organization (Karatepe, 2013).

Measuring Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

Competition with other employers in the hospitality industry is one of the main reasons employers are finding it difficult to hire and retain full-time employees. Researchers at SHRM (2014) developed a survey that 3,335 human resource professionals used between December 16, 2013 and January 16, 2014. The survey revealed that leaders in 46% of organizations in accommodation and food services, namely in the hospitality industry, had found it difficult to fill full-time positions in the previous 12 months (SHRM, 2014). As identified earlier, the main reason for the difficulty in finding full-time employees was the competition of other employers (SHRM, 2014).

In a study of job satisfaction and turnover, Zopiatis, Constanti, and Theocharous (2014) used the MSQ Short Form. Zopiatis et al. used the MSQ Short Form to measure job satisfaction by measuring both intrinsic and extrinsic elements. The MSQ Short Form asked participants to rate their level of job satisfaction on 18 characteristics using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The intrinsic elements included the individual workers' feelings about the nature of their job tasks, while the extrinsic elements were separate from work tasks but included working conditions and salaries (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Zopiatis et al. (2014) sent out 1,500 questionnaires over a 6-month period to full-time employees working in three- through five-star hotels in Cyprus. Participants returned 482 questionnaires validated as complete, for a 32.13% response rate (Zopiatis et al., 2014). Zopiatis et al. observed that a substantial negative relationship existed only between turnover intention and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction had neither a positive nor a negative relationship with turnover intention (Zopiatis et al., 2014).

Another method of measuring job satisfaction is the Job Descriptive Index, which measures five characteristics: (a) work, such as responsibilities, work growth, and interest; (b) quality of supervision, such as employee technical assistance; (c) relationships with coworkers, respect given and received, and social harmony; (d) promotion opportunities; and (e) pay and compensation (Khalilzadeh et al., 2013). The Job Descriptive Index includes those five characteristics, and the index contains 72 items and has been popular among researchers measuring job satisfaction (Khalilzadeh et al., 2013).

Intent to Quit

For human resource professionals, understanding and exploring what influences individual employees and the phenomena associated with the intent to quit may have a significant impact on the hospitality industry. Employees' levels of job satisfaction and the way employees feel about their commitment to their organizations has a significant impact on their intention to quit. To remain competitive, organizations should include reducing employees' well-developed intention to quit in their strategy.

In the hospitality industry, the biggest competitors are other hospitality organizations (SHRM, 2014). Human resource professionals are working hard to develop ways to reduce the loss of talented and experienced employees (P. Ghosh et al., 2013; Juhdi et al., 2013). Losing good, quality employees can have a negative impact on an organization through loss of productivity and, at times, quality.

Juhdi et al.'s (2013) core quantitative study of 42 organizations in the Klang Valley in Malaysia included a study of 19 firms in banking, insurance, and finance, as well as 10 colleges and universities. Juhdi et al. distributed 497 questionnaires, and participants returned 457 complete and usable surveys. For the survey instrument, Juhdi et al. used a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (for strongly disagree) to 5 (for strongly agree). Data analysis involved using principle axis factoring with varimax rotation (Juhdi et al., 2013).

Juhdi et al. (2013) concluded that POF was the strongest predictor of organizational commitment. Juhdi et al. noted that human resource staff during the recruitment and hiring phases should evaluate applicants' skills and abilities and find the right job fit. Juhdi et al.

explained that, to reduce the intention to quit, human resource managers should take applicants' values into consideration, not just their skills and their abilities to perform the tasks.

In a core study of the hospitality industry in India, Gill, Mathur, Sharma, and Bhutani (2011) identified the lack of dignity felt by employees as one of the leading factors in employees' intention to quit. In India, Indians look at hospitality workers as if they could not do better or as if they deserve nothing else (Gill et al., 2011). In contrast, the same positions in Western cultures are viewed as decent jobs or even as careers (Gill et al., 2011).

Gill et al. (2011) used a quantitative research methodology by using a survey questionnaire and a descriptive field study. The sample included restaurant service employees in fast- and full-service restaurants in the Punjab area of India (Gill et al., 2011). Gillet al. mailed out 700 surveys, and participants returned 188 complete and usable surveys. The data were analyzed using a principle component rotation and a varimax rotation along with a confirmatory factor analysis (Gill et al., 2011). Measures of central tendency, variance, skewness, and kurtosis were conducted (Gill et al., 2011).

In the findings of their study, Gill et al. (2011) revealed that empowerment and transformational leadership in the Indian hospitality industry reduced employees' perceptions and judgments with the intent to quit. Gill et al. concluded that managers and supervisors needed to (a) communicate more with their employees; (b) provide consistent training and coaching to the employees; (c) listen more; (d) learn to respect the employees and take into account the employees' feelings; and (e) consistently work to overcome barriers such as communication and cultural barriers, staff shortages, and employees' lack of understanding of the organizational mission and goals.

Businesses and human resource personnel should be keenly aware of the impact dissatisfied employees have on operations. Satisfied employees perform their jobs better than dissatisfied employees (Dusek et al., 2014). The hospitality industry necessitates continued contact between workers and customers, either at the front desk, in food service, or through housecleaning. When employees voluntarily leave at a high rate, leaders should evaluate several factors, such as the organizational culture, individual values, and fit between the organization and the individuals within it (Juhdi et al., 2013).

Chapter Summary

To gain a competitive advantage, human resource staff must understand the relationship that their organizations have with potential applicants, current employees, and those individuals who have left (Alniacik et al., 2013; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Human resource managers in the hospitality industry should pay particular attention to how others outside of the organization view the culture within the organization if they want to attract, hire, and retain quality workers (Jang & George, 2012; J. Yang, 2010).

Although previous researchers on POF have focused on employee turnover (DelCampo, 2006); stress (Arbour et al., 2014); organizational attraction (K. Yang & Yu, 2014); job satisfaction and performance (Farooqui & Nagendra, 2014); commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover (Alniacik et al., 2013); job attitudes and behaviors (Tugal & Kilic, 2015); and cultural strength (DelCampo, 2006), POF also has a significant impact on recruitment and retention (K. Yang & Yu, 2014). Lub et al. (2012) identified individual values, culture, and reducing turnover intention as important elements of POF. Different generations of workers have different values. Values motivate individuals (Parks-Leduc et al., 2015). The significance of this study is that it

may help human resource professionals in the hospitality industry to have a better understanding of POF and organizational culture.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational study was to assess the relationships between employees' perceptions related to organizational culture, employee job satisfaction, employee intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for specific demographics. The researcher used the HICP to gather data related to the variables of interest from full-time employees working in the hospitality industry in Georgia. Chapter 3 includes a description of the approach and structure for the proposed study; a justification for the selected research methodology and design; and the target population, sample, and setting. The chapter also includes discussions on instrumentation, measures, data collection, and data analysis to illuminate the link between the data and the way the researcher used the data to answer the research questions. The validity, reliability, and ethical considerations helped to develop an understanding of the efforts extended to ensure reliable results and to protect participants during the study.

Design and Methodology

The study was a quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational study. In this study, the researcher investigated the relationships between the independent variables (i.e., employees' perceived culture and employees' preferred culture) and the dependent variables (i.e., employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization), while controlling for specific demographics. The researcher administered an online survey to gather data from hospitality employees in Georgia. The researcher used the numerical data to conduct regression analysis to determine if significant relationships exist between the independent variables and the dependent variables, while controlling for the selected demographic variables.

A quantitative methodology was suitable when the researcher conducted an objective measurement regarding behavior, opinions, and attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Tepeci (2011) contended the precise features of fit, whether perceived or preferred, could influence change in organizational culture, along with new policies and procedures. These changes within the organization may have a significant effect on job satisfaction, intent to remain, and recommending the organization as a good place to work. A quantitative approach is appropriate when the purpose of the research is to investigate relationships between variables that are measureable using numerical data (Howell, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The researcher selected a quantitative approach for the study because of its alignment with the intended analysis of numerical data related to employees' perceptions, behavior, and attitudes to test relationships between variables. The quantitative methodology was the most suitable for the research. This approach aligns with the aims of the research questions, which required statistical analysis to investigate the presence of relationships among the variables.

Using a regression design allowed for an examination of relationships between variables (George & Mallery, 2010), which was the focus of the proposed study. Through regressions, researchers can analyze the degree of association between two interdependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Regression techniques allow for a measurement of the relationship between measurable variables, specifically when no control of some of the research variables exists (Lappe, 2000). Because the researcher did not manipulate the variables under investigation, a regression approach was most suitable for the study. A regression design is appropriate when developing experimental groups of participants within the study is not feasible.

Additionally, because of this lack of a control or treatment group in the study, the research can best be categorized as a nonexperimental study.

Population and Sampling

The target population for this study was full-time employees, who were actively working in the hospitality industry in Georgia. This population was suitable because of its unique experience in the hospitality industry that rendered them able to provide insight that may influence turnover. The researcher selected Georgia, because of the prevalence of hospitality organizations in the area. The target population represented various segments of the local hospitality industry. The researcher recruited a diverse group of individuals for participation because the researcher intends to develop an understanding of POF for the hospitality industry in general and not a specific segment.

The researcher used nonprobability convenience sampling to secure a sample of participants who represented the target population. Convenience sampling refers to a sampling that comprises a group of individuals who either volunteer to participate or are easily recruited to participate (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). This sampling was implemented because it provides the most feasible way to recruit members of the target population to participate in online surveys. The generalizability of the findings may be limited because the researcher will not use a probability sampling method, in which all members of the population have an equal chance of inclusion in the study. Because there was not single a organization in existence in which the researcher had equal access to all members of the target population, a convenience sampling method was the most suitable for the proposed study.

G*Power Version 3.1.9.2 was used to calculate the required sample size to achieve statistical validity for the proposed study. Multiple linear regression was the analysis method that was employed within this research. Considering a medium effect size of .15, a significance level of .05, nine predictors, and a statistical power of .80, the minimum sample size for the regression analysis was 114 participants. The researcher attempted to recruit a sample of at least 114 participants for inclusion in the proposed study to enhance the validity of the results.

The researcher sent the recruitment correspondence through e-mail to the main office of the Tourism Leadership Council. A representative at the Tourism Leadership Council then forwarded the e-mail containing a SurveyMonkey link with the consent form to all members of the Tourism Leadership Council. The e-mail asked all full-time employees to participate in the survey. For employees who did not have an e-mail address on file, a copy of the recruitment email was provided in an e-mail to all business members to post on their employee bulletin boards with the link to the survey.

The demographic variables were also the control variables. The demographic variables are sex, age, marital status, length of time working in their present organization, education level, average hours worked per week, job title, and previous industry employer. Excluded from this study were employees under the age of 18. Another exclusion to the study was part-time employees.

Setting

The hospitality industry in Georgia, was be suitable for the study. The researcher contacted the president of the Tourism Leadership Council and spoke at length about the proposed study. During the interview, retaining quality employees was a reoccurring topic of the

discussion. Also mentioned during the discussion was the inability of employers to measure the culture of the organization and determine whether the culture contributed to employees' job satisfaction within the hospitality industry.

The sponsoring organization was the Tourism Leadership Council, which was the largest trade organization in southeastern Georgia. It has been difficult for the Tourism Leadership Council to attract and maintain employees in the competitive local context. By sponsoring this research on organizational culture and POF, the sponsoring organization may benefit by using the findings to develop targeted initiatives to reduce turnover. The results of the study may provide human resource managers in the organization with a better understanding of their employees' perceptions of organizational culture and a measure to determine POF.

Data Collection

Upon receiving Institutional Review Board approval, recruitment correspondence containing instructions to participate, cover letter, and informed consent was sent to potential participants through the research site's electronic mailing list. Any employees not on the organization's electronic mailing list received the recruitment correspondence to provide them the opportunity to see the recruitment correspondence flier posted on a bulletin board. The recruitment correspondence contained information about the intent and purpose of the survey, the time needed to complete the survey, the instructions and an example of how to complete the survey, and a notice of participant confidentiality. All participants were notified that the survey was voluntary and that they were able to opt out of the survey at any time while participating in the study. The informed consent included contact information for the researcher and Capella University (see Appendix D).

The recruitment correspondence also contained a link to the survey, which was administered through SurveyMonkey. Barnham (2012) noted quantitative online data collection permits participants to feel less pressure as they can complete the online survey at a time and place of their choosing. Using the SurveyMonkey website to administer the survey allowed the participants the opportunity to use any computer or their smartphones at their convenience, while providing minimum disruption to participants' schedules. The researcher structured the survey to require responses to survey questions before proceeding to the next item. Allowing participants to complete the survey at their own pace and on their own schedule, and requiring responses to the questions, improved the chances of gathering completed surveys from participants.

After the participants followed the survey link and completed the informed consent, they were directed to the survey. The survey comprised the HICP instrument and demographic questions. Through the instrument, the independent and dependent variables were assessed. At the close of the survey, the researcher closed the survey link and exported the data from SurveyMonkey. An Excel file containing the data was entered into the statistical software for data management and analysis.

Instrumentation

This study used the HICP instrument (see Appendix B) for data collection, developed by Tepeci (2001) and used by Tepeci and Bartlett (2002). Tepeci and Bartlett's implemented the HICP within the restaurant industry, which is a branch of the hospitality and tourism industry. Dawson et al. (2011) noted the HICP instrument is the only instrument that measures organizational culture and individual values in the hospitality industry. Dawson et al. explained

Tepeci and Bartlett did not satisfactorily measure the dependent variables of job satisfaction and intent to quit, as 64% of the participants were not employed at the time of the study. The organizational culture and value dimensions addressed by the instrument are in Table 2.

Table 2

Organizational Culture and Individual Value Dimensions

Perceived Values	Preferred Values
Innovation	Innovation
Attention to detail	Attention to detail
Outcome orientation	Outcome orientation
Aggressiveness	Aggressiveness
Team orientation	Team orientation
Stability	Decisiveness
Respect for people	Supportiveness
	Emphasis on rewards

Note. O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(3), 487-516.

Three pilot studies were conducted on the HICP during the design of the survey instrument (Tepeci, 2001). Tepeci (2001) reduced the number of items from the OCP to represent the values within the restaurant industry to 10 factors. Within the 10 factors developed, five dimensions were representative of both perceived organizational culture and preferred organizational culture (see Table 2): (a) innovation, (b) attention to detail, (c) outcome orientation, (d) aggressiveness, and (e) team orientation (Tepeci, 2001). Stability and respect for people were included on the perceived organizational scale (Tepeci, 2001). Decisiveness, supportiveness, and emphasis on rewards were included on the preferred organizational culture scale (Tepeci, 2001).

On Tepeci's (2001) first pilot study, five dimensions were retained from the OCP for both the perceived and the preferred culture. Tepeci added people orientation, valuing

customers, and honesty and ethics to the instrument specifically for the hospitality industry. The modified instrument consisted of eight dimensions with four items per dimension, for a total of 32 items on the first pilot study. Two hundred and ninety students participated in the first pilot study, with each participant ranking the 32 items on the pilot study twice to reflect perceived and preferred culture. The results of the first pilot study were insignificant, with the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure supporting the rejection of the first pilot study.

Tepeci's (2001) second pilot study was modeled after Meglino et al.'s (1989) study that involved ranking paired comparisons with a Likert-type scale. Tepeci's second pilot study included the same instrument from the first pilot study; however, the instrument was adjusted by adding a 7-point Likert-type scale and formatting to rank a paired comparison of perceived and preferred cultures. One hundred and fifty students evaluated their current organization in the second pilot study (Tepeci, 2001). A factor analysis was conducted on the data that identified six dimensions on the instrument: (a) team and people orientation, (b) innovation, (c) valuing customers, (d) honesty and ethics, (e) attention to detail, and (f) results orientation (Tepeci, 2001). The six factors had reliability between .71 and .92, had a 68% variance among the 32 items, and the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .868 (Tepeci, 2001). The combination of the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure, reliability, and variance was considered evidence of a valid instrument for assessing culture (Tepeci, 2001). The results for honesty and ethics of the second pilot study indicated these factors were very low and not significant (Tepeci, 2001).

The third pilot study Tepeci (2001) conducted was to verify the appropriateness of the format along with the value dimensions measured. The final instrument used a 7-point Likert-

type scale ranging from 1 (*very uncharacteristic*) to 7 (*very characteristic*). The study participants assessed how well the survey items described their current organizations and then described their ideal organization. For the third pilot study, 182 study participants completed the survey. Tepeci noted that the time to complete the survey had decreased by the third pilot study, and participants indicated that the instrument was easy to interpret. Based on the feedback received from the survey participants and the results of the first two pilot studies, three additional dimensions were added to the survey instrument. The three additional dimensions were (a) personal and career development, (b) fair compensation, and (c) empowerment (Tepeci, 2001). The final survey instrument had 40 value items consisting of 10 factors with four items for each factor (Tepeci, 2001). Using the principle components analysis with varimax rotation, eight factors were identified for existing culture dimensions and six factors were developed for desired culture dimensions (Tepeci, 2001). Tepeci's final HICP survey instrument consisted of 36 value items measuring nine individual values and organizational culture dimensions.

Within Section B of the HICP instrument, respondents evaluated the preferred characteristics of their ideal organization. For each of the 36 items, respondents will indicate how desirable that item is for their ideal organization using a 7-point Likert-type scale that ranges from *very undesirable* to *very desirable*. Within Section C of the HICP survey, participants will be asked to evaluate the actual or perceived culture of the current organization. Respondents will indicate desirability of the characteristics using the same 7-point Likert-type scale from Section B of the instrument. Within Section D of the HICP, participants will respond to 11 statements that best represent the participants' feelings about their current organization. Participants will be asked to estimate their perceived POF using three items on a 7-point Likert-

type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The three items measure job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend their organization to their friends as a good place to work.

Hypotheses

H1₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction.

H1_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction.

H2₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction.

H2_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction.

H3₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and intent to remain.

H3_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and intent to remain.

H4₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and intent to remain.

H4_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and intent to remain.

H5₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

H5_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

H6₀: There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

H6_a: There is a statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

Data Analysis

This study followed the analytical design set forth by Tepeci (2001) and Tepeci and Bartlett (2002). SPSS Version 23 was used to analyze the collected data from the survey instruments. Berkman and Reise (2012) noted SPSS gives researchers the capability to manipulate and analyze data and to measure various test statistics. For the proposed study, the researcher will use the regression analysis function to address the hypotheses. SPSS provided the functionality necessary to describe and scale data, including means, standard deviations, and analyses to test statistically significant relationships (Berkman & Reise, 2012). This capability was used to conduct descriptive statistics that provided an overview of participants' responses and trends in the data. Along with the descriptive statistics, the analysis consisted of factor and regression analysis, in addition to a reliability assessment of the instruments used in the research.

There were two independent variables (i.e., employees' perceived culture and employees' preferred culture), three dependent variables (i.e., employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization), and eight controlled demographic variables in the proposed analysis (Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The two independent variables were organization culture (perceived culture) and independent values (preferred culture) (Tepeci,

2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The three dependent variables were job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place work (Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The eight controlled demographic variables were gender, age, marital status, number of hours worked per week, tenure, job position, industry segment (i.e., hotel, restaurant, other), and the industry segment currently employed (Tepeci, 2001; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

To address the research questions, the study included three multiple regression analyses. Multiple linear regression analysis was suitable to investigate the research questions and related hypotheses because the analysis facilitates an assessment of predictive relationships among variables (Field, 2013). Multiple linear regression is suitable when researchers intend to measure the associations among a set of dichotomous or ratio-level independent variables and a ratio- or interval-level dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In regression analysis, the *F* test is used to assess if the regression model containing the selected independent variables provides a statistically significant prediction of the dependent variables (Pagano, 2010). The multiple regression coefficient of determination (i.e., R^2) indicated the amount of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the model containing the independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This analysis was appropriate for the study because the researcher intended to determine if there were statistically significant relationships between the dependent variables and the individual predictors. By assessing the significance of the model, the researcher was able to determine if perceived culture and preferred culture account for a statistically significant amount of variance in job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization. The multiple regression analysis, as presented in SPSS Version 23, also includes a *t* test to determine the significance of individual predictors (Pallant, 2010). This analysis allows

researchers to determine the extent of prediction of the dependent variable from each independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Within the study, this enabled the researcher to investigate the individual hypotheses.

Validity and Reliability

Tepeci and Bartlett (2002) and Tepeci (2011) investigated if employees' perceived and preferred organizational culture influenced employees' behavioral intentions. Tepeci and Bartlett's study participants were 182 upper-class college students majoring in hospitality management. The 118 students worked in the hospitality industry and answered the questionnaire on their current employer in the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). The breakdown of the participants' work categories was as follows: 56% worked in restaurants, 25% worked in hotels and lodging, 8% worked in food service, and 11% worked in other sectors of the hospitality industry (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

Several other researchers that have conducted studies in the hospitality industry have used quantitative research methods to measure the cultural and organizational values within the hospitality industry. The continued testing and refining of measuring instruments such as Tepeci's (2001) HICP results in a vital quantitative research method that benefits future researchers (Ghuri & Gronhaug, 2010).

Ethical Considerations

The researcher has developed protections for participants prior to, during, and following data collection in accordance with the guidelines set forth in the *Belmont Report* and the requirements of the Capella University Institutional Review Board. The researcher completed the required Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative and submitted the research proposal

for review and approval before beginning data collection. The required Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative training was intended to ensure researchers understand the importance of protecting human participants in research. The Institutional Review Board was responsible for reviewing research proposals and ensuring the research meets federal requirements and was conducted in an ethical manner.

The survey was not given to any vulnerable groups. Survey participants were recruited to participate voluntarily. Prior to participation, the Tourism Leadership Council representative will ensure an informed consent form is included in the recruitment email to participants. The informed consent form included the purpose of the study, the process for data collection, the risks and benefits of participation, the voluntary nature of the study, participants' right to withdraw from the study at any time, and contact information for the researcher. Participants will be informed that no compensation will be offered for taking the survey and that there is low to no risk to participation. Participants were required to review and complete the informed consent form before completing the survey.

Identifying information was not collected through the survey. The data file and results report did not include participants' names or personally identifiable information that would allow anyone to identify participants or the organization. Any paper copies of information related to the study will remain in the researcher's locked filing system. All electronic files remained on the researcher's password-protected personal computer. Only the researcher and dissertation committee had access to the raw data. Results are reported at the aggregate level to maintain the confidentiality of individual responses.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of the current quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study was to assess relationships among organizational culture, employee job satisfaction, employee intent to remain and employee willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for demographic characteristics. The demographic characteristics of interest were gender, age, marital status, tenure, education, hours worked per week, industry, and job title. Data was gathered from a sample of full-time employees currently working in the hospital industry in GA using the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile Identify (HICP) instrument. The data collection proceeded according to the proposed data collection steps documented in chapter 3. Within this chapter the results of the data analysis are presented. The results of the data collection, descriptive analysis, and reliability analysis will be included to provide context regarding the sample composition and the reliability of the instrument. An analysis of the hypotheses related to the research questions is provided to determine if there are relationships among employees' perceived and preferred culture, and employees' job satisfaction, intent to remain at the organization, and willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for selected demographic characteristics.

Data Collection Results

A recruitment correspondence was sent to the appropriate gatekeeper with the Tourism Leadership Council on August 25, 2016, informing them that the survey was open for distribution to the members of the organization. The correspondence included a request for distribution of the consent form and survey link to Tourism Leadership Council members. The

recruitment correspondence also contained a link to the survey, which was administered through SurveyMonkey. The Tourism Leadership Council typically distributes emails to members once a week. However, due to several Tourism Leadership Council internal issues that took precedence, distribution of the recruitment correspondence was delayed. The recruitment correspondence was sent to Tourism Leadership Council members on September 12, 2016.

The initial recruitment correspondence garnered 112 responses. The next recruitment correspondence was sent on September 19, 2016. The second recruitment contact garnered 29 responses. The final recruitment correspondence was sent on September 26, 2016. The final recruitment wave garnered two responses. The survey was closed on September 26, 2016. During the 15 day of collection, there were 143 survey participants with 88 completed surveys for a response rate of 62%. The minimum sample size required for statistical validity for the multiple linear regression analysis was 114 participants. Because the sample size was lower than the previously reported minimum, the researcher used G*Power version 3.1.9.2 to calculate the achieved power. The achieved power for a multiple linear regression with a medium effect size, alpha level of .05, 10 predictors, and 88 participants is 0.63. The smaller than intended sample size posed a limitation to the current study because it decreased the statistical power achieved in the data analysis. Higher power in an analysis corresponds to the ability to correctly reject a false null hypothesis, and power levels of .80 are recommended for studies (Howell, 2013). A lower power than the recommended power standard results in a decreased chance that the statistical analysis will uncover significance when significance exists (Howell, 2013).

Descriptive Analysis

The variables of interest for the current study were organizational culture (i.e., preferred and perceived culture), employee job satisfaction, employee intent to remain with the organization, employee willingness to recommend the organization, and eight demographic characteristics. The score for preferred culture ranged from 3.31 to 7.00, with an average of 6.35 ($SD = 0.65$). Participants' perceived culture score ranged from 1.89 to 7.00, with an average of 5.93 ($SD = 0.83$). Job satisfaction ranged from 2.00 to 7.00, with an average of 6.00 ($SD = 1.25$), while the observations for intent to remain ranged from 1.00 to 7.00, with an average of 5.31 ($SD = 1.65$). Finally, scores for willing to recommend ranged from 1.00 to 7.00, with an average of 6.15 ($SD = 1.25$). Means and standard deviations for organizational culture, job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization are included in Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Perceived and Preferred Culture, Job Satisfaction, Intent to Remain, and Willingness to Recommend the Organization

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	Min.	Max.
Preferred culture	6.35	0.65	91	3.31	7.00
Perceived culture	5.93	0.83	115	1.89	7.00
Job Satisfaction	6.00	1.25	88	2.00	7.00
Intent to Remain	5.31	1.65	88	1.00	7.00
Willing to Recommend	6.15	1.25	88	1.00	7.00

The majority of participants were female ($n = 88, 62\%$). Participants' ages varied, however, many participants reported their age as 51 or older ($n = 60, 42\%$). Most individuals in the sample reported that they were married ($n = 95, 66\%$). Most frequently, participants reported that they held a Bachelor's degree ($n = 67, 47\%$), and that they had a 1 year tenure ($n =$

26, 18%). Most of the sample worked 45 or more hours a week ($n = 69, 48\%$) in a tourism related industry ($n = 83, 58\%$). Almost half of the participants held the position of Manager/Director ($n = 68, 48\%$). Frequencies and percentages for demographic variables are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Variables

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Female	88	62
Male	55	38
Age		
22-34	27	19
35-45	36	25
46-50	20	14
51 or older	60	42
Marital Status		
Divorced / Separated	15	10
Married	95	66
Single	31	22
Widowed	2	1
Tenure		
1 year	26	18
2 years	13	9
3 years	12	8
4 years	10	7
5 years	5	3
6 years	8	6
7 years	7	5
8 years	3	2
9 years	3	2
10 years	8	6
11 years	4	3
12 years	3	2
13 years	3	2
14 years	1	1
15 years	8	6
16 years	3	2

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
17 years	4	3
18 years	1	1
19 years	1	1
20 years	6	4
21 years	2	1
22 years	2	1
23 years	2	1
24 years	1	1
25 years	1	1
26 or more years	6	4
Education		
Associate's degree	27	19
Bachelor's degree	67	47
High school diploma / GED	27	19
Master's degree or more	22	15
Number of hours worked in a week		
Less than 20 hours	1	1
21-39 hours	20	14
40-44 hours	53	37
45 or more	69	48
Industry		
Lodging larger hotels (100 rooms or more)	27	19
Motels, Inns, and bed and breakfasts	11	8
Pubs/Clubs	1	1
Restaurant	15	10
Retail	6	4
Tourism related	83	58
Job Title		
Coordinator (Digital Communication, Events, Social Media, etc.)	7	5
Executive	39	27
Manager/Director	68	48
Professor	1	1
Representative (Business Development, Customer Service, HR, etc.)	22	15
Supervisor	2	1

Composite scores were created for inclusion in the statistical analysis. The following composite scores were calculated from the mean of the relevant scale items: preferred culture, perceived culture, job satisfaction, intent to remain, willing to recommend. Item 3 from the

intent to remain scale (i.e., *I intend to remain with this organization*) was omitted from the HICP instrument that was administered to the sample. The remaining two items were used to calculate the intent to remain scale (i.e., *If I were to have my own way, I would be working for this organization three years from now and I have thought seriously about changing organizations since I have worked here*). Reliability coefficients and the number of items on each scale are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Composite Scores

Score	α	No. of Items
Preferred Culture	.97	36
Perceived Culture	.97	36
Job Satisfaction	.81	3
Intent to Remain	.71	2
Willing to Recommend	.83	2

The reliability for these composite scores were assessed using Cronbach's alpha for reliability scores. These values were interpreted using the guidelines put forth by George & Mallery (2016), where $> .9$ Excellent, $> .8$ Good, $> .7$ Acceptable, $> .6$ Questionable, $> .5$ Poor, and $< .5$ Unacceptable. Preferred culture and perceived culture had the highest reliability scores, $\alpha = .97$. These scores indicate excellent reliability for these scales. Intent to remain had the lowest reliability score, $\alpha = .71$. This score indicates acceptable reliability for the scale.

Analysis of Hypotheses

Regression analyses were conducted to assess the relationships among perceived and preferred organizational culture, job satisfaction, intent to remain with the organization, or

willingness to recommend the organization to family and friends while controlling for gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, and job position. Results of the three regression analyses, one for each dependent variable (i.e., job satisfaction, intent to remain with the organization, and willingness to recommend the organization to family and friends) are reported below. The findings are reported as they relate to the hypotheses guiding this study.

For the first analysis the researcher assessed the relationship between employee's perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction (i.e., hypothesis 1), and the relationship between preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction (i.e., hypothesis 2).

H1₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and job satisfaction.

H2₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction.

In order to address the hypotheses, a multiple linear regression was performed. The criterion (dependent) variable was job satisfaction. The predictor (independent) variables corresponded to perceived and preferred culture. The following variables were added as covariates: gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, job position.

Prior to analysis, the assumptions of the multiple linear regression were assessed. The assumption of normality was assessed using a normal P-P Plot.

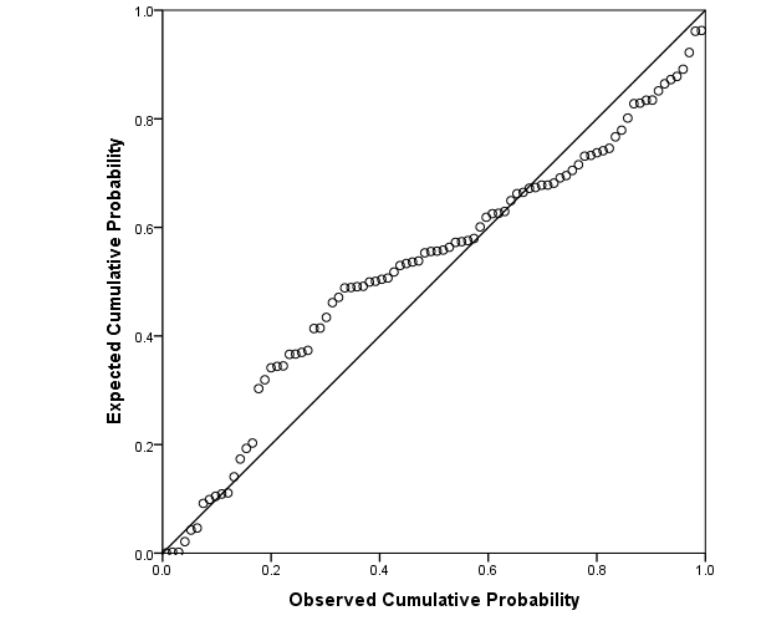


Figure 3. Normal P-P Plot for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Job Satisfaction.

To assess the assumption, the researcher examined the plot to ensure that the data did not deviate from the normality line. Figure 3 indicates that the data did not deviate strongly from the normality line. As such, the assumption was met.

The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were both addressed through examination of a scatterplot of the residuals. The plot was screened to ensure that the data did not display any nonlinear trends to meet the assumption of linearity. The plot was screened to ensure that the data was roughly evenly distributed about zero to meet the assumption of homoscedasticity.

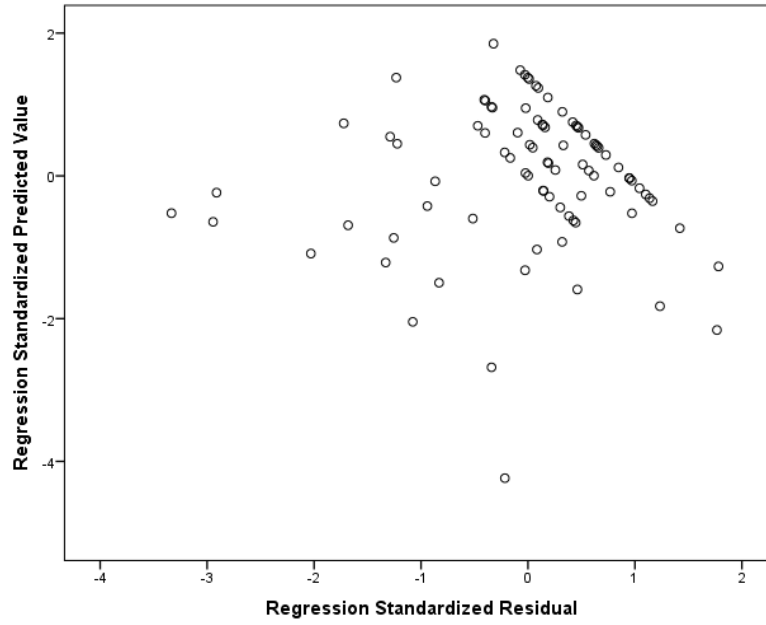


Figure 4. Scatterplot of the Residuals for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Job Satisfaction.

Figure 4 indicates that there were no nonlinear trends in the distribution of the data. This indicates that the assumption of linearity was met. Additionally, Figure 4 shows that the data is roughly evenly distributed about 0. As such, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

The assumption of absence of multicollinearity was assessed using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). VIF values above 10 were considered evidence of multicollinearity in the data (Stevens, 2009). VIF values and the results of the regression analysis are included in Table 6. VIF values ranged from 1.15 to 1.52. All VIF scores were well below 10. This finding indicates that there was not a high degree of interrelation among the independent variables and that the assumption of absence of multicollinearity was met.

Table 6

Multiple Linear Regression Results with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Job Satisfaction

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	VIF
Gender	-0.18	0.28	-0.07	-0.64	.527	1.33
Age	0.10	0.11	0.09	0.90	.373	1.26
Marital Status	0.09	0.16	0.06	0.59	.555	1.29
Years of Experience	-0.03	0.02	-0.20	-1.91	.060	1.27
Education	0.21	0.14	0.15	1.46	.148	1.26
Hours Worked Per Week	0.01	0.19	0.01	0.07	.947	1.50
Industry Type	-0.11	0.12	-0.10	-0.88	.383	1.41
Job Position	-0.07	0.11	-0.06	-0.64	.524	1.15
Preferred Culture	0.03	0.21	0.02	0.14	.892	1.43
Perceived Culture	0.76	0.16	0.53	4.63	< .001	1.52

Note: $F(10, 77) = 3.95, p < .001, R^2 = .25$.

The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.95, p < .001, R^2 = .25$. Results of the analysis are included in Table 6. The results suggest that perceived culture was the only individually significant predictor ($B = 0.76, p < .001$) of job satisfaction when the variables of perceived and preferred culture, gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, and job position were analyzed to predict employees' job satisfaction. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that these variables account for 25% of the variability in job satisfaction. As the overall regression model was significant, the individual predictors were examined further. The unstandardized beta (B) indicates that for every 1 unit increase in perceived culture, job satisfaction also increases by 0.76 units. Null hypothesis 1 can be rejected. Null hypothesis 2 cannot be rejected.

For the second analysis the researcher assessed the relationship between employee's perceived organizational culture and intent to remain (i.e., hypothesis 3), and employee's preferred organizational culture and intent to remain (i.e., hypothesis 4).

H3₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and intent to remain.

H4₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and intent to remain.

To address hypothesis 3 and 4, a multiple linear regression was performed. The criterion variable was intent to remain. The predictor variables corresponded to perceived and preferred culture. The following variables were added as covariates: gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, job position.

Prior to analysis, the assumptions of the multiple linear regression were assessed. The assumption of normality was assessed using a normal P-P Plot.

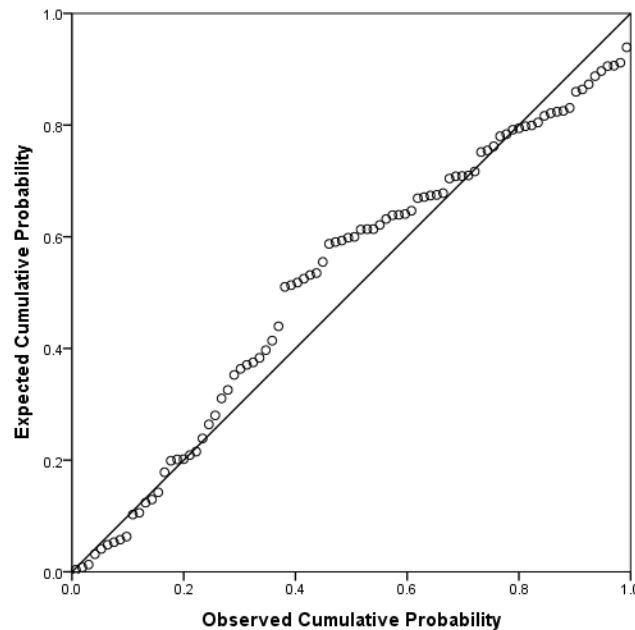


Figure 5. Scatterplot of the Residuals for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Job Satisfaction.

To assess the assumption, the researcher examined the plot to ensure that the data did not deviate from the normality line. Figure 5 shows that the data generally followed the normality line. Therefore, the assumption of normality was met.

The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were both addressed through examination of a scatterplot of the residuals. The plot was screened to ensure that the data did not display any nonlinear patterns and that the data was roughly evenly distributed around 0.

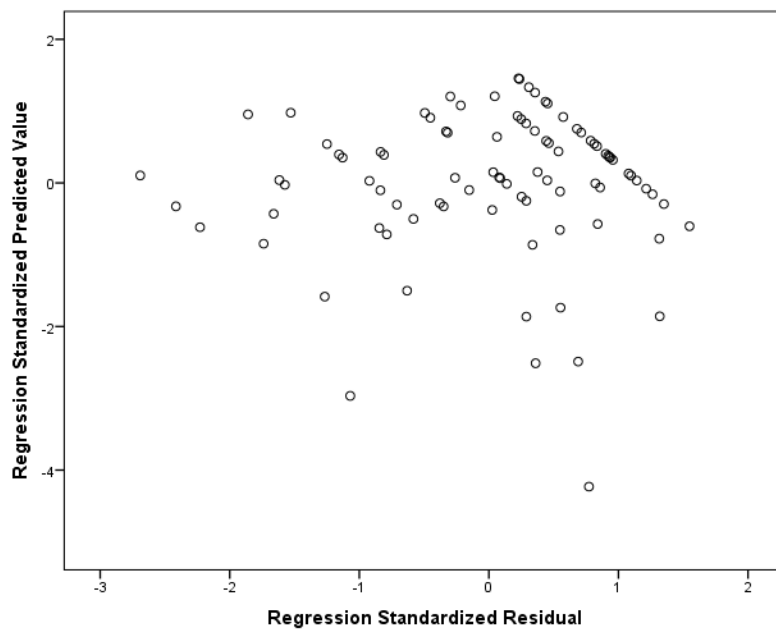


Figure 6. Scatterplot of the Residuals for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Intent to Remain.

As shown in Figure 6, there were no nonlinear trends in the data. This indicates that the assumption of linearity was met. Figure 6 also shows that the data is roughly evenly distributed about 0. Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity has been met.

The assumption of absence of multicollinearity was assessed using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). VIF values above 10 were considered evidence of multicollinearity in the data

(Stevens, 2009). VIF values and the results of the regression analysis are included in Table 7.

VIF values ranged from 1.15 to 1.52. All VIF scores were well below 10. This finding indicates that there was not a high degree of interrelation among the independent variables and the assumption of absence of multicollinearity was met.

Table 7

Multiple Linear Regression Results with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Intent to Remain

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	VIF
Gender	0.04	0.37	0.01	0.12	.907	1.33
Age	0.06	0.15	0.04	0.42	.676	1.26
Marital Status	0.06	0.21	0.03	0.27	.791	1.29
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.02	-0.10	-0.96	.342	1.27
Education	-0.01	0.19	0.00	-0.04	.968	1.26
Hours Worked Per Week	0.09	0.26	0.04	0.36	.722	1.50
Industry Type	-0.02	0.17	-0.01	-0.12	.902	1.41
Job Position	-0.12	0.15	-0.08	-0.81	.422	1.15
Preferred Culture	0.12	0.29	0.05	0.41	.683	1.43
Perceived Culture	0.99	0.22	0.53	4.53	< .001	1.52

Note: $F(10, 77) = 3.57, p = .001, R^2 = .23$.

The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.57, p = .001, R^2 = .23$. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that these variables account for up to 23% of the variability in intent to remain. As the overall regression model was significant, the individual predictors were examined further. Perceived culture was again the only individually significant predictor ($B = 0.99, p < .001$). The unstandardized beta (B) indicates that for every 1 unit increase in perceived culture, intent to remain also increases by 0.99 units. Null hypothesis 3 can be rejected. Null hypothesis 4 cannot be rejected.

For the third regression analysis the researcher assessed the relationship between employee's perceived organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization

(i.e., hypothesis 5), and the relationship between preferred organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization (i.e., hypothesis 6).

H5₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

H6₀. There is no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and willingness to recommend the organization.

To address hypothesis 5 and hypothesis 6 the researcher conducted a final multiple linear regression, in which the criterion variable was willingness to recommend. The predictor variables were again preferred culture and perceived culture. The covariates are gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, and job position.

Prior to analysis, the assumptions of the multiple linear regression were assessed. The assumption of normality was examined using a normal P-P Plot.

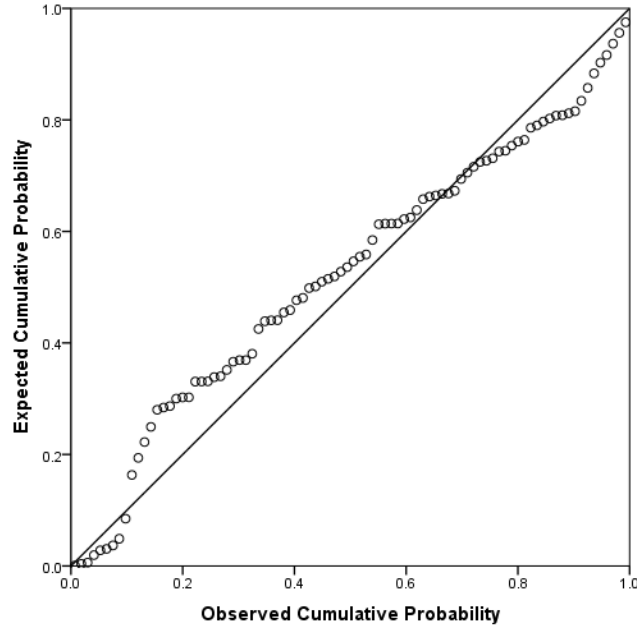


Figure 7. Normal P-P Plot for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Willingness to Recommend.

To assess the assumption, the researcher examined the plot to ensure that the data did not deviate from the normality line. Figure 7 shows that the data did not deviate strongly from the normality line. As such, the assumption was met.

The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were both addressed using a scatterplot of the residuals. The plot was screened to ensure that the data did not display any nonlinear trends to meet the assumption of linearity. The plot was screened to ensure that the data was roughly evenly distributed about zero to meet the assumption of homoscedasticity.

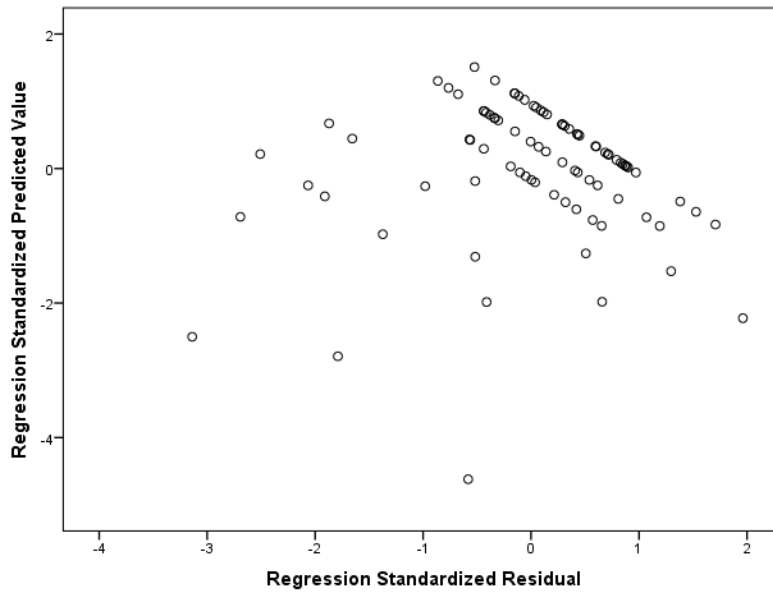


Figure 8. Scatterplot of the Residuals for the Regression with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Willingness to Recommend.

Figure 8 shows that there were no nonlinear trends in the data. This indicates that the assumption of linearity was met. Additionally, Figure 8 shows that the data is roughly evenly distributed about 0. As such, the assumption of homoscedasticity was met.

The assumption of absence of multicollinearity was assessed using Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). VIF values above 10 were considered evidence of multicollinearity in the data (Stevens, 2009). VIF values and the results of the regression analysis are included in Table 8. VIF values ranged from 1.15 to 1.52. All VIF scores were well below 10. This finding indicates that there was not a high degree of interrelation among the independent variables and that the assumption of absence of multicollinearity was met.

Table 8

Multiple Linear Regression Results with Perceived Culture, Preferred Culture, and Covariates Predicting Willingness to Recommend

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	VIF
Gender	-0.34	0.24	-.13	-1.43	.160	1.33
Age	0.02	0.1	.02	0.24	.810	1.26
Marital Status	-0.21	0.14	-.14	-1.57	.120	1.29
Years of Experience	-0.01	0.02	-.05	-0.5	.620	1.27
Education	0.08	0.12	.06	0.66	.510	1.26
Hours Worked Per Week	-0.07	0.16	-.04	-0.43	.660	1.50
Industry Type	-0.06	0.11	-.05	-0.58	.570	1.41
Job Position	-0.01	0.1	-.01	-0.07	.950	1.15
Preferred Culture	-0.12	0.18	-.06	-0.65	.520	1.43
Perceived Culture	1.07	0.14	.75	7.57	< .001	1.52

Note: $F(10, 77) = 7.90, p < .001, R^2 = .44$.

The overall regression equation was significant $F(10, 77) = 7.90, p < .001, R^2 = .44$, indicating that collectively, perceived culture, preferred culture, and covariates significantly predict willingness to recommend. The coefficient of determination value indicates that these variables account for up to 44% of the variability in willingness to recommend. When the individual predictors were examined, perceived culture was again the only significant predictor of willingness to recommend ($B = 1.07, p < .001$). For every 1 unit increase in perceived culture, willingness to recommend also increases by 1.07 units. Null hypothesis 5 can be rejected. Null hypothesis 6 cannot be rejected.

Summary

This chapter began with a brief introduction and restatement of the research purpose, followed by a description of the data collection procedures. Descriptive statistics and a

reliability analysis of the composite scores were provided. A detailed analysis of the results followed. Null hypotheses 1, 3, and 5 were rejected. Perceived culture was related to job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization to family and friends. This result indicated that perceived culture was a predictor of participants' job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization to family and friends. Null hypotheses 2, 4, and 6 were not rejected. This finding indicated that preferred culture was a not statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization to family and friends. The results of the analysis illuminate a link between what employees perceive as the organizational culture and their satisfaction with the organization, employee retention at the company, and employees' willingness to bring others to the organization. This finding is supported by previous research that posited that satisfaction and turnover can be linked to organizational culture (AlBattat & Som, 2013; Rondeau & Wagar, 2012). As employees' scores for job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization increased, their perceived culture also increased. These results will be discussed with regards to the existing literature in chapter 5. The strengths and limitations of the study will also be discussed in Chapter 5, as will future directions for research.

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the correlation between the independent variables employees' perceived culture and preferred culture and the dependent variables employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization while controlling for specific demographics. The results were collected using the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) to measure the independent, dependent, and control variables. The study included three multiple regression analyses.

The three multiple regression analyses that were used were multiple linear regression analysis, regression analysis, and multiple regression coefficient of determination (i.e., R^2). The SPSS Version 23 was used to explain the association between the variables. Chapter 5 is organized into five areas. The five areas are the evaluation of the research questions, fulfillment of research purpose, contribution to business problem, recommendation for future research, and the conclusion.

Evaluation of Research Questions

Research Question 1

What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their job satisfaction? The motivation for this question was to assess the relationship between the independent variable employee's perceived organizational culture and the dependent variable job satisfaction. The testing of H_{10} resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis and accepting the alternate hypothesis. Accepting the alternate hypothesis H_{1a} indicates there is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and

job satisfaction. The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.95, p < .001, R^2 = .25$. The results suggest that perceived culture was the only individually significant predictor ($B = 0.76, p < .001$) of job satisfaction when the variables of perceived and preferred culture, gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, and job position were analyzed to predict employees' job satisfaction.

Research Question 2

What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their job satisfaction? The motivation for question two was to assess the relationship between the dependent variable employee's preferred organizational culture and the independent variable intent to remain. The testing of H_{20} resulted in the identification that H_{20} could not be rejected. Accepting the null hypothesis H_{20} indicates there is a no statistically significant relationship between an employee's preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction. The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.95, p < .001, R^2 = .25$. The results suggest that preferred culture was not a statistically significant predictor ($B = 0.03, p = .892$) of job satisfaction when the variables of preferred culture, gender, age, marital status, years of experience, education, hours worked per week, industry type, and job position were analyzed to predict employees' job satisfaction.

Research Question 3

What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their intent to remain? The motivation for this question was to assess the relationship between the dependent variable employee's perceived organizational culture and the independent variable intent to remain. The testing of H_{30} resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis and

accepting the alternate hypothesis. Accepting the alternate hypothesis H3_a indicates there is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and their intent to remain. The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.57, p = .001, R^2 = .23$. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that these variables account for up to 23% of the variability in intent to remain. Perceived culture was a statistically significant predictor ($B = 0.99, p < .001$).

Research Question 4

What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their intent to remain? The motivation for this question was to assess the relationship between the dependent variable employee's preferred organizational culture and the independent variable intent to remain. The testing of H4₀ resulted in the identification that H4₀ could not be rejected. Accepting the null hypothesis H4₀ indicates there is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's preferred organizational culture and their intent to remain. The overall regression equation was significant, $F(10, 77) = 3.57, p = .001, R^2 = .23$. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicates that these variables account for up to 23% of the variability in intent to remain. Preferred culture was not an individually significant predictor ($B = 0.12, p = .683$).

Research Question 5

What is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization? The motivation for this question was to assess the relationship between the dependent variable employee's perceived organizational culture and the independent variable willingness to recommend the organization. The testing of

H5₀ resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis and accepting the alternate hypothesis.

Accepting the alternate hypothesis H5_a indicates there is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perceived organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization. The overall regression equation was significant $F(10, 77) = 7.90, p < .001, R^2 = .44$, indicating that collectively, perceived culture, preferred culture, and covariates significantly predict willingness to recommend. The coefficient of determination value indicates that these variables account for up to 44% of the variability in willingness to recommend. When the individual predictors were examined, perceived culture was a statistically significant predictor of willingness to recommend ($B = 1.07, p < .001$).

Research Question 6

What is the significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization? The motivation for this question was to assess the relationship between the dependent variable employee's preferred organizational culture and the independent variable willingness to recommend the organization. The testing of H6₀ resulted in the identification that H6₀ could not be rejected. Accepting the null hypothesis H6₀ indicates there is no statistically significant relationship between an employee's preferred organizational culture and their willingness to recommend the organization. The overall regression equation was significant $F(10, 77) = 7.90, p < .001, R^2 = .44$, indicating that collectively, perceived culture, preferred culture, and covariates significantly predict willingness to recommend. The coefficient of determination value indicates that these variables account for up to 44% of the variability in willingness to recommend. When the individual predictors were

examined, preferred culture was not a significant predictor of willingness to recommend ($B = -0.12, p = .520$).

Fulfillment of Research Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the employees' perceived culture and preferred culture with behavior intentions of employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. Using the HICP as the survey instrument, the findings in chapter 4 answered the research purpose and identified that there is a significant relationship between behavioral intentions and employees' perceived and preferred culture. The six research questions that guided the research indicated there is a relationship that exists between the employees' perceived organizational culture and their behavior intentions of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

According to Dawson et al. (2011), one of the limitations of the study conducted by Tepeci and Bartlett was that all the participants were hospitality students who had little work experience (Dawson et al., 2011). Tepeci and Bartlett were also not able to address the dependent variables job satisfaction and intent to quit, as 64% of those surveyed were not working at the time they took the survey (Dawson et al., 2011). This study addressed the gap between hospitality students and actual current employees in the hospitality industry ($n = 88, 100\%$).

Research question 1, what is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their job satisfaction and research question 3, what is the significant relationship between employees' perceived organizational culture and their job satisfaction were

examined. The researcher answered research questions 1 and 3 by surveying current employees in the hospitality industry. The results of the survey indicated there is a significant relationship between the dependent variables of job satisfaction ($B = 0.76, p < .001$) and intent to quit ($B = 0.99, p < .001$).

While Tepeci (2011) used the HICP to measure the perceived and preferred organizational cultures in the Turkish hospitality industry, few studies have used the HICP in other countries. Tepeci (2011) argued the need for further research to understand the precise characteristics that shape the attitudes of employees to implement specific measures to change the culture. Dawson et al. (2011) described the need to measure the relationship between the individual's match with the hospitality industry and job satisfaction.

Contribution to Business Problem

The specific problem explored in this study was that human resource leaders do not always recognize that employees' preferred organizational culture does not always align with their perceptions of the existing organizational culture, which results in job dissatisfaction, voluntary turnover, and a lack of willingness to recommend the organization to others (Hsieh & Chen, 2011; Tepeci, 2011; J. Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012). This study was able to identify for human resource managers that perceived culture has indeed a significant impact on employees. The unstandardized beta (B) indicated that for every 1 unit increase in perceived culture, job satisfaction increased by 0.76 units. For every 1 unit increased in perceived culture, intent to remain increased by 0.99 units. Additionally, for every 1 unit increased in perceived culture, willingness to recommend also increased by 1.07 units. The research was able to highlight that the employees' perceived organizational culture has the most significant effect in determining

the behavioral outcome of the employee when it pertains to job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

This study was able to identify for human resource managers in the hospitality industry the values that employees' and prospective employees' place on an organizational culture. While the current culture within an organization is a significant factor in employees' behavioral intentions, human resource professionals can use this study to rethink how they manage the organizational culture. The human resource staff should work with managers at all levels within their industry to increase the perceived organizational culture. By recognizing the significant factor perceived culture has on employee intentions, over time, may reduce turnover while increasing retention and more importantly, increasing workers willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work, therefore gaining quality referrals.

Another purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of POF and how human resource staff can better match the applicant's values with those of the organization (Judge & Cable, 1997). The survey participants identified the importance of perceived culture rather than preferred culture when it comes to their behavioral intentions. All of the null hypothesis in 2, 4, and 6 that addressed preferred culture was not rejected but accepted. This information indicates that there was no statistically significant relationship between employees' preferred organizational culture and job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. The knowledge gained through this study of employees' perceived and preferred culture should allow human resource staff to make the necessary adjustments within their organizational culture to better match their employees' values.

The way human resource managers observe and interpret organizational culture has an impact on reducing the loss of talented and experienced workers (Ghosh, Satyawadi, Jagdamba, & Shadman, 2013; Juhdi, Pa'wan, & Hansaram, 2013). Human resource professionals who want to retain employees and reduce turnover should understand that organizational cultural values should not conflict with the values of individual employees.

Recommendations for Future Research

One of the limitations to the research was the lack of control in sending the recruitment correspondence to the survey participants. Once the initial contact with the appropriate gatekeeper at the Tourism Leadership Council, it was 18 days before the recruitment correspondence was actually sent to the survey participants. The initial delay in sending out the recruitment correspondence resulted in the extension of the survey from 14 days to 32 days. The initial delay was based on the internal issues at the sponsoring organization in sending the initial recruitment correspondence. The extension of the survey was based on the low response rate. A recommendation for future researchers would be to choose two to three hospitality businesses in each business segment of study and work directly with management to distribute the recruitment correspondence.

Another limitation was the length of the HICP survey instrument. There were 143 survey participants; however only 88 surveys were complete for a 62% response rate. The initial sample size was identified using G*Power version 3.1.92 as needing a minimum of 114 survey participants. The actual sample size was 26 survey participants short resulting in an alpha level of 0.63. The HICP is a long survey and consists of 95 questions broken into three segments. The first segment is the demographic questions. The second and third segments are the same

questions just viewed as perceived and then preferred organizational culture. A recommendation for future researchers utilizing the HICP would be to explain in detail in the recruitment correspondence the length of the HICP survey instrument and the importance of answering the entire survey for collecting data.

Another limitation was the lack of younger workers that participated in the study. The majority of the participants reported their age as 51 or older ($n = 60, 42\%$). The age category of 22-34 had the second least participants ($n = 27, 19\%$). Gaining the perspective of the younger, less experienced workers in the hospitality industry may add insight to their behavioral intentions when it comes to job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. A recommendation for future researchers would be to conduct a study directed at the millennials who are working in the hospitality industry. This may add to the body of knowledge and have a practical application for human resource management when making adjustments to the culture of the organization.

The final limitation was the lack of participants in the hourly wage job titles of those that received and responded to the recruitment correspondence. Clearly, the data identifies that those with the job title of executive ($n = 39, 27\%$) and Manager/Director ($n = 68, 48\%$) had a higher proportionate response rate than hourly workers. A recommendation for future research would be to separate the survey categories between hourly and salaried employees to help gain the sufficient data to better understand the relationship between the employees' perceived culture and preferred culture with behavior intentions of employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

Early researchers studying organizational culture used qualitative methods by observing and recording (S. Ghosh and Srivastava, 2014). There has been a shift in methodology in researching the organizational culture to the quantitative approach. A recommendation for future research is to use the qualitative method as that may provide a more comprehensive description to behavior intentions in the hospitality industry.

Conclusions

Although organizational culture and the hospitality industry have been extensively studied, there were none that analyzed the perceived and preferred organizational culture on behavior intentions in the hospitality industry in southeastern Georgia. This research identified a gap in the literature and added to the body of knowledge. The results of this research identified that a relationship exists between the employees' perceived organizational culture and the behavioral intentions of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and their willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work.

Employees' behavior intentions are linked to their perceived culture of the organization. Perceived organizational culture exists when employees believe a fit exists between their individual values and those of the organization (Kwok, 2012; Tepeci, 2011). Tepeci (2011) noted that the precise features of fit, whether perceived or preferred, could influence change in organizational culture along with the development of new policies and procedures. Retaining talented employees is already a difficult challenge.

This study could help human resource managers in evaluating and implementing any necessary changes to the organizations policies and procedures to increase the match between the

employees' values with the organization. By making these adjustments, human resource professionals could have a significant positive impact on the reduction of turnover intention.

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