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Now That I'm Gone, Let Me Tell You How I Feel: Former Employees' Perceptions of Employer Image and Organizational Attraction

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NOW THAT I'M GONE, LET ME TELL YOU HOW I FEEL: FORMER
EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF EMPLOYER IMAGE AND
ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial-Organizational Psychology

by
Jamie M. Fynes
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ABSTRACT

Exit interviews produce a wealth of information that organizations can use to inform strategic action that will, ideally, increase the satisfaction and engagement of employees and, in turn, improve retention. This information may include not only the reasons why employees left but also how they view various aspects of their experience with that organization. These aspects of organizational functioning can be viewed as attributes of employer image, which have been shown to influence organizational attraction. The purpose of this study was to examine employer image and organizational attraction in a novel way- from the perspective of former employees. Results show potential for a new model of employer image attributes and organizational attraction that can be assessed using exit interview data. Specifically, voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor significantly influenced former employees' attraction to their previous employer. In addition, these employer image attributes influenced each other. Results also revealed that ratings on employer image attributes and organizational attraction can vary by the reason one left the organization, former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match. These variations may provide insight into who might spread positive or negative messaging about the organization to outsiders, which, consequently, can influence outsiders' image of that organization. Ultimately, this may impact the talent level of the organization's applicant pool and the extent to which consumers use its goods and services.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Given the competitive climate for retaining talent, it is not uncommon for employees to change employers after only a few years or even just one year (Fynes & Sears, 2017; Sears & Fynes, 2017). Although the reasons for which employees change employers can vary, one salient reason is dissatisfaction with the employer; another could be the desire to be in a job that is more fulfilling (Fynes & Sears, 2017). It is important for organizations to assess why their employees are leaving so that they can address problem areas with strategic action that will improve employee retention and, consequently, reduce costs associated with turnover. One method in which organizations can gain feedback on why former employees left is the exit interview.

Valuable information attained from exit interviews is not limited to why former employees left. Organizations also want feedback on various attributes of employer image, including voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and their relationship with their supervisor. When organizations analyze this information, it allows them to examine both strengths and weaknesses of the organization from the perspective of former employees. Then, organizations can use this information to implement strategies that will, ideally, increase the satisfaction, engagement, and commitment of their current employees; these increases, in theory, would improve retention rates and decrease turnover-related costs for the organizations.

Yet, the benefits of using exit interview data are not limited to what is described above. Indeed, it is practical to ask about voice, opportunity to grow, organizational

support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction in an exit interview. It is also important to gauge former employees' perceptions of these factors because it is likely that they already have discussed or will discuss these issues with those outside of the organization. These discussions, whether they are informal conversations, word-of-mouth recommendations, or web and social media postings, can influence the perceptions and attitudes of those outside of the organization.

In this context, exit interview questions can assess attributes of organizational image. Organizational/employer image is an individual level perception about an organization, typically from an outsider's point of view (Highhouse, Brooks, & Gregarus, 2009; Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). However, others argue that current employees can also have an organizational image (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell, 2002). Employer image attributes can be instrumental, symbolic, or experiential in nature, all of which will be defined in the following chapters (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). The focus of the present study is on instrumental and experiential attributes. Specifically, opportunity to grow can be viewed as an instrumental attribute, and voice, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor can be viewed as experiential attributes. The latter represent a new way to measure employer image; instead of focusing solely on instrumental and symbolic attributes, factors such as voice, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor are conceptualized as experiential attributes. Because these attributes have been used mainly in the marketing literature in the context of consumer experiences with products, examining experiential attributes from the perspective of former employees adds a unique addition to the employer image literature.

These attributes may not only influence each other, but they may also influence organizational attraction. Indeed, research has shown that organizational image is related to organizational attraction (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Further, organizational attraction can influence what insiders say to outsiders about an organization (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). This information that is spread from former employees to outsiders such as potential applicants can influence the latter's image of that organization. As a result, the quality of potential applicants and/or the likelihood of consumers to use the organization's products or services may be impacted.

Overall, it appears that information gained from exit interviews, including ratings of the former employee's voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction is worth exploring. For the current study, employer image and organizational attraction were examined from the perspective of former employees. Specifically, a model of image attributes, such as voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor, was tested to assess their impact on organizational attraction. An additional question that the study aimed to answer is how these attributes and organizational attraction vary by one's reason for leaving his or her former organization. Gender was also of central interest in this study because it is engrained in every institution in society, and men and women have different experiences in the workplace (Lucas & Baxter, 2012; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Ridgeway, 2001). Therefore, mean differences on the employer image attributes and in organizational attraction were examined by gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match. Further, subordinate-supervisor gender match was tested as a

moderator of the relationships between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor.

The following chapter, Chapter 2, discusses relevant employer branding and image literature. Chapters 3 and 4 cover exit interviews and reasons why people leave organizations, respectively. Then, Chapter 5 highlights literature about attributes of employer image and organizational attraction. A dialogue about gender in the workplace as it relates to the image attributes and organizational attraction is provided in Chapter 6. Hypotheses and research questions are stated throughout these chapters. Chapter 7 provides a summary of the previous chapters, and Chapter 8 describes the methods used in the present study, which includes a description of the sample, measures, and statistical analyses. The results are described in Chapter 9. Finally, in Chapter 10, a general discussion of the findings is provided including theoretical and practical implications.

CHAPTER TWO

EMPLOYER BRANDING AND IMAGE

To a certain extent, an organization has the ability to control the information that it presents to the public, which helps the latter to form an image of that particular organization. Employer branding (EB) is what enables an organization to maintain a particular image. According to Bellou, Cahniotakis, Kehagias, and Rigopoulou (2015), “EB refers to all the benefits offered by a certain company to its employees, which create a unique identity in the eyes of employees and applicants and make them willing to stay with or join this company” (p. 1202). Tanwar and Prasad (2016) describe employer brand as consisting of a variety of components including training and development, reputation, organization culture and ethics, corporate social responsibility (CSR), work-life balance, and diversity.

Employer branding is important in part because, when it is positive, it helps organizations attract applicants and retain employees (Verma & Ahmad, 2016). Indeed, the ultimate goal of employer branding is to increase the number of applicants who possess qualities that the organization values (Verma & Ahmad, 2016). The supporting goals of employer brand management are to improve an organization’s reputation and to increase awareness about the organization among the general public (Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen, & Liu, 2015). Another goal of employer branding is wanting current employees to feel valued and for potential applicants to know that the company values its employees (Alshathry, Clarke, & Goodman, 2017).

Vatsa (2016) distinguishes branding as being internal or external, with internal branding focusing on current employees and external branding focusing on potential employees. Indeed, “internal employer brand (i.e., an insider’s mental representations of attributes related to an organization as an employer)” corresponds to an organization’s identity (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016, p. 410). Indeed, one of the purposes of employer branding is to manage perceptions about an organization among employees and those outside of the organization (Sullivan, 2004). In order to be successful, an employer brand should have internal and external messaging that is consistent (Cascio & Graham, 2016).

According to Sullivan (2004), in order for a brand to be deemed successful, it must be characterized by an organizational culture that values sharing and continuous improvement. It has also been suggested that employees should be involved in the development of an employer brand in order to increase chances of success (Backhaus, 2016). As with other aspects of organizational functioning, the employer brand should also be endorsed by top leadership (Cascio & Graham, 2016). Further, stable leadership can also increase the chances of employer brand success (Backhaus, 2016). Additional signs of a successful employer brand include employees informing others about positive characteristics of their employer as well as increasing the amount that the general public talks about that particular organization (Sullivan, 2004).

According to Backhaus and Tikoo (2004), good employer branding allows organizations to market themselves as unique and as the place to work which, hopefully, leads to individuals with unique skillsets applying to those organizations. Organizations should want a unique brand that will separate them from their competitors (Backhaus,

2016). This allows them to become an Employer of Choice (EOC) (Bellou et al., 2015). According to Bellou et al. (2015), “EOC refers to the employer who, by possessing of attractive attributes, can attract the most talented employees” (p. 1202). Similarly, some suggest that each organization has its own employee brand personality (EBP) (Thomas & Jenifer, 2016). An EBP refers to the qualities of those who work in the organization and how those qualities differ from employees from other organizations (Thomas & Jenifer, 2016). An organization’s EBP is determined by a variety of factors, and it can impact employee- and organization-related outcomes.

Antecedents and Outcomes of the Employer Brand

Barrow and Mosley (2011) describe a wheel of factors that influence employer brand. These factors include, but are not limited to, vision and leadership, policies and values, external reputation, communication, performance management, working environment, and reward system. Other influential factors include realistic job previews, perceived organizational support, prestige of the organization, corporate social responsibility, organizational culture, and core values (Biswas & Suar, 2016; Gilani & Cunningham, 2017). However, Biswas and Suar (2016) argue that the most influential antecedent of employer branding is the leadership displayed from those at the top of the organization.

Employer branding is important because it can impact an organization’s performance in terms of return-on-investment and employee performance (Biswas & Suar, 2016). According to Gilani and Cunningham (2017), employer branding also influences employee retention through brand communication and brand loyalty.

Similarly, Fernandez-Lores, Gavilan, Avello, and Blasco (2016) claim that a positive employer brand can impact the extent to which employees are affectively committed to their employer. Additionally, employer brand has been shown to predict job satisfaction (Tanwar & Prasad, 2016).

As stated previously, employer branding is a system of strategies that help to maintain an organization's image. This image is important to uphold for employees and non-employees alike. Further, the extent to which an organization's image is positive or negative can have implications for an organization.

Employer Image

Employer image, often used interchangeably with organizational image, is described in a variety of ways, dependent upon the type of person holding that image. According to Rho, Lee, and Yun (2015), "Organizational image refers to the perceptions that different people hold of an organization" (p. 421). In other words, organizational image is an individual level perception (Highhouse, Brooks, & Gregarus, 2009). This conceptualization covers "both the way an organization is perceived by external constituents as well as the way it is perceived by internal organizational members" (Highhouse et al., 2009, p. 421). However, when referring to current employees, Rho et al. (2015) describe it differently. According to Rho et al., (2015), "Organizational image as perceived by members of an organization is an aggregate of individual employees' perceptions of the organization based on their own experiences and judgments (perceived organizational identity) and outsiders' judgments about the organization (construed external image)" (p. 421). This statement suggests that employees both care about and

value how those outside of the organization view it (Lievens, Van Hoye, & Anseel, 2007). It also suggests that perceived organizational identity is one part of organizational image. For former employees, their image of the organization is based on their own experiences from when they were employed with that organization. When asked about these experiences in exit interviews, it is a much more personalized employer image based on someone now on the outside of the organization but who used to be on the inside.

Lievens and Slaughter (2016) argue that employer image is just one “image” that an organization can possess. Van Hoye (2008) describes employer image as what outsiders believe an organization stands for and what it is like to work there. However, Dukerich, Golden, and Shortell (2002) suggest that employees’ perceptions of organizational attributes are one type of image. Gioia, Schultz, and Corley (2000) also support the notion that both those within and outside of an organization can have an image of that organization. Other types of organizational images include corporate, financial, and corporate social performance image (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). This characterization is different from the one described by Verma and Ahmad (2016) who include the latter types of image as components of employer image.

Lievens and Slaughter (2016) state that there are a variety of image situations in which organizations can find themselves. Specifically, an organization can be unfamiliar to most and thus have no image, it can be familiar but not well-known, it can have a negative image that needs repair, or it can be highly familiar with a positive image (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). In general, when an organization has a strong employer

image, it indicates that there is wide-spread agreement on the characteristics that compose the organization's employer image.

Employer image is characterized by symbolic and instrumental attributes that can vary by organization and industry (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016; Tanwar & Prasad, 2016). Instrumental attributes, such as pay, benefits, and advancement opportunities, are tangible and have value. Alternatively, symbolic attributes, such as traits like "trendy," are inferences made about the organization. Specifically, according to Lievens and Slaughter (2016), symbolic attributes "denote inferences about organizations that describe the organization in terms of subjective and intangible attributes" (p. 411). Both types of attributes contribute to organizational attraction with the latter, specifically trait inferences, being found to have the most effect (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003; Lievens, Van Hove, & Schreurs, 2005). This may be a result of a lack of differentiation among organizations on instrumental attributes (Lievens & Highhouse, 2003). These attributes can be perceived by both potential and current employees. For example, Lievens et al. (2007) found that both types of attributes predict organizational attraction for potential employees but only symbolic attributes significantly predict organizational identification among current employees.

These findings suggest that instrumental attributes may not be sufficient for influencing organizational attraction, but, even taken together with symbolic attributes, some key factors may be missing. Lievens and Slaughter (2016) describe a rarely discussed third type of attribute, experiential attributes, that was first discussed by Keller (1993) in relation to consumers' experiences with products. According to Keller (1993),

“Experiential benefits relate to what it feels like to use the product or service” (p. 4).

Perhaps, experiential attributes encompass what it feels like to interact with the employer for potential employees and what it feels like or felt like to work with an employer for current or former employees. For instance, these experiential attributes, such as voice, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor, may be asked during an exit interview or survey to provide insight into what it was like working for that organization.

Employer Image and Related Constructs

Employer image is different from an employer’s reputation and identity (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). According to Lievens and Slaughter (2016), an employer’s reputation is stable and collective whereas an employer’s image can fluctuate. Indeed, changes in image may be produced by new information gained about that organization, such as word-of-mouth recommendations or disclosures (Highhouse et al., 2009).

Further, reputation has an affective component whereas image is more cognitive in nature (Lievens and Slaughter, 2016). Similarly, it is different from organizational attractiveness because the latter focuses on feelings and attitudes (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016).

Additionally, reputation and image come from an outsider’s point of view whereas identity is what employees inside the organization believe its key characteristics to be (Lievens and Slaughter, 2016). However, unlike Lievens and Slaughter (2016), Gioia et al. (2000) argue that organizational identity is not stable; rather, it fluctuates and changes as time passes.

The identity of an organization is based off of current employees’ image of the organization to which they belong (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Perceived

organizational identity aims to answer the question of who one is as an organization (Brown, Dacin, Pratt & Whetten, 2006; Highhouse et al., 2009). Rho et al. (2015) used the following statement to measure perceived organizational identity: “I would rate the overall quality of work being done in my organization as very good”; this is similar to questions asked during an exit interview. However, instead of assessing the organization as a whole, the former employee involved in the exit interview is responding to items about his or her own personal experiences with attributes of that organization.

Because perceived organizational identity refers to current employees’ general perceptions of the characteristics of their organization and it does not focus on the employees’ own personal experiences, the attributes that were examined in this study were not conceptualized as such. Instead, these attributes were considered to be part of employer image; indeed, opportunity to grow has been classified as an instrumental attribute of employer image. Also, this study looked at employer image from the perspective of former employees- those who were once on the inside but who are now on the outside. This approach most closely aligns with Dukerich et al.’s (2002) suggestion that employees’ perceptions of organizational attributes is a type of image and is supported by Gioia et al.’s (2000) notion that both those within and outside of an organization can have an image of that organization. However, the uniqueness of this study is that ratings of these attributes are from the perspective of former employees and that experiential attributes are classified and examined in a new way.

Antecedents and Outcomes of Employer Image

The antecedents of employer image include characteristics of recruiters, information on organizations' websites, actions that have been taken by the organization, corporate social responsibility initiatives, the media, and word-of-mouth (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). Here, word-of-mouth refers to employees voluntarily speaking with individuals outside of the organization about characteristics of the organization. Perhaps, the power of word-of-mouth is overlooked; organizations should have the desire to be aware of what current and former employees are saying about their organization.

Employer image can impact the extent to which potential job applicants view themselves as fitting-in with the organization (Uberschaer, Baum, Bietz, & Kabst, 2016). When organizations put out an honest image of themselves, including accurate information about working there and what they value, then there may be more people who apply to the organizations who would have a high degree of fit with those organizations. For current employees, employer image has been shown to impact behavior, such as extra-role behavior and absenteeism, through employee identification (Rho et al., 2015). Employee behavior such as the examples mentioned can impact an organization's funds, highlighting the importance of employer image and employee identification.

Aside from impacting an organization's return-on-investment, a positive employer image has been shown to lead to better decision making on behalf of the organization, increased job pursuit intentions, perceived uniqueness, and increased affective bonds with new hires (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). According to the meta-

analysis conducted by Lievens and Slaughter (2016), moderators that have been shown to influence relationships between employer image and other outcomes include personality characteristics, subgroups, cross-cultural characteristics, and stage of recruitment. For example, one's race can play a key role in the importance of the extent to which an organization values diversity.

It is important to examine various types of attributes of employer image to see how they influence each other and impact outcomes. Further, it is likely that former employees talk about these attributes to those outside of the organization. Indeed, employees and former employees play a role in forming an organization's image from the perspective of outsiders by experiences that they tell others, especially those to whom they are close. This image may then influence the extent to which those outside of the organization view that organization as attractive. However, one way an employer's image can be managed is through strategic action based on feedback from those who left or who are leaving the organization. Such feedback can be gained through exit interviews, which are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

THE EXIT INTERVIEW

Employees who decide to leave an organization can be great sources of insight into how to improve the employer's image. Specifically, exit interviews give organizations a chance to find out why employees are leaving and what they can do to improve aspects of organizational functioning for its employees (Cascio & Graham, 2016). It is surprising that exit interviews are not explored to a greater extent in the literature and that they are not standard practice across organizations; some estimates indicate that 7 out of 10 companies utilize exit interviews, but, even then, only about one third of outgoing employees might complete the interviews (Qualtrics, 2017; Spain & Groyberg, 2016). Although there is a considerable amount of research using surveys of current employees to understand engagement and job satisfaction within an organization, as noted above, there is a paucity of research about how those who leave an organization view its employer image. This knowledge can be gleaned from exit interviews.

An advantage of an exit interview is that it can help inform the front-end of the employee experience, including recruitment, selection, and the entire onboarding process (Norton, 2014). Further, with exit interviews, organizations can gain an understanding of the strength of its attributes from the perspective of former employees. Specifically, respondents might be asked to provide ratings of their employer, direct supervisor, voice or involvement in decision-making, opportunity to grow, and organizational support. This feedback can have important organizational implications. For example, ratings of

employer been shown to predict employees' intention to stay at their current organization past one year (Sears & Fynes, 2017).

Methodology of Exit Interviews

Out of the organizations who utilize exit interviews, only 1% hire a third party to conduct the interviews, which is a best practice; indeed, it has been shown that individuals provide more accurate responses when being interviewed by a third party instead of by one's former employer (Campion, 1991; Fynes & Sears, 2017; Spain & Groyberg, 2016). This aforementioned research provides additional support for Hinrichs' (1975) finding that, when interviewed by an organization representative first then by an objective third party, over 40% of former employees change their reason for why they left the company (Hinrichs, 1975).

The type of questions that are asked during exit interviews are just as important as who conducts them. For instance, research that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative methods provides more information than either method alone (Creswell, 2009). This indicates that asking open-ended questions in addition to ratings questions can provide beneficial, additional information that can be used to inform strategy. An average of the quantitative ratings can be used to gain a general idea of how a group of former employees rated a particular item on an exit interview. Further, according to Sears (2017), asking open-ended questions about answers to ratings items gives the organization access to the "why" behind the rating, which can be uniquely insightful. Specifically, a former employee may provide a quantitative rating to an item about voice on an exit interview; but, asking why that employee gave that particular rating can

provide additional information that can be coded; the coded reason may vary or be very similar among a group of former employees.

The use of the mixed-methods approach described above is a strength of this study. The ratings questions and open-ended questions represent the practical questions that are often used by organizations. The data used was even more unique because it came from exit interviews which are a source seldom used in academic research. These particular interviews provided feedback on various aspects of an organization's functioning, including employee voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with one's supervisor. These factors play an important role in an employer's image. In addition, former employees' ratings of organizational attraction and reasons for leaving were used. The data from these exit interviews allowed for the examination of how attributes of employer image impact organizational attraction as well as how attributes of employer image vary by reason for leaving.

All of the aforementioned constructs are discussed in the following chapters. In the following chapter, literature on reasons why employees leave organizations is presented. Further, reasons for leaving are discussed in the contexts of gender and leadership. Research questions are also posed.

CHAPTER FOUR

WHY EMPLOYEES LEAVE

Turnover is expensive for organizations. Not only is there a loss of productivity, but there are also separation, replacement, and training costs that build up over time (Sears, 2017). Sometimes, the reasons why employees choose a particular job in the first place are not the reasons that are going to keep them at that organization (Oladapo, 2014). Oladapo (2014) claims that it is mostly likely a variety of factors that contribute to an individual's decision to leave an organization. There have been a number of studies that have examined reasons why people choose to leave their employer. For instance, Sears (2017) found that (1) Career Development, (2) Work Environment, (3) Management Behavior, (4) Job Characteristics, and (5) Compensation & Benefits are the top five out of 10 reasons why employees leave. Within Career Development, Type of Work (33%) and Growth & Development (21%) were the top two detailed reasons.

Although some people may leave a job due to reasons associated with one's supervisor (Fynes & Sears, 2017), others may leave because their supervisor left the work unit or organization altogether. Hausknecht (2017) studied multiple locations of an organization in the food and hospitality industry and found that employee turnover of a work unit increased when it was high performing and its leader left; turnover also increased when that leader was replaced by someone within the work unit instead of someone outside of the work unit. These increases in turnover can become costly, so Hausknecht (2017) suggested that organizations have retention strategies in place when leaders leave in order to mitigate some of these issues.

Additionally, nurses have considered leaving their employer because of a lack of role flexibility, resources, and support (McGilton, Boscart, Brown, & Bowers, 2014). Yet, their intentions to stay were influenced by the relationships that they had developed as well as the chances they were given to learn and grow on the job (McGilton et al., 2014). These results suggest that, “To retain qualified and skilled licensed nursing staff, the priority must be on interventions that build and maintain these relationships and on strategies to mitigate motivations to leave” (McGilton et al., 2014, p. 924).

Other documented reasons for leaving include misperceptions about the job and organization, lack of person-job fit, stress, insufficient feedback, lack of trust in leadership, lack of job security, and insufficient compensation (Branham, 2005; Oladapo, 2014). These reasons may or may not vary by employee gender. Specifically, while reasons for leaving seem to differ between men and women in their 20’s, as they get older, the differences decrease (Sears, 2017).

Reasons for leaving can also vary by the amount of time individuals have spent at that organization. For example, Sears (2017) found that individuals who left within the first year of employment were more likely to leave due to job characteristics, work-life balance, well-being, and the work environment than those who left after their first year. Of importance is that most of these reasons are preventable with the implementation of appropriate retention strategies. It is also important to note that not all individuals who leave an organization are unhappy with their experience or with the organization itself. In fact, Sears (2017) found that most gave their employer and supervisor positive ratings at 63% and 66%, respectively.

Reasons why employees leave usually come out during exit interviews. Up to this point, research suggests that men and women leave organizations for different reasons, but the picture is made more complicated by the stage of life in which those individuals find themselves. Therefore, there is more opportunity to examine gender differences in reasons for leaving. Also, with some research showing that management-related issues are a top three reason why employees leave (Sears, 2017), other factors related to the subordinate-supervisor relationship may influence reasons for leaving. Specifically, reasons for leaving might vary by supervisor gender and by subordinate-supervisor gender match. Therefore, the following research question is posed:

Research Question 1: How will reason for leaving vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?

During exit interviews, former employees may also be asked to rate other factors such as voice in decision-making, opportunity to grow, and organizational support, which may be considered to be attributes of employer image (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). Current employees, former employees, and the general public may have the same or differing perceptions on an organization's employer image. What has yet to be explored is how responses or ratings provided during an exit interview influence each other. Further, it is unclear as to how these ratings might vary by reasons for leaving. For example, a former employee who left due to career-related reasons might rate voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction differently than someone who leaves for job-related reasons. In order to address this suggestion, I pose the following research question:

Research Question 2: How will (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, (d) relationship with supervisor, and (e) organizational attraction vary by reason for leaving?

In the following chapter, the employee experience and its relation to employer image is presented. Specifically, literature on image attributes such as voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor are discussed. Further, literature on organizational attraction and its relationship with employer image is described.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE EMPLOYEE EXPERIENCE AND ITS RELATION TO EMPLOYER IMAGE

Employee Voice

Employee voice may be thought of as an attribute of employer image, albeit one that has not been explored in such a context. Coming from a current or former employee, voice could be considered an experiential attribute. Specifically, asking someone's perception about the extent to which they had a voice in decisions that affected them gives some indication of what it was like to work for that particular organization. As an attribute of employer image, voice has the ability to impact not only other attributes but also organizational attraction.

Employee voice refers to the ability and opportunity for employees to offer their ideas about ways to improve the workplace, to express their concerns about workplace policies and changes, and to have influence in decisions that are made in the organization (Farndale, Van Ruiten, Kelliher, & Hope-Hailey, 2011; Kim, MacDuffie, & Pil, 2010; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). According to Landy and Conte (2013), "The concept of voice means that the individual has the possibility of influencing a process or outcome" (p. 447). Formality, one dimension of voice, refers to the channels that employees can use to express their voice (Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012). Informal voice channels are not structured; instead, they enable employees to speak about their opinions and concerns to other employees and to management at their convenience, much like a supervisor's open door policy when subordinates can speak to their supervisor any time about concerns and suggestions (Klaas et al., 2012). Formal voice, on

the other hand, refers to structured channels of communication that employers provide to their employees to request their feedback, such as formal employee suggestion or grievance filing systems (Klaas et al., 2012). For this study, having a voice in decisions can refer to either informal or formal channels.

The other two dimensions of voice are focus and identifiability (Klaas et al., 2012). The focus of an employee's voice will be either promoting good or identifying bad, or looking out for oneself versus looking out for others. Lastly, identifiability refers to whether a person can express concerns with or without being identified. When an organizational survey or an interview conducted by a third party can ensure anonymity, employees are more likely to provide feedback that is reflective of their true experience (Campion, 1991).

Others describe voice in terms of being promotive or prohibitive. Promotive voice focuses on new ideas and progress while prohibitive voice focuses on hazards and avoiding harm (Li, Liao, Tangirala, & Firth, 2017). Promotive team voice has been positively associated with team productivity performance gains and prohibitive team voice has been positively associated with team safety performance gains (Li et al., 2017). Promotive voice is also positively associated with job performance, but prohibitive voice is negatively associated with job performance (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017).

According to Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003), there are three kinds of voice: prosocial, defensive, and acquiescent. Prosocial voice refers to expression intended to be positive and to benefit the organization. Defensive voice strives to protect the self, so it refers to expressions that are safe to make in the organization and that distance oneself

from problems. Finally, acquiescent voice refers to agreeing and supporting ideas because the employee feels that he or she does not have the ability to influence or change the decision (Van Dyne et al., 2003).

Voice and Procedural Justice

Voice is one of Leventhal's (1980) rules of procedural justice, which focuses on the fairness of organizational procedures (Landy & Conte, 2013; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Specifically, according to Leventhal (1980), there are various rules that determine whether a process is fair or not, and voice is one of them. Kernan and Hanges (2002) found that voice was the most impactful component of procedural justice. In fact, some researchers have shown that procedural voice is influential enough to act as its own dimension of justice (Jepsen & Rodwell, 2009). Specifically, Jepsen and Rodwell (2009) found that the addition of procedural voice improved a traditional 4-factor model of justice consisting of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice.

Process control refers to the ability for employees to voice concerns about decisions that will impact them, and decision control refers to whether or not employees actually have influence over the decision (Tyler et al., 1985). According to Tyler, Rasinski, and Spodick (1985), increased process control has been linked to perceptions of procedural justice, particularly when decision control is low. Therefore, even if employees do not have much control over the outcome, it is still beneficial to allow them to have voice during the decision-making process. Satisfaction with supervisors, perceived fairness of supervisors, and overall job satisfaction are some outcomes that are impacted by both process and decision control (Miller, 1989).

When employees feel that they do not have opportunities to express their opinions and concerns, or if they are blocked from doing so, then they may perceive procedures, such as performance evaluations, as less fair (Avery & Quiñones, 2002; Landy, Barnes, Farrell, and Cleveland, 1980). This may be especially true for those who have a high appreciation for voice (Geddes, Merriman, Ross III, & Dunlap-Hinkler, 2003). Giving employees voice can also shape their expectations of outcomes. Specifically, employees with a sense of voice might be more likely to believe that they will approve of the outcome (Hildreth, Moore, & Blader, 2014). Further, they might also have more positive reactions to individuals involved in the decision-making (Hildreth et al., 2014). Additionally, if employees are given opportunities to express their opinions before and after a decision has been made, they will view the process as being fair, but the relationship is stronger for expression of opinion before the decision is made (Lind et al., 1990).

Antecedents of Employee Voice

Many employees do not feel comfortable voicing their opinions, concerns, or ideas in their organization or may feel that their opinions are not important (Milliken, Schipani, Bishara, & Prado, 2015). According to Morrison (2014), some factors that can inhibit voice include achievement orientation, detachment, powerlessness, fear, utility, abusive leadership, job and social stressors, climate of fear/silence, hierarchical structure, and a change-resistant culture. However, just as personal, organizational, and supervisor-related factors can inhibit voice, they can also promote it.

There are a variety of personal characteristics that influence employee voice. Specifically, individual differences influence the value placed on and the expression of employee voice. For instance, individuals who are high on extraversion and self-efficacy are more likely to value voice (Avery, 2003). This indicates that the desire to have a strong voice in an organization might not be universal for employees. Also, low self-monitors speak up more than those who are high self-monitors (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Having an internal locus of control, high self-esteem, and personal influence also positively influence voice (Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003; Venkataramani & Tangirala, 2010). Other personal characteristics influential in the expression of voice include a proactive personality, assertiveness, conscientiousness, tenacity, personal initiative, and responsibility (Chamberlin, Newton, & LePine, 2017; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017; Morrison, 2014).

Employees' connection to the organization and their supervisor's characteristics also influence voice. For example, organizational identification, work-group identification, a positive work climate, and organizational support increase employee voice (Morrison, 2014). Also, managers with low managerial self-efficacy are less likely than those with high managerial self-efficacy to ask for input from their subordinates (Fast, Burris, & Bartel, 2014). Additional supervisor-related antecedents of voice include trust in supervisor, supervisor openness, perceived supervisor support, transformational leadership, and leader-member exchange (Andiyasari, Matindas, & Riantoputra, 2017; Morrison, 2014; Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Supervisors also determine the extent to which employee dissent, an expression of voice, is successful. For example, employee

dissent has been deemed successful by supervisors when (a) employees talk about solutions rather than just problems, (b) the employees back up their dissent with critical thinking and rational thoughts, (c) the employees have the benefit of the company in mind, (d) they use the proper channels, and (e) the supervisors can actually do something about the concern being brought up (Garner, 2016).

Outcomes of Employee Voice

There are also many documented outcomes of employee voice that lend support to its importance in the workplace. When employees feel heard by their supervisors and organizations, they are more likely to be engaged and report better emotional and mental well-being (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Kwon, Farndale, & Park, 2016; Rees, Alfes, & Gatenby, 2013). Further, being able to express their thoughts on how decisions are made enhances employees' perceptions of procedural justice (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990).

Not only does having a sense of voice have positive effects on employees, it also positively influences organizational outcomes. Participation in decision making, which is a component of procedural voice, has been linked to organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Goñi-Legaz & Ollo-López, 2017; Holland, Pyman, Cooper, & Teicher, 2011; Jepsen & Rodwell, 2009; Thompson, Buch, & Kuvaas, 2017). Subsequently, employees who are highly committed and have high satisfaction with their jobs are more likely to stay at their organizations (Mor Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001). Further, perceived participative decision-making opportunity has been linked to performance, and this relationship is stronger for those high in self-efficacy (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck,

2002). Employee participation may also benefit performance evaluations. Specifically, managers believe that performance metrics are most appropriate when their subordinates assist in the creation of those metrics (Groen, Wouters, & Wilderom, 2017).

However, the relationship of voice with intentions to stay appears to be mixed. Specifically, one study showed that the greater the number of ways employees can utilize their voice, the better retention rates are for organizations (Spencer, 1986). Employee voice may lead to even greater retention if the organization has management that think positively about change (McClellan, Burris, & Detert, 2013). Yet, the relationship between voice and intentions to stay may depend on employee characteristics as the effect of voice on intentions to remain for one year or for one's career is less powerful for long-tenured employees (Avery, McKay, Wilson, Volpone, & Killham, 2011). However, in a different study with exit interview data, ratings of voice in decision involvement were not significantly predictive of intentions to stay past one year (Sears & Fynes, 2017).

Opportunity to Grow

Another attribute of employer image is opportunity to grow. Similar to voice, opportunity to grow can impact other attributes as well as organizational attraction. However, unlike voice, opportunity to grow is an instrumental attribute. It is an instrumental attribute because it carries with it a degree of utility, and it is tangible.

According to McClelland's (1986) theory of needs and motivational drivers, one universal need that people have is the need for achievement. In essence, individuals have a desire to accomplish goals and pursue advancement opportunities. Within an organization, employees may seek out advancement or other growth opportunities in

order to fulfill this need; when this need is not recognized or fulfilled, employees may become unhappy and decide to look for work elsewhere (Fynes & Sears, 2017).

According to Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, and Lievens (2014), there are three dimensions of organizational career growth: career goal progress, professional ability development, and organizational rewards growth. In other words, opportunities for growth may be related to advancement within an organization or to training opportunities that allow employees to increase their knowledge and skills (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Wang et al., 2014). Growth opportunities may also provide employees with the knowledge and skills needed to advance in the organization. However, all may not have equal access to such opportunities. For example, many of the challenges to achieving opportunities for growth in an organization may be gender-related; such issues are discussed in the next chapter.

Outcomes of Opportunity to Grow

Opportunity to grow impacts many personal outcomes for employees. For example, Frenkel and Bednall (2016) found that training and promotional opportunities are positively related to perceptions of procedural justice and expectations that they will meet their career goals at their current employer. Additionally, perceived investment in employees' development is positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, work effort, and performance (Huang, Chou, & Chen, 2017; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Nguyen, Dang, & Nguyen, 2014). Satisfaction with growth opportunities is also associated with decreased symptoms of burnout and increased organizational citizenship behavior (Jawahar, 2012). Career growth is also negatively

related to emotional exhaustion (Huang et al., 2017). Thus, if organizations do not have such opportunities, employees may feel stuck and become dissatisfied, and the extent to which they perceive their employer as attractive may suffer.

Providing growth opportunities to employees may not only benefit them but also the organization itself. When employees are provided with growth opportunities, they might be both less likely to quit and more likely to stay at the organization past one year (Batt, Colvin, & Keefe, 2002; Sears & Fynes, 2017). Further, developmental and growth opportunities have been cited as the most frequently reported reason for staying at one's current organization for a long time (Fynes & Sears, 2017). It has also been shown that internal promotion policies predict lower quit rates (Batt, Colvin, & Keefe, 2002). These results benefit organizations because better retention rates result in fewer turnover costs (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017).

Organizational Support

Organizational support is another attribute of employer image. Specifically, it can be classified as an experiential attribute. Asking a current or former employee to rate the extent to which they feel/felt supported in their position contributes to the overall perception of what it is/was like to work for that particular organization. As an attribute of employer image, organizational support has the ability to impact not only other attributes but also organizational attraction.

Perceived organizational support (POS) is the extent to which a company values its employees and the work that they do (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). It is a generalized perception of support provided by the employer through the lens

of the employee and is something that employees expect from their organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kurtessis et al., 2015). “According to organizational support theory, employees value POS partly because it meets their needs for approval, esteem and affiliation, plus provides comfort during times of stress” (Eisenberger, Malone, & Presson, 2016, p. 4).

This support can come in the form of benefits, resources, fair policies, respect from superiors, awards and recognition, and, in general, fair treatment (Eisenberger et al., 2016). However, employees and former employees do not let factors that are beyond the organization’s control negatively impact their perception of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2016). Instead, what matters is the intent behind perceived positive or negative treatment (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

Antecedents and Outcomes of Support

There are many antecedents of organizational support including justice, supervisor support, coworker support, growth opportunities, organizational rewards, and favorable job conditions (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Eisenberger et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Waseem, 2010). Further, growth opportunities have even been shown to be a stronger predictor of organizational support than pay level (Waseem, 2010). Given the documented relationship that growth opportunities have with organizational support, it is expected that opportunity to grow will be positively related to organizational support.

Organizational support has been shown to be related to a variety of personal and organizational outcomes. For example, organizational support has been shown to

influence job satisfaction, engagement, positive mood, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, performance, decreased withdrawal and absenteeism, extra- and in-role behavior, self-determined motivation, vigor, and turnover intentions (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Francis, 2012; Gillet, Huart, Colombat, & Fouquereau, 2013; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Others have found that organizational support is related to intentions to stay (Iqbal & Hashmi, 2015; Supangco, 2015). However, Sears and Fynes (2017) found that organizational support was not significantly predictive of intentions to stay at one's current organization.

Eisenberger et al. (2016) suggest, "Based on the norm of reciprocity...employees with high POS are more inclined to care about and further organizational goals" (pp. 4-5). Specifically, "POS initiates a social exchange process wherein employees feel obligated to help the organization achieve its goals and objective and expect that increased efforts on the organization's behalf will lead to greater rewards" (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Perceived organizational support has also been shown to strengthen the relationship between participation in decision-making and perceived insider status (Ding & Shen, 2017). Organizational support also mediates the relationship between organizational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor support and affective commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), the latter of which has been linked to retention (Mor Barak et al., 2001). Given the relationship that participative decision-making and procedural justice have with organizational support, it is expected that voice will be positively related to organizational support.

Support from Supervisors

Given the proximity of direct supervisors to their subordinates, the amount of organizational support that a former employee perceived from their former employer may be based on the support, or lack there-of, that they received from their supervisor. Further, Eisenberger et al. (2016) suggest that supervisors can and do perform actions that strengthen perceived organizational support. Therefore, during an exit interview, when former employees are asked to rate the support that they received from their former employer, they might discuss their supervisor in their response. Indeed, one's supervisor may be seen as a critical part of the organization.

Perceived support from one's supervisor has been shown to influence a variety of outcomes. For instance, perceived supervisor support has been shown to influence perceived organizational support (Radford, Shacklock, & Medford, 2015). Additionally, there is meta-analytic evidence that perceived supervisor support is significantly and positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment (e.g., affective commitment), and performance, and significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions (Edmondson & Boyer, 2013; Ng & Sorensen, 2008). Support from managers has also been associated with positive mental health (Moyle, 1998). Further, having a supportive work environment, specifically having supervisor support, has been shown to be influential in older workers' intentions to stay (Radford et al., 2015). Supervisor support also strengthens the relationship between organizational identification and work engagement (Ötken & Erben, 2010).

Support from one's supervisor is not the only influential factor in the subordinate-supervisor relationship. Indeed, leaders can also empower their subordinates and impact other subordinate-related and organizational-related outcomes. These outcomes sometimes depend on leadership and the type of relationships that supervisors have with their subordinates.

Leadership and the Subordinate-Supervisor Relationship

The relationship that a current or former employee has/had with his or her supervisor can also provide some clarity into what it is/was like to work for a particular organization. Thus, relationship with supervisor can be classified as an experiential attribute of employer image. As an attribute of employer image, the relationship that one has with a supervisor can influence how a current or former employee rates his or her employer on organizational attraction. The ways in which one's relationship with a supervisor can be impacted can be examined in the context of Social Exchange Theory and Leader-Member Exchange.

Social Exchange Theory and Leader-Member Exchange

Social Exchange Theory (SET) posits that relationships are exchanges that are based on each person's or institution's actions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to this theory, individuals who are in high quality relationships have mutual trust and respect for each other (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The individuals are also loyal to and feel an obligation to each other, and they both make contributions to the relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The main rule of social exchange is reciprocity; one person does something for the other person and expects the

other person to do something in return (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When this rule is violated, one person may feel that they are putting everything into the relationship but getting nothing in return, which can damage the relationship.

According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), “Social exchange relationships evolve when employers “take care of employees,” which thereby engenders beneficial consequences” (p. 882). However, if employees believe that they have given everything to an organization but feel that they have not gotten anything in return, whether it be increased involvement, opportunities for growth, or support, then they may no longer view their employer as attractive. Similarly, if employees do what they are asked and are loyal to their supervisor but are not getting anything in return, then that subordinate-supervisor relationship may suffer (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Social exchange between a subordinate and a supervisor is sometimes referred to as leader-member exchange (LMX). The dimensions of LMX include contribution, loyalty, affect, and professional respect (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). LMX theory suggests that the quality of the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate is not the same as the relationship between that same supervisor and a different subordinate (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Hooper & Martin, 2008).

There is meta-analytic evidence that LMX has been positively associated with satisfaction with supervisor, overall satisfaction, role clarity, organizational commitment, task and citizenship performance, and subordinate competence as well as negatively associated with role conflict, counterproductive performance, and turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee & Epitropaki, 2016). However,

if subordinates are aware that their leader and different subordinates have stronger LMX than them, then their job satisfaction may decrease (Hooper & Martin, 2008). Further, it is possible that these particular subordinates will view the supervisor as being unfair and as having favorites.

This is just a sample of leadership styles and leader characteristics that can influence how subordinates perceive their supervisor. Indeed, they may determine how former employees rate their relationship with their former supervisor during an exit interview. For example, Lloyd, Boer, and Voelpel (2017) found that listening quality of the supervisor increased subordinates' satisfaction with their supervisor. Part of listening quality is making it easy for the subordinate to speak openly; this indicates that listening quality could influence the extent to which employees' feel that they have a voice. Additionally, if employees believe that they are working hard and performing well but they are not given growth opportunities or support in return, their relationship with their supervisor might suffer. Because supervisors can play a role in the extent to which their subordinates have a voice in decision-making, to which their subordinates are provided with different opportunities to grow, and to which their subordinates are supported in the workplace, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Relationship with supervisor will be predicted by former employees' ratings of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support.

During exit interviews, former employees may be asked questions about their relationship with their supervisor. Specifically, they may be asked to rate their supervisor

and to indicate their likelihood of wanting to work with their supervisor again. With the wealth of information that can be gained about this topic during exit interviews, it is surprising that this source of data has not been used more frequently. However, research conducted with organizational data has shown that relationship with supervisor is not significantly predictive of staying at one's organization longer than one year (Sears & Fynes, 2017). Yet, it is plausible that relationship with supervisor influences the attractiveness of one's former employer.

Organizational Attraction

Attributes of employer image significantly impact organizational attraction, also referred to as employer attraction (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Therefore, it is important to examine former employees' views of employer image and organizational attraction. For current employees, Pattnaik and Misra (2014) conceptualize employer attractiveness as including recommending one's employer to someone who is seeking employment as well as proudly telling others great things about the organization. In addition, rarely thinking about leaving is part of being attracted to one's employer (Pattnaik & Misra, 2014). Similarly, Highhouse, Lievens, and Sinar (2003), conceptualize organizational attraction as having three components: attractiveness, intentions, and prestige. Attractiveness embodies how individuals feel about a particular organization. Intentions are behaviors that reflect the individuals' perceptions of attractiveness. Finally, prestige refers to how well known the organization is to the public; this organization is typically viewed in a positive light. It is Highhouse et al.'s (2003) conceptualization of organizational

attraction that is best representative of the description of organizational attraction that is used for the present study.

Factors That Influence Attraction

According to Verma and Ahmad (2016), there are six factors that help to determine the attractiveness of one's organization. They include work environment and social, interest, economic, holistic, and cooperation value (Verma & Ahmad, 2016). According to Verma and Ahmad (2016), social value is the most important and interest value is the least important among the six factors. Social value refers to features such as job security, recognition from management, promotion opportunities, acceptance, and positive relationships with supervisors. Interest value includes features such as being a customer-oriented organization and providing innovative services. Economic value refers to features such as good salaries and compensation. Holistic value refers to corporate social responsibility. Cooperation value refers to features such as supportive coworkers. Lastly, the work environment refers to whether the workplace is fun and exciting.

Turban and Greening (1996) claim that an organization's reputation can improve if their own employees spread news of its involvement in corporate social responsibility (CSR). Also referred to as corporate social performance (CSP), it is often described as consisting of community and employee relations, environmental conscientiousness, product quality, and treatment of women and minorities (Turban & Greening, 1996). Backhaus, Stone, and Heiner (2002) found that CSR is related to organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the dimensions of community relationships, the environment, and diversity significantly influence perceived organizational attractiveness (Backhaus et

al., 2002). Ibrahim (2017) also found that CSR positively influences organizational attractiveness. Jones, Willness, and Madey (2014) sought to answer why job seekers find corporate social performance appealing. They found that job seekers associate a strong, corporate social performance with positive treatment of its employees, and they believe that they will experience pride and organizational fit by working for that organization (Jones et al., 2014).

Familiarity may also play a key role in determining organizational attractiveness. In a study of attraction to the military, Lievens, Van Hove, and Schreurs (2005) found that gender, familiarity with military organizations, task diversity, social/team activities, and trait inferences accounted for students' attraction to the military. However, familiarity with military organizations was the strongest influencer of attraction (Lievens et al., 2005). Lievens et al. (2005) are not the only researchers to have found familiarity to be a powerful predictor of organizational attractiveness. Turban (2001) found that familiarity with a firm influenced the attractiveness of that firm. For those looking for a job, their judgement of the similarity between themselves and those with whom they would be working has been shown to predict organizational attractiveness (Devendorf & Highhouse, 2008). These findings lend support for the familiarity heuristic which suggests that what is familiar is trustworthy and safe (Herbert, 2010).

There are a countless number of other factors that influence organizational attractiveness as well. For instance, during recruitment, factors that make a strong impact on organizational attractiveness include a realistic job preview, credibility of the recruiter, and both person-organization and person-job fit (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll,

Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Kaur & Dubey, 2014). Unfair selection policies can also cast a negative light on an organization and hurt its attractiveness through perceptions of a lack of procedural justice (Shaughnessy, Braunt, Hentschel, & Peus, 2016). Ultimately, this lack of attraction can decrease job pursuit intentions. Fair selection procedures can positively influence organizational attractiveness regardless if they get selected for a position or not (Schinkel, van Vianen, & Ryan, 2016).

Research has also shown that individuals prefer to work for ethical organizations and teams over high-achieving and corrupt organizations and teams (Rabl, 2015; van Prooijen & Ellemers, 2015). Indeed, corruption sends up a red flag to some job seekers that deters them from applying (Rabl, 2015). Other organizational and job characteristics can influence attractiveness. According to physicians, hospitals are more attractive as places to work when they are prestigious, offer development opportunities, and provide high organizational and supervisor support (Trybou, Gemmel, Van Varenbergh, & Annemans, 2014). Pay and benefits are rated after the aforementioned factors, indicating that individuals value other factors other than compensation.

Individual differences. However, what makes an organization attractive to a potential applicant may depend on personal qualities of that individual. For instance, it has been shown that those who have low self-esteem are more attracted to decentralized and large firms, and those who have a high need for achievement are more attracted to organizations that value performance rewards (Turban & Keon, 1993). These statements and findings suggest that, when it comes to organizational attraction, person-environment fit may be the most appropriate approach. Findings from Lievens, Decaestecker, Coetsier,

and Geirnaert (2001) would also support a person-environment fit or interactionist approach to organizational attractiveness. While they also found that people are, in general, attracted to decentralized, large organizations, this attraction is stronger for those high in conscientiousness (Lievens et al., 2001). The researchers also found that those who are high in openness are significantly attracted to multinational organizations (Lievens et al., 2001).

Cross-cultural differences, generation, and age may influence organizational attractiveness as well. While some aspects of organizational attractiveness are universal, some are specific to certain countries. For instance, Baum and Kabst (2013) found that, while career opportunities and the working environment appear to be universal, task attractiveness varies across countries. Also, according to millennials in Canada, ethicality, social responsibility, a progressive and inclusive working environment, and diversity are all factors that make an organization attractive (Ng & Gossett, 2013). These factors may have been different if the sample consisted of those from a different generation. Finally, among middle-age workers, organizational attraction has been shown to be influenced by age diversity (Rabl & Triana, 2014). Age diversity may also suggest to individuals that age discrimination is not likely to occur.

Indeed, embracing and being able to display one's unique qualities in the workplace may be just as important for potential applicants. Reis, Braga, and Trullen (2017) found that workplace authenticity was just as significant of a predictor of organizational attractiveness as opportunities for economic and personal development. Therefore, if potential applicants believe that they cannot be their true selves in the

workplace, then they may deem that organization as unattractive and, thus, not apply. This may be especially true for older professionals and women as well as those who will be in top management positions (Reis et al., 2017). These findings give organizations an opportunity to advertise themselves as a place where employees can be themselves and experience psychological benefits as a result (Reis et al., 2017).

Outcomes of Attraction

Organizational attractiveness has been shown to predict employee retention and intentions to stay past one year (Joseph, Sahu, & Khan, 2014; Sears & Fynes, 2017). This suggests that increasing employees' attraction to their employer may increase the chances of them staying with that employer. Ultimately, this may help to prevent talented employees from seeking work elsewhere (Joseph et al., 2014). Additionally, employer image may be magnified if employees tell people outside of the organization about their positive experiences (Joseph et al., 2014).

Frequently, employees will be asked to rate their own employer in an employee engagement survey. However, research has not extensively addressed how potential attributes of employer image such as voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor influence former employees' ratings of organizational attraction. It is important that organizations know the effects of these attributes and how they impact organizational attraction because the latter may influence word-of-mouth behaviors and outsiders' image of the organization. As for the research that is available, Trybou et al. (2014) found that prospective employees indicated that developmental opportunities, organizational support, and supervisor support influence organizational

attraction. Additionally, conflict with supervisors decreases organizational commitment, which could influence employees' attraction to their employer (Janssen, 2004). However, to the author's knowledge, the influence of voice of employee on organizational attraction has not been examined. Yet, voice impacts perceptions of procedural justice, and the latter has been shown to influence organizational attraction (Shaughnessy et al., 2016). Based on these select findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Organizational attraction will be predicted by (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor.

Because supervisors can play a critical role in an employee's experience with his or her employer, relationship with supervisor may account for some of the relationships between voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support and organizational attraction. Constructs related to relationship with supervisor, such as LMX, have been shown to mediate relationships between variables. For example, there is evidence that LMX mediates the relationship between leaders' perceived status and subordinates' job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Venkataramani, Green, & Schleicher, 2010). In general, LMX mediates the relationship between leader behaviors and subordinate performance; here, examples of behaviors are contingent rewards, transformational leadership, consideration, and initiating structure (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017). It can be argued that LMX is a specific type of relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate. Given the mediating impact that LMX has been shown to have, it is possible that a more general perception of a former employee's relationship with his or her

supervisor can have a mediating effect as well. Indeed, voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support may be influenced by specific behaviors of a supervisor.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Relationship with supervisor will partially mediate the relationship between (a) voice and organizational attraction, (b) opportunity to grow and organizational attraction, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction.

Willingness to recommend one's employer or former employer may be indicative of organizational attraction. During exit interviews, former employees may be asked if they would recommend their former employer to a family member, friend, or someone outside of the organization. There is limited literature available on the factors that influence an employee's likelihood to recommend his or her employer. However, Hanin, Stinglhamber, and Delobbe (2013) found that current employees are more likely to recommend their current employer to others when it advertises itself as being an organization with great working conditions, including opportunities for development. This relationship is strengthened by organizational pride (Hanin et al., 2013). Word-of-mouth is a powerful channel through which an organization's employer image can be formed and through which potential applicants' degree of attraction to it can be enhanced (Sullivan, 2004). Thus, it is important for companies to assess whether employees are spreading positive messaging about their employer to outsiders (Sullivan, 2004).

Word-of-Mouth

Recommendations and what people say about an organization can influence the image and attractiveness of that organization. Research has shown that potential employees' image of an organization, including its various attributes, are greatly influenced by word-of-mouth endorsements (Collins & Stevens, 2002). This indicates that what both current and former employees say about an organization matters because it influences how others perceive that organization. Indeed, word-of-mouth can be a very powerful tool that can work both for and against an organization. For instance, just as positive word-of-mouth can increase organizational attractiveness, negative word-of-mouth can decrease organizational attractiveness (Kanar, Collins, & Bell, 2010). Unfortunately for the organization, the latter tends to be more powerful than the former.

Prestigious organizations tend to have greater employee word-of-mouth referrals than those that are considered to be less prestigious (Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen, & Liu, 2015; Van Hoyer, 2008). Van Hoyer (2008) found a variety of factors that increase the likelihood that nurses will recommend their nursing home to others. For instance, nurses reported being more likely to recommend their nursing home if it offered task diversity and was prestigious. In general, nurses may be more likely to personally recommend their nursing home to others rather than giving a statement in recruitment materials (Van Hoyer, 2008). Fair selection procedures can also positively influence likelihood to recommend the organization to others regardless if the applicant gets selected for a position or not (Schinkel, van Vianen, & Ryan, 2016). Word-of-mouth referrals not only have predictive power but they are fast and free (Carroll, Marchington, & Earnshaw, 1999). In addition, when employees are recruiting people they may know, it may help to reduce turnover.

However, unintended consequences such as discrimination may occur from high volumes of personal referrals.

Word-of-mouth has been studied in a variety of contexts, and it occurs more frequently amongst family and friends rather than with individuals with weaker ties to each other (Van Hoye et al., 2016). Bone (1995) found that word-of-mouth influences the judgment of products especially when it comes from a perceived expert. Van Hoye, Weijters, Lievens, and Stockman (2016) found similar results in the context of judgments about organizations. Specifically, they found that job seekers' attraction to an organization was stronger when they received organizational-related information by someone who was employed there and who was a friend. However, when job seekers know that the employees are getting paid for their word-of-mouth, their perceptions of organizational attractiveness decrease (Van Hoye et al., 2016). There have been other findings which show that people like to rely on individuals who they personally know for information about products, services, and organizations. For example, Lloyd, Henry, and Thyne (2011) found that passengers on a cruise ship rely more on word-of-mouth information when it comes from those not employed by the cruise ship.

It is possible that there are gender differences in attributes of employer image and organizational attraction. In the next chapter, gender is discussed in the context of power and Status Characteristics Theory. Further, literature on gender and the attributes described in this chapter as well as literature on gender differences in organizational attraction are highlighted.

CHAPTER SIX

GENDER IN THE WORKPLACE

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) (2018), in 2017, women made up 46.9% of the labor force, those who were 16 years of age and older. More specifically, they held over half of (1) Management, Professional, and Related Occupations (51.6%), (2) Service Occupations (56.6%), and (3) Sales and Office Occupations (61.3%) (BLS, 2018). Breaking down the occupational categories with a majority of women, some of the categories with the highest number of women were as follows: 87.1% of healthcare support occupations, 76.1% of personal care and service occupations, 75% of healthcare practitioners and technical occupations, 73% of education, training, and library occupations, and 72.2% of office and administrative support. However, women only held 5.1% of Natural Resources, Construction, and Maintenance Occupations and 22.8% of Production, Transportation, and Material Moving Occupations.

The statistics are similar for Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) jobs. In 2015, women held 24% of STEM jobs in the United States (Noonan, 2017). Most of these women were employed in physical and life sciences (43%), with the remaining women being employed in computer science and math (26%), as STEM managers (24%), and in engineering (14%). What these STEM and BLS statistics tell us is that many occupations are still highly gendered. Specifically, women are more likely to be found in healthcare, education, and office support, while men are more likely to be found in STEM and other occupations; indeed, healthcare organizations in the present study have a large presence of women.

Simply being female can place one at a disadvantage when applying for a particular job. Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Brescoll, Graham, and Handelsman (2012) had science faculty at universities rate applications for a laboratory manager position. Despite the actual applications being identical, male applicants were seen as more competent and hireable than female applicants. This held true for both male and female faculty. This supports the reality that women often have to “prove” themselves in male-dominated fields and occupations or even show that they can be like “one of the guys” (Smith, 2013). However, in Smith’s (2013) study, women in manual skill trades felt like they still had to be a “girl” in order to be successful at their job. In other words, they had to negotiate their various identities in order to be accepted. The women even claimed that other women in the same trade who were not traditionally feminine were treated more poorly than they were treated. This highlights a dilemma that women face in certain fields- they have to be somewhat “masculine” in how they conduct and present themselves, but not too masculine. Therefore, women have to struggle between finding the right balance of traditional femininity and masculinity.

Further, women who break gender stereotypes also have to deal with implications not experienced by men. For example, women who self-promote are viewed as competent but less likeable and hireable than men who self-promote (Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Self-promotion is viewed as a more masculine activity, so women who engage in it are disconfirming gender stereotypes.

It is important to examine phenomena in the context of gender because it is engrained in every institution in society and it shapes our interactions with those around

us (Ridgeway, 2001). According to Ridgeway (2001), “More than a trait of individuals, gender is an institutionalized system of social practices. The gender system is deeply entwined with social hierarchy and leadership because gender stereotypes contain status beliefs that associate greater status worthiness and competence with men than women” (p. 637). Indeed, there are gender differences with power and status, and these differences can impact how men and women experience voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationships with their supervisors in the workplace. These differences in attributes of employer image can influence their attraction to their former employer.

Gender and Power

According to Ragins and Sundstrom (1989), men and women have differential access to resources; hence, men end up being the ones to use these resources in order to gain power within an organization. Here, power is defined as “influence by one person over others, stemming from a position in an organization, from an interpersonal relationship, or from an individual characteristic” (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989, p. 51). Sources of power include position power, interpersonal relationships, and individual sources of power such as dispositions and skills. Lack of access to resources can impede one’s ability to advance within an organization. It can also make it difficult for that person or group to have any type of influence within that organization. These issues may be more salient for certain groups of employees than others, such as those with low social status. As Lucas and Baxter (2012) describe it, “A consequence of inequalities in access to corporate leadership positions is that it is harder for persons in certain social groups to exercise their will in organizations” (p. 50). In other words, certain people benefit (e.g.,

receive resources) and others lose out due to their status. Even if those with a lower social status attain privileged positions, they are viewed as having been given those positions rather than having earned them. Further, McGuire (2002) claims that access and power do not guarantee assistance or benefits for women. For instance, Black and White women received less help from colleagues than White men even when they had access to resources and were close to those with power in the organization. A person's status gives off signals to others, whether correct or incorrect, about how beneficial it would be to be a part of that person's network. The impact of one's social status, especially as it manifests in the workplace, can be described in greater detail by status characteristics theory.

Status Characteristics Theory

Status characteristics theory is based on early work by Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch (1965, 1971). According to Rehg et al. (2008), "Status characteristics theory argues that those with higher status have more opportunities to contribute to the group task, receive more positive evaluations for doing so, and exert greater influence over the opinions and behaviors of others" (p. 224). In other words, those who are influential in the workplace are the ones with high status. Many individuals, including women and minorities, will try to befriend those with higher status so as to not be automatically associated with attributes of their low social status (Paustian-Underdahl, King, Rogelberg, Kulich, & Gentry, 2017). Status is indicated by varying attributes of a person including their social identity (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). Specifically, people make judgments about an individual's abilities and competence based on attributes related to

social identity. In the workplace, some might base their performance expectations of others on the others' status characteristics, and these expectations lead to behaviors that confirm those expectations.

Status characteristics theory falls under the more general expectation states theory (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). "Expectation states theory seeks to explain the emergence of status hierarchies in situations where actors are oriented toward the accomplishment of a collective goal or task" (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003, p. 31). These status cues and perceptions of those cues will be stronger in situations where gender is a trait that stands out, such as a female in a group of all males or in a mixed-gender setting (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). "In mixed-sex work settings with a gender-neutral task, expectation states theory predicts that, because of the effects of gender status beliefs on performance expectations, men will participate more, be asked to participate more, display more confident and assertive nonverbal cues, and be more influential than women who are otherwise similar to them" (Ridgeway, 2001, p. 645). These effects are even stronger for stereotypically masculine tasks. It may also be challenging for a woman to assert herself in a male-dominated or mixed-gender setting, as others in the group may not allow it to happen or she may face negative consequences from doing so (Ridgeway, 2001). Indeed, Bunderson (2003) adds that it is not just task-relevant cues that determine a person's expertise in a given area, but it is also their social identity status cues. Therefore, men may be viewed as more competent simply because of their status as men.

Even though status characteristics can influence others' perceptions and evaluations, other factors can be more influential. For instance, actual competence is

more related to trust than status characteristics such as age, race, and gender are related to trust (Robbins, 2017). However, status cues based on social identity, such as gender, can play a role in the extent to which employees believe they have a voice in their organization.

Gender and Voice

The employee voice literature does not cover gender extensively. Therefore, little is known about the extent to which male and female employees perceive their level of voice in decisions that impact them. However, voice can be discussed in the context of power, specifically in how the latter can influence the former. Indeed, powerlessness, abusive leadership, a climate of fear/silence, and hierarchical structure, all of which are gendered, can all inhibit voice (Morrison, 2014).

Research has shown that women are interrupted more frequently than men (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). There are also gender differences when it comes to whistleblowing. Even though male whistleblowers with low power are more likely to be retaliated against than male whistleblowers with high power, there is no such difference for female whistleblowers (Rehg, Miceli, Near, & Van Scotter, 2008). This could indicate that power benefits men but not women when it comes to speaking out in the workplace and reporting wrongdoing. As a result, a female, no matter her power level, might be less inclined to report wrongdoing in the first place. Fear of retaliation, or actual retaliation, may thus stifle women's voices in the workplace.

Internalized stereotypes about gender and status may also play a role in the utilization of voice in the workplace. According to Ridgeway (2001), "To decide whether

to speak up or hold back within the constraints of their formal roles, people form implicit assumptions or guesses about the likely value of what they themselves have to offer toward the task compared to what they guess others have to offer” (p. 643). When perceptions associated with status characteristics become internalized, the behaviors associated with those perceptions will be perpetuated. In this case, a female employee may feel that she should not speak up because she believes that others, particularly male colleagues, have more valuable contributions.

However, women’s confidence in their ability to make positive contributions is much higher now than it was in the past (Ridgeway & Correll, 2014). Even though they might be more inclined to use their voice in the workplace than in the past, power, status, and other factors may still inhibit their voice. Given the aforementioned research described, it may be worth exploring if factors such as former employee gender and supervisor gender have an impact on perceptions of voice. While it may be more difficult to hypothesize how voice might vary by supervisor gender, it is suggested that former employees who are female will perceive lower levels of voice than former employees who are male.

Research Question 3: How will the mean of voice vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?

Gender and Opportunity to Grow

Unlike the voice literature, opportunity to grow has been studied extensively in the context of gender. Like voice, it can be examined within the context of power. Specifically, “When hegemonic gender beliefs are effectively salient in a situation, hierarchical presumptions about men’s greater status and competence become salient for participants, along with assumptions about men’s and women’s different traits and skills” (Ridgeway and Correll, 2014, p. 517). Based on these stereotypical beliefs about gender, organizations and supervisors may be more inclined to offer growth opportunities to men because they believe that women are not as competent or that they do not have the desire to grow.

Access to resources is also an indication of power or the ability to acquire power, and men tend to have greater access to resources than women (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). In fact, this access to resources allows male mentors and supervisors to pass them along to their subordinates, often resulting in advancement for their subordinates (Tam, Dozier, Lauzen, & Real, 1995). Therefore, resources such as access to growth opportunities may be more accessible for those with a male supervisor. Given the literature presented, the following research question will be investigated:

Research Question 4: How will the mean of opportunity to grow vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?

These differences may be especially salient in organizations or industries that are male-dominated. For example, pertaining to advancement, there appears to be a gender bias that exists in construction; women have to rely on individual factors, such as work experience, to help them advance in the construction company; in contrast, men have

reported relying on resources from the company and supervisor support to help them advance (Francis, 2017). In general, men are more favored when it comes to having access to resources, and this difference in access may be accentuated in male-dominated organizations and fields, such as STEM (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989).

Gender and Organizational Support

A perceived lack of growth opportunities may also lead employees to feel unsupported, and this may be especially true for women in male-dominated industries. However, research in this area is limited. Though gender differences in perceived support were not examined, it has been found that women in sport organizations have higher organizational commitment and intentions to stay when they have support from top management; this is mediated by perceived organizational support (Spoor & Hoye, 2013). Yet, women in STEM feel that they do not have as much influence or as much access to research equipment and clerical support as men (National Research Council, 2010; Riffle et al., 2013). These findings may be indicative of their status in their organizations, highlighting a power differential between men and women.

Even though research on gender and perceived organizational support is limited, it can be discussed within the context of power. Having a lack of access to valuable resources may make employees feel unsupported in their workplace. Further, those who are in the dominant social group in their workplace want to keep their high status; they do not want to permit “lower” status individuals to gain equal status out of concern that they will lose some of their perks that come with their status (Ridgeway, 2001). This may lead those with both a high social status and a leadership position to be unsupportive of those

with lower social and hierarchical status. It also potentially indicates that women may not be given the same opportunities as men because those who are in charge want to keep their power.

The research described here suggests that women who work in male-dominated industries or organizations will perceive lower levels of support from their organization. This may be a result of power differentials within those organizations. Hence, even across all organizations, women may feel less supported than men, and this effect may be stronger when their supervisor is a man. Because there is not enough documented research about gender and supervisor differences in perceived organizational support to make a hypothesis, the following research question is posed:

Research Question 5: How will the mean of organizational support vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?

Gender, Leadership, and Subordinate-Supervisor Relationships

An individual's perceived ability to lead is determined by behaviors of that individual and the evaluations placed on that individual based on status characteristics and expectations (Ridgeway, 2001). Men's social status gives them access to resources for power that they otherwise may not have had, and it carries with it the assumption that they can achieve power and be a great leader. As a result, men may end up occupying the majority of leadership positions in an organization. This homogeneity has benefits for other men in the organization. Specifically, men may personally benefit from homogenous leadership at the top level of an organization because they believe that this gives them a better opportunity to get promoted to that level; as a result, their job

satisfaction increases (Semykina & Linz, 2013). Also, women's job satisfaction increases when they believe that they have a good chance to get promoted (Semykina & Linz, 2013). This highlights the importance of communication about and awareness of promotional opportunities in the workplace. Indeed, women often perceive that there is a glass ceiling within their workplace (Semykina & Linz, 2013).

Though society has progressed and more women are holding leadership positions, they still face numerous struggles at different points in their leadership development. Much of the time, the lack of women in leadership can be traced back to stereotypes (Agars, 2004). Specifically, their stereotypical qualities are used as a reason against their ability to be good leaders, but if they break with stereotypes, then they may receive social or professional punishment (Tosone, 2009). Women can be perceived as being less competent and ambitious than men which makes others believe that they cannot be leaders; however, when women are competitive, independent, and ambitious, they receive backlash from others (Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Yet, backlash effects may not be as strong when women also embody some stereotypical feminine characteristics, when the organization is not male-dominated, and when others do not hold stereotypical views of women (Phelan & Rudman, 2010).

There is also a double-standard when it comes to what is acceptable behavior for women and what is acceptable behavior for men in the workplace. Specifically, women can be criticized for behavior for which men are congratulated (Tosone, 2009). For instance, research has shown that women tend to view assertive women more negatively than men (Mathison, 1986). Further, everything else being equal, female subordinates

tend to see female leaders as more emotional, nervous, and aggressive than male leaders (Warning & Buchanan, 2008). However, there is also evidence that even if women do not want to work for female leaders, they still think women are good leaders (Warning & Buchanan, 2008).

Even if women advance into a leadership position, their selection might be set up for failure. For instance, when an organization is going through turmoil or is trying to recover from negative events, a woman is often selected for a new leadership role; this is referred to as a glass cliff because the position is risky and has a high chance for failure (Ryan et al., 2012). Women might also be less likely to get second chances than men (Glass & Cook, 2016). Specifically, female leaders' tenures tend to be shorter and they are more likely to be fired and to leave the corporate world. Further, some characteristics of individuals influence the way they view women in management. For example, social dominance orientation in men is negatively related to favorable attitudes toward women as managers (Simmons, Duffy, & Alfraih, 2012); social dominance orientation refers to the degree to which individuals believe certain groups are better and more powerful than others, and they favor social hierarchies. Also, when evaluated for leadership positions, people with traditional stereotypes of women tend to give more skewed and negative ratings of women than people who do not hold such stereotypes (Bauer & Baltes, 2002; Dobbins, Cardy, & Truxillo, 1988).

Women in leadership roles can experience stereotype threat, which can decrease their motivation and engagement (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). In this context, stereotype threat refers to the idea that women in leadership roles are aware of the negative

stereotypes that are associated with female leaders. This awareness can consequently impact the ability of the female leader to be successful in her role. When differences between women and leadership roles are prominent, female leaders may experience a decrease in performance and engagement or may even distance themselves from other females.

With all of this extra pressure that comes with being in a leadership position, women may believe that they need to act in a certain manner in order to be successful. However, the way some carry themselves may be incongruent with the expectations of their subordinates (Lyngsie & Foss, 2017). As a result, they might gain a negative reputation and become labeled as a “Queen Bee” (Mavin & Williams, 2013).

Indeed, negative stereotypes and assumptions about female leaders may influence how subordinates perceive them, which may lead subordinates to provide a low rating for the quality of their relationship with their supervisor. This may occur regardless of employee gender. However, the extent to which male and female subordinates differ in how they rate their relationships with their supervisors is less clear. Based on the summative research on gender and leadership, the following research question will be examined:

Research Question 6: How will the mean of relationship with supervisor vary by
(a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?

Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

Similar viewpoints between a supervisor and a subordinate appear to matter more than demographic similarity when it comes to subordinate performance and satisfaction

(Turban & Jones, 1988). Even though Turban and Jones (1988) did not take gender into account in their study, it is still a factor that can also be influential in the subordinate-supervisor relationship. Specifically, it can influence perceptions for supervisors and subordinates alike. For example, supervisors are more likely to reward a subordinate of the same sex, and this is especially true for male subordinates (Gupta, Jenkins Jr., & Beehr, 1983). Other characteristics can interact with gender as well. For example, when managers are high on social comparison, they prefer for opposite-sex subordinates to express concerns over same-sex subordinates (Guarana, Li, & Hernandez, 2017).

In general, research on subordinate-supervisor gender match has yielded mixed results regarding its impact on various outcomes. For example, trust in one's supervisor has been found to be higher for same-sex supervisors (Scott, 1983). Mentoring has also been shown to be stronger when there is a gender match between mentor and mentee (Tam, Dozier, Lauzen, & Real, 1995). Also, supervisor interactional support increases when there is a gender similarity between supervisor and subordinate, and this is more salient for female subordinates (Winfield & Rushing, 2005). Additionally, in a Malaysian organization, it was found that gender similarity positively influenced LMX, performance, and job satisfaction (Bakar & McCann, 2014).

However, a gender mismatch may not necessarily have negative consequences. Specifically, other researchers have found that a subordinate-supervisor gender mismatch does not impact supervisor support, LMX, job satisfaction, or organizational commitment (Green Jr., Whitten, & Medlin, 2005; Schaffer & Riordan, 2013). Additionally, in a Nigerian sample, the pair with the highest quality of exchange reported was with a male

supervisor and female subordinate; in contrast, a female supervisor with a female subordinate pair was reported as having the weakest quality (Adebayo & Udegbe, 2004). Also, opposite sex supervisors received more positive evaluations than same sex supervisors (Gupta, Jenkins Jr., & Beehr, 1983). In general, Semykina and Linz (2013) found that men do not necessarily perceive working under a woman to be negative.

In male-dominated organizations, women have reported feeling less supported by female supervisors than by male supervisors (Ryan et al., 2012). If women are underrepresented in an organization, they can feel like a token and thus may be less likely to support female subordinates than male subordinates. Indeed, the gender composition of an organization may matter more to the subordinate-supervisor relationship than simply subordinate-supervisor gender match. Paustian-Underdahl, King, Rogelberg, Kulich, and Gentry (2017) found that subordinates perceived the most support from a supervisor when the supervisor was male and there was low gender inequity in the organization, regardless of subordinate gender. The next highest support perceptions were given to female supervisors by male subordinates in an organization with high gender inequity and then to female supervisors by female subordinates in organizations with low gender inequity. This may suggest that female subordinates with female supervisors in organizations with high gender inequity may perceive low levels of supervisor support, resulting in these supervisors being labeled as “Queen Bees.”

The Queen Bee phenomenon. Female leaders sometimes gain a negative reputation due to societal norms, stereotypes, and patriarchal organizations (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). According to Mavin and Williams (2013), the Queen Bee label is a

sexist term that is used to devalue female leaders; indeed, there is no equivalent for male leaders. Originally termed by Staines, Tavis, and Jayaratne (1974), Queen Bees are noticed in organizations with a high number of male employees (Derks, Van Laar, & Ellemers, 2016). In order to thrive in these organizations, women will “present themselves more like men, physically and psychologically distance themselves from other women, and endorse and legitimize the current gender hierarchy” (Derks et al., 2016, p. 457).

The Queen Bee effect is a meso-level leadership barrier for women; in other words, it operates at the organizational level (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Other barriers to leadership include control of women’s voices, lack of support and mentoring, male organizational culture, and work-life conflict. There are consequences that come with Queen Bee behaviors, including consequences for their subordinates, the organization, and the leaders themselves (Derks et al., 2016). Specifically, female subordinates’ motivation and commitment are likely to suffer (Derks et al., 2016; Lyngsie & Foss, 2017). Also, through their grievances with other women in the organization, they reinforce the association between men and leadership (Derks et al., 2016). This might inhibit advancement of women in the organization. As a result of their perceived behavior, Queen Bees may receive less support from female subordinates.

Cummins (2012) contends that Queen Bees have no interest in mentoring female subordinates. However, there has been mixed evidence with research about female leaders and mentorship. For example, in their study of executives, Ragins and Scandura (1994) found that female executives were just as likely to be mentors as male executives.

Further, most of the female executives' mentees were women, dispelling the myth that female leaders do not want to mentor female subordinates. However, there could be an expectation of a female leader to serve as a mentor to a female subordinate. For instance, there is a stereotype that women are supposed to be harmonizers who promote cohesion and support each other no matter the circumstance (Mavin & Williams, 2013). When this solidarity behavior is expected but not perceived, women in lower level positions may form negative perceptions of their female leader. According to Lyngsie and Foss (2017), "A divergence between expected and actual gender solidarity may lead lower-level female employees to perceive female top managers as relatively unsympathetic and unsupportive" (p. 501). However, some female leaders cannot meet those expectations due to situational constraints or due to their own drive for success (Mavin, 2006).

Aside from research on the Queen Bee phenomenon which suggests that female subordinates may be disappointed by a lack of met expectations for having a female supervisor, literature on subordinate-supervisor gender match appears to yield mixed results. Specifically, it appears to depend on the outcomes being measured. Some research suggests that opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor may have the lowest ratings for a female supervisor-female subordinate gender match. However, there is not available research that indicates how employee voice may differ by subordinate-supervisor gender match. Based on this information and the aforementioned literature on subordinate-supervisor gender match, the following research question is proposed:

Research Question 7: How will means of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor vary by supervisor-subordinate gender match?

What is even more uncertain is how subordinate-supervisor gender match will impact the relationships between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor. Specifically, it is unknown if a gender match or a gender mismatch between supervisor and subordinate will strengthen or weaken these relationships. In other words, do male or female subordinates weigh voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support to a greater extent in their relationship with their supervisors, and does it vary by supervisor gender? The following research question is posed:

Research Question 8: How will subordinate-supervisor gender match moderate the relationship between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor?

Gender and Organizational Attraction

A variety of gender differences and similarities in organizational attraction have been documented. One of these differences is the importance of diversity. For instance, women and racial minorities may place greater emphasis on diversity factors when determining organizational attractiveness, and minorities tend to place greater emphasis on recruiter characteristics than non-minorities (Thomas & Wise, 1999). There is additional support for diversity being attractive. Specifically, Bopp, Goldsmith, and Walker (2014) found that diversity statements on brochures increased participants'

intentions of pursuing that particular athletic department job. Additionally, Olsen, Parsons, Martins, and Ivanaj (2016) found that, for women, organizational-sponsored gender diversity management programs influenced ratings of organizational attractiveness through advancement potential. However, an organization does not necessarily need to be diverse in a multitude of ways in order to be attractive. According to Rabl and Triana (2014), when an organization is strong in one type of diversity but not another, it may still lead job seekers to believe that it is a diverse organization and/or that it values diversity.

There are factors other than diversity that can influence gender differences in attractiveness. For example, Tanwar and Prasad (2016) suggest that male employees are more affected by organizational reputation and training and development whereas female employees are more affected by work-life balance, corporate social responsibility, and organizational culture. However, there are also documented similarities in organizational attraction between men and women. For instance, it is important to both men and women that organizations have family-supportive cultures and policies with the former having greater value, especially for women (Wayne & Casper, 2016). This may be due to reports that women cite greater levels of benefit from family-supportive cultures than men (Wayne & Casper, 2016).

Organizational attraction is a condition that is specific to each organization. Hence, it has been studied in the context of what makes an employer attractive to men and women rather than differences in overall gender differences in organizational attraction. However, given the nature of the data available, it is possible to examine mean

differences on organizational attraction from former employees from multiple organizations based on former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match. Therefore, the following research question is posed:

Research Question 9: How will the mean of organizational attraction vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?

In the following chapter, a summary of the arguments presented in the previous chapters is provided. Chapter 7 also describes the overall model that is being tested as well as additional information that is gleaned from analyses. The locations of relevant figures and tables are also provided.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY

Employer branding is used to manage the image that outsiders have of an organization. However, outsiders are not the only group who can have an image of an employer. In fact, current employees can have their own image based on their experiences. This image consists of attributes that can vary from one organization to another. Voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with one's supervisor can be framed as examples of attributes. All but opportunity to grow may be classified as experiential attributes; opportunity to grow is considered to be an instrumental attribute. Employer image and its attributes have been shown to influence a variety of outcomes including organizational attraction.

This study examines employer image and organizational attraction from the perspective of former employees. It also observes employer attributes and organizational attraction in the contexts of gender, leadership, and reasons for leaving. All of this information can be gleaned from exit interviews, the source of data being used for this study. Data from exit interviews are valuable because they can enlighten organizations on their strengths and weaknesses; further, this data can be used to inform strategies that will promote positive outcomes for both current employees and the organization.

Additionally, this data may provide insight into the kinds of information that former employees might be passing along to those outside of the organization. This is important because the information that they pass along to others can influence how they view that particular organization. In other words, this information shapes their own image of that

organization, which, in turn, may influence their usage of that organization's goods and services or increase/decrease the likelihood of the organization attracting talented applicants.

Based on the hypotheses and research questions that were presented, a path model was tested (See Figure 1 in Appendix B). It was suggested that voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support would be directly related to relationship with supervisor and organizational attraction. Additionally, relationship with supervisor would predict organizational attraction. Further, voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support would be indirectly related to organizational attraction through relationship with supervisor. From these analyses, the attribute that had the greatest impact on organizational attraction would be revealed.

Tests of moderation were also conducted based on the suggestion that subordinate-supervisor gender match may moderate the relationship between each predictor variable and relationship with supervisor (See Figures 1-3 in Appendix C). Additionally, correlations and tests of mean differences were conducted on the variables. Also, though not addressed in research questions or hypotheses, the top qualitative reasons for each variable are listed in tables for interest. For convenience, Table 1 in Appendix A lists all study hypotheses and research questions. The following chapter highlights the methods of the study, including the sample, measures, and data analyses.

CHAPTER EIGHT

METHODS

Sample

The data for this study is archival, organizational data that was collected from 2014 to 2017 via both phone- and web-based surveys. The exit surveys were conducted by a third party organization two weeks after the employees had voluntarily left their employer. Former employees were contacted and asked to participate in the exit interview. Some employees did not participate due to refusal or lack of contact. This third party organization engages in consulting, research, talent management, and leadership development. Some of the services it offers includes engagement consulting, pulse surveys, and stay and exit interviews.

The data came from exit interviews conducted with 5,805 former employees from 29 organizations who voluntarily left their organization. This final sample size is about 62% of the original sample of 9,322 former employees. The decrease in sample size was a result of the exclusion of 763 former employees who left involuntarily, 40 who left due to a reason classified as “Other,” and 2,714 who left due to a reason classified as “Health and Family,” “Relocation,” or “Retirement.” These former employees were excluded because the focus of the study was on former employees who voluntarily left the organization due to a reason deemed to be within the organization’s control.

The organizations represented various industries including healthcare, education, broadcasting, equipment supply, insurance, oil, software, engineering, and steel. However, the majority of the former employees were in the healthcare industry,

comprising 80% ($n = 4,628$) of the total sample. Additionally, women comprised 68% ($n = 3,961$) of the sample. Most of these women were in healthcare ($n = 3,556$); women comprised the majority of the healthcare sample at 76.8%. This figure is consistent with BLS data on gender composition of occupations. Specifically, in 2017, women held 75% of the healthcare practitioners and technical occupations and 87.1% of the healthcare support occupations (BLS, 2018). Additionally, in this sample, 66% of former employees in education were women and 28% of former employees in software were women. Consistent with data from the BLS (2018), 73% of those who held education, training, and library occupations in 2017 were women. Also, in 2017, 25.5% of those in computer and mathematical occupations were women and 18.7% of software developers were women (BLS, 2018). Data on the race of the participants in this sample were not available.

The number of participants to be included in data analyses met the minimum requirements for sufficient power (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Some researchers suggest that the sample size needed to achieve a certain amount of power depends on the statistical test. According to Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), for multiple regression, at a .01 alpha level, a population correlation of .20 or greater with at least 300 participants will yield power value of at least .80; even with 1000 participants and a population r of .10, the power value is at .72. For 800 participants, a population correlation of .10 will yield a .60 power value but a population correlation of .20 will be above .995. Alternatively, at the .05 level, a population correlation of .10 or greater with at least 800 participants will yield power value of .81.

According to Schoemann, Boulton, and Short (2017), “Despite the popularity of mediation models, determining appropriate power or sample size for one or more indirect effects is not straightforward” (p. 382). However, Fritz and MacKinnon (2010) found that, at varying sizes of mediation paths, a sample size approaching 558 would be needed in order to have a .80 power value. Given these statements and the sample size of 5,805 participants for this study, it can be confidently concluded that this study had a power value of at least .80. However, it should be noted that the chances of detecting statistically significant relationships are highly likely with large sample sizes (Cohen et al., 2003). Therefore, effect sizes are provided in the results section for all statistical tests that are significant.

Measures

The measures used for the surveys were created by a private third-party organization for use in their standard exit survey. The measures contain either one or two items. Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) claim that .70 is a sufficient reliability coefficient for single-item measures. Single-item scales have been shown to be appropriate, valid, and reliable in the contexts of quality of life (Yohannes, Dodd, Morris, & Webb, 2011) and self-esteem (Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001). Specifically, Yohannes et al.’s (2011) single-item quality of life measure was revealed to have an ICC of .78. Additionally, Robins et al. (2001) found that a single-item measure of self-esteem had high levels of convergent validity with a multi-item self-esteem measure and that the correlations that both of these scales had with various outcomes were similar. Adding support for single-item measures as appropriate alternatives to multi-item measures,

Bergkvist (2014) claims that single-item measures are “as predictively valid as multiple-item measures” (p. 245). Gardner, Cummings, Dunham, and Pierce (1998) support this claim and also suggest that, based on their study, there are no significant empirical differences.

Results from Fisher, Matthews, and Gibbons (2016) also provide support for the use of one-item measures, highlighting that some are more acceptable to use than others. The authors further suggest that the type of single-item measure used depends on the validity-related goal. Specifically, if the goal is to establish convergent validity or internal consistency reliability, then using an item from an established multi-item scale is recommended; however, if the goal is to establish content validity, newly developed one-item measures are recommended (Fisher et al., 2016).

Sometimes using single-item and two-item measures is more practical than using measures with multiple items. Specifically, single-item measures are used in the workplace to reduce administration time (Fisher et al., 2016). Additionally, multi-item measures can cost more money, and they might be viewed more negatively by employees who do not want to take the time to answer long measures (Wanous et al., 1997).

The measures used in this study are similar to those that have been used in the literature. For example, the voice item reflects similar ideas to the perceived voice opportunity items used by Avery et al. (2011) which include “I feel free to express my views at work,” “My supervisor is open to new ideas and suggestions,” and “At work, my opinions seem to count.” As for the organizational support item, it is broad but could be interpreted to cover several facets of Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) perceived organizational

support scale, including the extent to which the organization helps its employees and to which employees feel valued and respected. Further, given that participants were asked to explain their rating, they described what it meant to be supported or unsupported.

Upon searching the literature for measures of opportunity to grow, the author concluded that there was not a well-established, consistently used measure available. However, an opportunity to grow item can be consistently found in some employee engagement surveys (Sears & Fynes, 2017). Further, the opportunity to grow item is related to employee development items used by Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009) that inquire about provision of training and development opportunities to employees. Additionally, it is similar to perception of investment in employees' development items (Lee & Bruvold, 2003) and a satisfaction with growth item used by Jawahar (2012).

Regarding the relationship with supervisor variable, the two items that represent it aim to glean a general sense of former employees' relationships with their supervisor while they were employed. In contrast to other measures relating to subordinate perceptions of their supervisor, this two-item measure does not have items about specific supervisor behaviors. However, the two items that represent relationship with supervisor are similar to an item in Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) 7-item LMX measure- "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?"

Lastly, the two items that represent organizational attraction are similar to items in Highhouse et al.'s (2003) conceptualization of organizational attraction. Specifically, Highhouse et al. (2003) frame organizational attraction as having three components: attractiveness, intentions, and prestige. The recommendation item used in the present

study is almost identical to an intention to pursue item- “I would recommend this company to a friend looking for a job.” Also, the employer rating item seems to be a more general way of asking about attractiveness and prestige, as evidenced by several of Highhouse et al.’s (2003) items: “For me, this company would be a good place to work,” “This company is attractive to me as a place for employment,” and “This company probably has a reputation of being an excellent employer.”

Reason for leaving. Reason for leaving was measured with one open-ended question: “Why did you leave [company]?” Former employees provided text responses that were then coded into categories. This coding process is described in the data analysis section.

Voice. Voice was measured with one rating item: “I felt I had a voice in decisions that affected me in my role.” Former employees responded to a 5-option scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

Opportunity to grow. Opportunity to grow was measured with one rating item: “I felt I had an opportunity to grow at [company].” Former employees responded to a 5-option scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

Organizational support. Organizational support was measured with one rating item: “I felt supported in my position at [company].” Former employees responded to a 5-option scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

Relationship with supervisor. Relationship with supervisor was measured with two items. The first item was a supervisor rating: “How would you rate your direct supervisor?” The second item was a question about working under the supervisor:

“Would you work for your direct supervisor again?” Former employees responded to a 5-option scale for each item. For the first item, the options were: Excellent, Very Good, Good, Fair, and Poor. For the second item, the options were: Definitely Would, Probably Would, Neutral, Probably Would Not, and Definitely Would Not. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for the two-item measure: $\alpha = .93$.

Organizational attraction. Organizational attraction was measured with two items. The first item was an employer rating: “How would you rate [company] as a place to work?” The second item was a recommendation rating: “Would you recommend [company] as an employer to a friend or family member?” Former employees responded to a 5-option scale for each item. For the first item, the options were: Excellent, Very Good, Good, Fair, and Poor. For the second item, the options were: Definitely Would, Probably Would, Neutral, Probably Would Not, and Definitely Would Not. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated for the two-item measure: $\alpha = .82$.

Following each voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction item, former employees were asked, up to three different times, to describe why they gave that particular rating for that item. Then, employees were asked to indicate which reason was the most important. Only the most important reason for each item was used for the analyses.

Former employee gender. Former employee gender was created based on responses from participants to a question about their gender. The two gender options available were male and female.

Supervisor gender. Supervisor gender was created by analyzing qualitative responses to the relationship with supervisor items for key words, such as pronouns, related to gender. The two genders that were coded were male and female.

Subordinate-supervisor gender match. Subordinate-supervisor gender match was created by pairing up the employee's gender with his or her supervisor's gender. In total, four pairs were created: Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor, Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor, Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor, and Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor.

Data Analysis

The data were screened for outliers and to ensure that continuous variables were approximately normal. Bivariate correlations were conducted with all of the variables, and crosstabulations were used to examine the top qualitative themes for each variable. A crosstabulation was also used to examine how reason for leaving varied by former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match (Research Question 1). Also, descriptive analyses were used to examine how mean voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction varied by reason for leaving (Research Question 2). Several additional statistical analyses were used to test the hypotheses and research questions. For example, independent samples t-tests were conducted to test group differences in voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction based on former employee gender and supervisor gender

(Research Questions 3-6, 9a-b). An ANOVA was conducted for the aforementioned variables based on subordinate-supervisor gender match (Research Questions 7 and 9c).

To test the moderating effects of subordinate-supervisor gender match on the relationships between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor, multiple regressions with moderation were conducted (Research Question 8); continuous predictors were mean centered for these analyses. A path model in EQS was also conducted (Hypotheses 1-3). Specifically, relationship with supervisor was used as a mediator between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction. Thus, tests of both direct and indirect effects were conducted via the path model. The overall fit of the model was also assessed.

Lastly, the qualitative data were analyzed by the call and research center used by the third party organization. Data were first analyzed into categories and then into more detailed subthemes. The categories for reason for leaving were: career, time, job, health & family, total rewards, environment, management, relocation, retirement, and other. However, responses that were given the code of “other” were excluded from analyses because the responses were very heterogeneous; further, it was determined that their exclusion would very minimally, if at all, impact the sample size. Additionally, upon examination, it was thought best to remove the categories of Health & Family, Relocation, and Retirement because these individuals either left due to something outside of the organization’s control, did not completely leave the organization, or left the workforce completely. In other words, they did not fit in with the remaining categories,

the latter of which were reasons for leaving that were considered to be more within the organization's control.

The categories for voice, organizational support, and organizational attraction were the same as those for reason for leaving. The categories for opportunity to grow were developmental opportunities, promotional opportunities, type of work, school, and other. The categories for relationship with supervisor were communication, professionalism, management competency, and other. The categories, other than the ones for reason for leaving, carried a plus sign or a minus sign, indicating something positive or something negative being described in the text response.

The results of the analyses described in this chapter are presented in the following chapter, which is Chapter 9. Tables and figures of results are located in the Appendices section. A discussion of the findings is provided in Chapter 10.

CHAPTER NINE

RESULTS

For frequency tables of items and categorical variables as well as qualitative responses to rated items, refer to the tables in Appendix D. Before analyses were conducted, quantitative variables were checked for normality. Voice was non-normally distributed, with skewness of $-.19$ ($SE = .03$) and kurtosis of -1.51 ($SE = .06$). Opportunity to grow was non-normally distributed, with skewness of $-.23$ ($SE = .03$) and kurtosis of -1.54 ($SE = .06$). Organizational support was non-normally distributed, with skewness of $-.56$ ($SE = .03$) and kurtosis of -1.12 ($SE = .06$). Relationship with supervisor was non-normally distributed, with skewness of $-.76$ ($SE = .03$) and kurtosis of -1.07 ($SE = .06$). Organizational attraction was non-normally distributed, with skewness of $-.81$ ($SE = .03$) and kurtosis of $-.56$ ($SE = .06$). There were no outliers in the data.

Healthcare vs Non-Healthcare Participants

Given the high volume of participants from healthcare ($n = 4,628$), tests were conducted to examine any potential differences between healthcare and non-healthcare participants on the measured variables (See tables in Appendix E). Healthcare participants ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 1.59$) perceived a significantly higher opportunity to grow than non-healthcare participants ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.55$), $t(1862) = -3.73$, $p < .01$. Healthcare participants ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.48$) also perceived significantly less organizational support than non-healthcare participants ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 1.40$), $t(1903) = 2.29$, $p < .05$. Healthcare participants ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.53$) also perceived a significantly worse relationship with their supervisor than non-healthcare participants ($M = 3.93$, $SD =$

1.44), $t(1917) = 5.37, p < .01$. In addition, healthcare participants ($M = 3.77, SD = 1.26$) were significantly more attracted to their former organization than non-healthcare participants ($M = 3.66, SD = 1.24$), $t(5803) = -2.65, p < .01$. However, healthcare ($M = 3.20, SD = 1.57$) and non-healthcare ($M = 3.25, SD = 1.51$) participants did not significantly differ from each other on voice, $t(1878) = 1.06, n.s.$ Effect sizes for the significant differences were calculated which yielded small Hedges' g coefficients of .12, .07, .17, and .09 for opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction, respectively; these effect sizes are considered to be small.

Additionally, because the sample size was large, tests for homogeneity of variance were statistically significant. However, following recommendations by Rosopa, Schaffer, and Schroeder (2013), the ratio of the variances for each measured variable for both healthcare and non-healthcare participants was calculated. The variance ratios between the larger and the smaller variance ranged from 1.02-1.14, which did not exceed the 1.5 rule-of-thumb suggested by Rosopa et al. (2013). Therefore, based on the small effect sizes and variance ratios, the decision was made to retain the healthcare participants and non-healthcare participants as one group for the path model and moderation analyses.

Comparing healthcare and non-healthcare participants on reason for leaving categories and detailed reasons for leaving, there were some commonalities and differences among the two groups. For example, career was the top reason for leaving for each group; specifically, 33.3% of healthcare participants and 38.8% of non-healthcare

participants cited this reason. Time was second for healthcare (21.9%) but third for non-healthcare (12.0%). The remaining top three reasons for each group was different with management in third for healthcare (14.5%) and total rewards in second for non-healthcare (19.6%). A chi-square test was performed and a relationship was found between healthcare and non-healthcare participants on the top reason for leaving, $X^2 (5, N = 5,805) = 117.44, p < .01$. There were also some similarities and differences between the two groups on more detailed reasons for leaving with shift/schedule (14.8%), type of work (11.2%), and base pay (9.9%) being the top three for healthcare participants and base pay (18.8%), developmental/growth opportunity (11.6%), and type of work (11.1%) being the top three for non-healthcare participants. A chi-square test was performed and a relationship was found between healthcare and non-healthcare participants on the top detailed reason for leaving, $X^2 (30, N = 5,805) = 364.46, p < .01$. For a list of the top categories and detailed reasons for leaving for healthcare and non-healthcare participants, refer to Table 1-E.

Reasons for Leaving

Lists of top categories and detailed reasons for leaving can be found in Appendix F. For the total sample of participants, the top reason for leaving was career (34.4%) with time (19.9%), management (13.7%), total rewards (12.9%), job (10.2%), and environment (8.9%) following. The top detailed reason was shift/schedule (13.4%) followed by base pay (11.6%), type of work (11.2%), school (8.6%), developmental/growth opportunity (8.0%), and unprofessional management behavior (6.9%).

To address research questions 1a-1c, crosstabulations were conducted. For former employee gender, career was the top categorical reason for leaving for men (39.4%) and women (32.0%). The second and third most frequently cited reason for leaving for men was total rewards (18.3%) and time (13.9%), respectively. The second and third most frequently cited reason for leaving for women was time (22.7%) and management (15.3%), respectively. For detailed reasons for leaving, the top three for men were base pay (17.0%), different type of work (11.4%), and developmental/growth opportunity (10.4%), and the top three for women were shift/schedule (15.6%), different type of work (11.1%), and base pay (9.1%). A chi-square test was performed and a relationship was found between former employee gender for reason for leaving, $X^2 (5, N = 5,805) = 156.32, p < .01$ and detailed reason for leaving, $X^2 (30, N = 5,805) = 240.60, p < .01$.

For supervisor gender, those with a male supervisor ($n = 1,854$) only slightly differed in their reason for leaving than those with a female supervisor ($n = 3,951$), $X^2 (5, N = 5,805) = 87.52, p < .01$. Specifically, the second, third, and fourth most frequently cited reasons differed; the order was total rewards (17.0%), time (14.2%), and management (13.2%) for those with a male supervisor and time (22.5%), management (13.9%), and total rewards (10.9%) for those with a female supervisor, respectively. Notably, the percentage of those who left due to management were very similar for those with a male supervisor and those with a female supervisor. The top three detailed reasons for leaving for those with a male supervisor were base pay (15.7%), type of work (10.2%), and developmental/growth opportunity (9.5%); the top three for those with a female supervisor were shift/schedule (15.7%), type of work (11.6%), and base pay

(9.7%). It is important to note that a management-related detailed reason did not appear until the fifth detailed reason; it was unprofessional behavior (7.4%) for those with a female supervisor. While these detailed reasons differ significantly according to supervisor gender, $X^2(30, N = 5,805) = 184.58, p < .01$, the results may be more of a function of organization type.

There were four categories for subordinate-supervisor gender match: Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor ($n = 3,170$), Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor ($n = 1,063$), Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor ($n = 791$), and Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor ($n = 781$). For reason for leaving by subordinate-supervisor gender match, career was the most frequent and environment was the least frequent reason for leaving across all matches. There was more variation in the top detailed reason among the groups with shift and schedule being the top detailed reason for the Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor group (16.5%) and Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor (12.0%), base pay being the top detailed reason for the Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor group (20.0%), and type of work being the top detailed reason for the Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor group (13.2%). The subgroups were significantly different from each other in both top categorical reason for leaving, $X^2(15, N = 5,805) = 203.74, p < .01$ and top detailed reason for leaving, $X^2(90, N = 5,805) = 397.66, p < .01$. As with reasons for leaving between those who had a female supervisor and those who had a male supervisor, these results may be more of a function of other factors.

It is interesting to note that the percentage of individuals who left due to management varied across matches: Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor (16.2%),

Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor (15.0%), Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor (11.0%), and Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor (9.5%). Examining reasons for leaving in greater detail, a management-related reason, unprofessional behavior, only showed up in the top five of detailed reasons for two subgroups: Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor (#4, 8.1%) and Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor (#5, 8.5%). For lists of detailed reasons for leaving for those whose top categorical reason for leaving was management, see Tables F-8 and F-10 in Appendix F. Across all former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match groups, unprofessional behavior and support were the first and second most frequently cited detailed reason for leaving due to management.

Qualitative Reasons for Each Variable

For a list of top qualitative reasons for quantitative responses given for each item, refer to the tables in Appendix G. The top category and detailed reason for the voice rating was positive management (29.3%) and communication (35.7%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the opportunity to grow rating was positive developmental/growth opportunities (31.0%) and availability (32.2%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the organizational support rating was positive environment (26.8%) and support (35.3%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the employer rating, one of two items representing organizational attraction, was positive environment (38.1%) and communication (27.4%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the employer recommendation rating, one of two items representing organizational attraction, was positive environment (35.0%) and coworkers

(16.4%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the supervisor rating, one of two items representing relationship with supervisor, was positive professionalism (32.1%) and helpful and supportive (23.8%), respectively. The top category and detailed reason for the work for supervisor again rating, one of two items representing relationship with supervisor, was positive professionalism (33.1%) and helpful and supportive (22.5%), respectively.

Correlations among the Measured Variables

The correlations among the measured variables, in addition to means and standard deviations, are provided in Table H-1 in Appendix H. Using effect size descriptions provided by Cohen (1990), all variables were moderately to strongly correlated with one another. The correlation coefficients ranged from .36 to .65, with the weakest correlation being between opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor and the strongest correlation being between organizational support and organizational attraction.

Organizational support had a significantly stronger relationship with organizational attraction than voice ($Z = 6.88, p < .01$), opportunity to grow ($Z = 14.29, p < .01$), and relationship with supervisor ($Z = 13.59, p < .01$) had with organizational attraction.

Additionally, organizational support had a significantly stronger relationship with relationship with supervisor than voice ($Z = 8.01, p < .01$) and opportunity to grow ($Z = 18.75, p < .01$) had with relationship with supervisor.

Tests on Mean Differences

Refer to Tables H-2 through H-8 in Appendix H for means of measured variables by reason for leaving. In general, those who left due to management behavior tended to

have the lowest mean on the measured variables with those who left due to the work environment having similarly low means. Those who left due to career-related reasons tended to have the highest mean on the measured variables with the exception of opportunity to grow. To test research questions 2a-e, ANOVAs were conducted. The main effect of reason for leaving was found for voice, $F(5, 5799) = 229.99, p < .01, \eta^2 = .17$, opportunity to grow $F(5, 5799) = 86.84, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$, organizational support $F(5, 5799) = 374.01, p < .01, \eta^2 = .24$, relationship with supervisor $F(5, 5799) = 386.54, p < .01, \eta^2 = .25$, and organizational attraction $F(5, 5799) = 259.34, p < .01, \eta^2 = .18$. Based on the main effect results, it appears that, out of all of the measured variables, reason for leaving accounted for the greatest amount of variance in relationship with supervisor (25.0%) and the least amount of variance in opportunity to grow (7.0%). Post hoc analyses indicated that most reason for leaving categories were significantly different from each other in all of the measured variables.

However, there were several pairings that were not significantly different from each other. Those who left due to time ($M = 3.53, SD = 1.49$) and those who left due to total rewards ($M = 3.48, SD = 1.53$) were not significantly different from each other on voice. Those who left due to characteristics associated with the job ($M = 3.30, SD = 1.55$) and those who left due to total rewards ($M = 3.24, SD = 1.57$) were not significantly different from each other on opportunity to grow. Those who left due to time ($M = 3.99, SD = 1.24$) and those who left due to total rewards ($M = 3.88, SD = 1.32$) were not significantly different from each other on perceptions of organizational support. Those who left due to career ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.18$) and those who left due to total rewards ($M =$

4.14, $SD = 1.28$) were not significantly different from each other on relationship with one's supervisor; additionally, those who left due to time ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.30$) and those who left due to total rewards ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 1.28$) were not significantly different from each other on relationship with one's supervisor. Those who left due to environment ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.34$) and those who left due to management ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 1.40$) were not significantly different from each other on organizational attraction.

Means and standard deviations were also calculated according to former employee gender (see Table H-9). To address research questions 3a, 4a, 5a, 6a, and 9a, t -tests were conducted. Significant differences were found between former male employees ($n = 1844$) and former female employees ($n = 3,961$) on four of the five measured variables. Specifically, former male employees ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.52$) reported significantly higher levels of voice than former female employees ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.57$), $t(3688) = -5.88$, $p < .01$. Former male employees ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.39$) also reported significantly higher levels of organizational support than former female employees ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.48$), $t(3815) = -7.19$, $p < .01$. Additionally, former male employees ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.39$) reported significantly better relationships with their supervisor than former female employees ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.56$), $t(3979) = -9.86$, $p < .01$. Lastly, former male employees ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.18$) reported significantly higher levels of attraction to their former organization than former female employees ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 1.28$), $t(3877) = -4.45$, $p < .01$. Hedge's g was .16, .20, .27, and .12 for voice, organizational support, relationship with supervisor, and organizational attraction, respectively. Former male

employees ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 1.55$) and former female employees ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.60$) did not differ significantly on levels of opportunity to grow, $t(3690) = -.25$, $p = \text{n.s.}$

Means and standard deviations were also calculated according to supervisor gender (see Table H-10). To address research questions 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b, and 9b, t-tests were conducted. Significant differences were found between those with a male supervisor ($n = 1854$) and those with a female supervisor ($n = 3951$) on two of the five measured variables. Specifically, those who had a male supervisor ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.56$) reported significantly lower levels of opportunity to grow than those who had a female supervisor ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 1.59$), $t(3685) = 3.19$, $p < .01$. Additionally, those who had a male supervisor ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 1.48$) reported significantly better relationships with their supervisor than those who had a female supervisor ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.54$), $t(3770) = -3.92$, $p < .01$. Hedge's g was .09 and .11 for opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor, respectively. However, those with a male supervisor ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.54$) and those with a female supervisor ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.57$) did not significantly differ on levels of voice, $t(3689) = -.65$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Those with a male supervisor ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.43$) and those with a female supervisor ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 1.48$) also did not significantly differ on levels of perceived organizational support, $t(3739) = -.79$, $p = \text{n.s.}$ Additionally, those with a male supervisor ($M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.24$) and those with a female supervisor ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.26$) did not significantly differ on their attraction to their former organization, $t(5803) = 1.51$, $p = \text{n.s.}$

Means and standard deviations were also calculated according to subordinate-supervisor gender match (see Tables H-11, H-12, & H-13). To address research questions

7a, 7b, 7c, 7d, and 9c, ANOVAs were conducted. A main effect of subordinate-supervisor gender match was found for voice, $F(3, 5801) = 12.64, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$. A main effect of subordinate-supervisor gender match was found for opportunity to grow, $F(3, 5801) = 4.15, p < .01, \eta^2 = .002$. A main effect of subordinate-supervisor gender match was found for organizational support, $F(3, 5801) = 19.06, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$. A main effect of subordinate-supervisor gender match was found for relationship with supervisor, $F(3, 5801) = 30.03, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. A main effect of subordinate-supervisor gender match was found for organizational attraction, $F(3, 5801) = 11.56, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$. For a list of the significant post hoc tests, see Table H-14.

Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match as a Moderator

To address research questions 8a-c, continuous by nominal regression analyses were conducted. To run these regressions, voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support were mean-centered and the categorical variable subordinate-supervisor gender match was dummy coded. The gender match of Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor was used as the reference group for both the voice and organizational support regressions because it was the group that had the lowest correlation between voice and relationship with supervisor ($r = .46$) and organizational support and relationship with supervisor ($r = .55$). The gender match of Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor was used as the reference group for the opportunity to grow regression because it was the group that had the lowest correlation between opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor ($r = .30$).

First, a multiple regression analysis was used to test if voice and subordinate-supervisor gender match significantly predicted relationship with supervisor (Research Question 8a). The results of the regression indicated that voice, match, and the interaction terms explained 28.2% of the variance ($R^2 = .282$, $f^2 = .393$, $F(7,5797) = 325.80$, $p < .01$), which was a small but significant change (.001) over the model without the interaction terms ($R^2 = .281$, $f^2 = .393$, $F(4,5800) = 565.73$, $p < .01$). It was found that voice significantly predicted relationship with supervisor ($\beta = .44$, $p < .01$) as did Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .01$), Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .01$), the interaction between voice and Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = .08$, $p < .01$), and the interaction between voice and Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = .03$, $p < .05$). Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor gender match did not significantly predict relationship with supervisor ($\beta = -.01$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) and neither did its interaction with voice ($\beta = .01$, $p = \text{n.s.}$). See Table I-4 in Appendix I.

To test the simple slopes of each subordinate-supervisor gender match category, the file was split by gender match, and a regression with voice predicting relationship with supervisor was run. The regression coefficient of each gender match category was significantly different from zero, and the Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor category had the steepest slope ($B = .53$) (See Table I-5). For a plot of the interactions, see Figure J-1. GLM results are also available (See Table I-1).

Second, a multiple regression analysis was used to test if opportunity to grow and subordinate-supervisor gender match significantly predicted relationship with supervisor

(Research Question 8b). The results of the regression indicated that opportunity to grow, match, and the interaction terms explained 15.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .151$, $f^2 = .178$, $F(7,5797) = 147.24$, $p < .01$), which was a small but significant change (.003) over the model without the interaction terms ($R^2 = .148$, $f^2 = .174$, $F(4,5800) = 252.33$, $p < .01$). It was found that opportunity to grow significantly predicted relationship with supervisor ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$) as did Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .01$), Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = -.06$, $p < .01$), the interaction between opportunity to grow and Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = .10$, $p < .01$), and the interaction between opportunity to grow and Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = .04$, $p < .05$). Male Subordinate-Male Supervisor gender match did not significantly predict relationship with supervisor ($\beta = .01$, $p = \text{n.s.}$) and neither did its interaction with opportunity to grow ($\beta = .01$, $p = \text{n.s.}$). See Table I-6.

To test the simple slopes of each subordinate-supervisor gender match category, the file was split by gender match, and a regression with opportunity to grow predicting relationship with supervisor was run. The regression coefficient of each gender match category was significantly different from zero, and the Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor category had the steepest slope ($B = .39$) (See Table I-7). For a plot of the interactions, see Figure J-2. GLM results are also available (See Table I-2).

Third, multiple regression analysis was used to test if organizational support and subordinate-supervisor gender match significantly predicted relationship with supervisor (Research Question 8c). The results of the regression indicated that organizational support, match, and the interaction terms explained 39.1% of the variance ($R^2 = .391$, $f^2 =$

.642, $F(7,5797) = 533.41, p < .01$), which was a small but significant change (.002) over the model without the interaction terms ($R^2 = .388, f^2 = .637, F(4,5800) = 923.92, p < .01$). It was found that organizational support significantly predicted relationship with supervisor ($\beta = .52, p < .01$) as did Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = -.08, p < .01$), Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = -.05, p < .01$), the interaction between organizational support and Female Subordinate-Female Supervisor match ($\beta = .09, p < .01$), and the interaction between organizational support and Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor match ($\beta = .05, p < .01$). Male Subordinate-Female Supervisor gender match did not significantly predict relationship with supervisor ($\beta = -.02, p = \text{n.s.}$) and neither did its interaction with organizational support ($\beta = .01, p = \text{n.s.}$). See Table I-8.

To test the simple slopes of each subordinate-supervisor gender match category, the file was split by gender match, and a regression with organizational support predicting relationship with supervisor was run. The regression coefficient of each gender match category was significantly different from zero, and the Female Subordinate-Male Supervisor category had the steepest slope ($B = .68$) (See Table I-9). For a plot of the interactions, see Figure J-3. GLM results are also available (See Table I-3).

Path Model Fit and Direct and Indirect Effects

To address hypotheses 1-3, a path model of the measured variables was run in EQS to examine both direct and indirect effects (See Figure B-1). Hypotheses 1a-c were supported. Specifically, voice ($B = .19, p < .05$), opportunity to grow ($B = .07, p < .05$), and organizational support ($B = .48, p < .05$) were significantly predictive of relationship

with supervisor. Hypotheses 2a-d were also supported. Voice ($B = .17, p < .05$), opportunity to grow ($B = .14, p < .05$), organizational support ($B = .34, p < .05$), and relationship with supervisor ($B = .05, p < .05$) were significant predictors of organizational attraction. See Figure K-1 in Appendix K for standardized regression coefficients of direct effects and Tables K-1 and K-2 for regression results.

Hypotheses 3a-d were also supported. Relationship with supervisor partially mediated the relationships between voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support and organizational attraction. Specifically, voice ($B = .01, p < .05$), opportunity to grow ($B = .003, p < .05$), and organizational support ($B = .03, p < .05$) all had small but significant indirect effects on organizational attraction.

The initial path model that was run had poor fit ($X^2(3, N = 5,805) = 4642.92, p < .01$). The chi-square was significantly different from the independence model which had 10 degrees of freedom and a chi-square of 11,650.69; however, the size of the sample inflated the chi-square value and made it difficult to achieve a non-significant p -value. Therefore, other fit indices were examined. The RMSEA was .52, which is not less than the recommended .08 value. The SRMR, which should be less than .08 for good model fit, was .31. Both the CFI and the NFI, which should be greater than .95 for good model fit, yielded a value of .60.

In an attempt to improve the model, two paths that made theoretical sense were added (see Figure K-2). Specifically, direct paths from voice and opportunity to grow to organizational support were added. These additions slightly improved the fit of the model ($X^2(1, N = 5,805) = 1274.83, p < .01$). The chi-square decreased by 3,368.09 from the

initial model to the second model with additional paths. Other fit indices also improved. Specifically, both the NFI and CFI increased from .60 to .89, and the SRMR decreased from .31 to .17. However, the RMSEA only decreased from .52 to .47. See Figure K-3 for the improved path model with standardized regression coefficients.

A summarized results table for the hypotheses and research questions in this study can be found in the Appendix L (See Tables 1 & 2). The next chapter presents a discussion of the results highlighted in this chapter. Theoretical and practical implications, future directions, and limitations of the study are also included.

CHAPTER TEN

DISCUSSION

Employer image has been shown to influence organizational attraction (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). In turn, organizational attraction may influence word-of-mouth behaviors and how individuals converse about that organization. These word-of-mouth behaviors and conversations may impact outcomes that specifically affect the talent of the organization's applicant pool and the extent to which people use its goods and services. Some of the people who have power to impact outsiders' perceptions of an organization are former employees. Indeed, they have their own image of and attraction to their former employer. Organizations can gather this data through exit interviews and not only gain a sense of why their employees are leaving but also how they feel about other aspects of the organization. This information may provide insight into the types of messages that might be spread to outsiders and who might be doing the messaging.

The purpose of this study was to present a new way of examining employer image and organizational attraction, specifically from the perspective of former employees. Exit interview data was used to inform the novel attributes of employer image used in this study. Specifically, voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor were assessed for their impact on organizational attraction, both individually and as an entire model. The attributes of employer image and their relationships with organizational attraction were also studied within the contexts of reason for leaving, former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match. A discussion of the results follows.

Healthcare Organizations Compared to Non-Healthcare Organizations

The healthcare vs non-healthcare analyses revealed that some factors may be best examined by industry. For example, there may be reasons for leaving that are especially relevant to healthcare organizations. Though career was the top reason for leaving for both healthcare and non-healthcare participants, management appeared to be a bigger issue in healthcare than in non-healthcare organizations. Further, detailed reasons for leaving also differed with base pay being number one for non-healthcare participants and shift/schedule being the top reason for leaving for healthcare participants. Therefore, when they leave an organization, healthcare employees may be more likely to talk negatively about the management or scheduling at their organization than other aspects of the organization. As a result, outsiders may come to believe that a particular organization has, for example, a management problem which then becomes part of the organization's image.

These results suggest that, while it is useful to study the reasons employees leave on a broad level, for the development and implementation of retention strategies, it may be wise for organizations to be aware of industry-specific data on reasons for leaving. It appears that time, specifically shift/schedule, and management are major reasons why healthcare employees leave their organization. However, organizations should not solely rely on industry-specific research. Each organization should assess its own retention situation so that they can take strategic action that will reflect the actual needs of the organization. Indeed, researchers have suggested that organizations should make use of

their own organizational data to inform retention strategies (Cascio & Graham, 2016; Fynes & Sears, 2017).

Although an employee's top reason for leaving may be beneficial for informing retention strategies, it does not specify how they felt about other attributes of the organization. Therefore, it is important that organizations ask outgoing employees about attributes of employer image to assess potential strengths and problem areas. Though means of several attributes of employer image were significantly different from each other based on healthcare vs non-healthcare participants, the effect sizes were minimal to small, indicating that ratings of employer image may not vary greatly by type of organization. However, consistent with reason for leaving, the largest rating difference between healthcare and non-healthcare participants was with relationship with supervisor, highlighting a potential major issue with management in healthcare. Indeed, studies have shown that over one-third of healthcare employees report that their supervisors do not meet their expectations when it comes to creating trust, respect, growth and development, and positive results with and for subordinates (Swayne, Duncan, & Ginter, 2006).

Former Employees' Top Reason for Leaving

It is important to note that the economy was much better during the time of data collection, 2014-2017, than it was in previous years, which could have impacted the results of the study (Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2018; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018, 2015). Specifically, because of the health of the economy, people may have had more employment options than they did previously. This potentially indicates that the individuals in this study felt comfortable leaving their employer because they were

confident that they could find a satisfactory job elsewhere. It could also help to explain the high percentage of individuals who left due to reasons related to career development, such as developmental opportunities, promotion opportunities, and type of work. Because of the state of the economy, there may have been a number of opportunities elsewhere that would allow them to grow professionally; or, they may have at least been confident in their chances of finding a growth opportunity elsewhere. Further, this may help explain the high ratings on attributes of employer image and organizational attraction given by those who left due to reasons associated with career development. In turn, these high ratings indicate that, even though individuals may be satisfied with the organization, they will leave if they perceive that there are better opportunities elsewhere.

Indeed, career development was the most frequently cited reason for leaving one's former employer, highlighting the importance of development and growth opportunities to employees. This is consistent with Sears' (2017) findings that career development was the number one reason for leaving among employees. Alternatively, environment was the least frequently cited reason for leaving in this study. This is also consistent with Sears' (2017) findings that work environment was the least cited reason for leaving. Time and management were the second and third most frequently cited, which may mainly be due to the large number of healthcare participants.

Shift/schedule, base pay, and type of work were the top three cited detailed reasons for leaving. The finding that base pay was the 2nd most frequently cited reason for leaving could suggest that individuals place more importance on pay than other factors. However, the percentage of those who left due to base pay was 11.6%, indicating that

slightly over 1 in 10 individuals leave due to base pay. This figure may seem like an underestimation to those who believe that this number is much higher. Indeed, among those who leave, base pay could be a factor but it may not be the most important factor. Also, the high percentage of those who left due to type of work may indicate that, frequently, applicants are not given a realistic preview of the job; they come into the job with certain expectations that end up not being met. Therefore, it is important that organizations provide realistic previews of jobs so that employees' expectations are met and so that they do not lose money due to poor retention.

Career development was the most frequently cited reason for leaving for both men and women. Additionally, type of work was the second most cited detailed reason for leaving for both groups. However, there were some notable differences between the two groups. Specifically, total rewards was second for men and time was second for women. The latter is consistent with time being a major reason why individuals in healthcare left their organization; additionally, shift/schedule was the number one detailed reason for leaving for women. While this may be a function of the job, such as one in healthcare, it may also highlight, on a grander scheme, that organizations are making it difficult for employees to have good work-life balance.

Though time was third for men, management was third for women. In fact, 15% of women versus 10% of men left due to management, potentially highlighting a greater problem that women have with management. Notably, total rewards was second for men but fifth for women; further, base pay was the top detailed reason for leaving for men but the third detailed reason for leaving for women. These results may suggest that men, in

general, are less satisfied with their pay than women and that they believe they could make more money elsewhere. Or, they might feel more familial or societal pressure to seek out a higher salary (Lips & Lawson, 2009). Further, women may believe that they are making a fair amount of money or that they would not be able to make more money elsewhere. Indeed, in the past, research has shown that women have lower expectations for pay than men, and, thus, tend to be more satisfied with their pay (Dawson, 2017; Keaveny & Inderrieden, 2000). However, it is possible that differences in leaving due to base pay between men and women may be a function of organization and job title. Further, as Sears (2017) contended, gender differences in reasons for leaving may be due to more complex factors, such as age/generation and type of organization. Yet, gender differences in leaving may also be due to the importance that men and women place on workplace climate. Specifically, it has been shown that men and women may conceptualize the work climate differently and may place different levels of importance on facets of climate (Falkenberg, Naswall, Lindfors, & Sverke, 2015). In the context of healthcare, an almost equal number of male and female physicians working in the same hospital have reported differences in workplace climate (Falkenberg et al., 2015). For example, female physicians report lower levels of workgroup cohesiveness and cooperation than male physicians, highlighting the different experiences that men and women can have in the workplace.

Indeed, factors that are mostly unique to women, such as sexual harassment and discrimination, can create a negative workplace climate for women (Settles, Cortina, Malley, & Stewart, 2006). In turn, researchers claim that organizational climate

contributes to gender disparities, so it is unsurprising that women might place greater importance than men on workplace climate (Carapinha, McCracken, Warner, Hill, & Reede, 2017). These issues may be more prevalent in male-dominated organizations and occupations (Burgess & Borgida, 1999). Lack of gender representation may impact women to a greater extent as women are more likely to feel excluded when representation of women is low (Maranto & Griffin, 2011). This perception of exclusion may cause women to leave the organization. However, when efforts are made to improve the workplace climate, women have increased satisfaction and are more likely to stay at that organization (Taylor, Beck, Lahey, & Froyd, 2017).

Research has shown that good relationships with coworkers contribute to a positive workplace climate for women (Settles et al., 2006). In this study, those who left due to the work environment left mainly because of coworkers, treatment of employees, and organizational culture. Though work environment was the least frequently cited reason for leaving and there was only a one percent difference between men and women, a greater percentage of women than men left because of coworkers.

Aside from coworkers, there are other workplace relationships that may impact the climate as well. Specifically, more women than men left due to management behavior, the latter of which could also contribute to an employee's perception of the workplace climate. Management behavior can be ethical or unethical; women view ethical behaviors more favorably than men view them (Luthar, DiBattista, & Gautschi, 1997). Because of this difference, women may be less tolerant of supervisors who behave unethically or who contribute to an unethical climate; thus, women may be more likely to

leave due to these factors than men. Other supervisor-related factors that contribute to workplace climate for women include trust in leadership and satisfaction with mentoring (Carapinha et al., 2017).

Reason for Leaving and Supervisor Gender

Although there were some differences in reason for leaving between men and women, there was less variation in top reason for leaving based on supervisor gender and subordinate-supervisor gender match. While the top detailed reasons tended to vary among supervisor gender and subordinate-supervisor gender match groups, any differences may be due to industry. In general, lack of variation may indicate that reasons for leaving, other than due to management, may have little to do with the gender of one's supervisor. Further, and of most relevance, the percentage of those with a female manager who left due to management was similar to the percentage of those with a male manager who left due to management. Thus, based on gender of supervisor alone, there was no difference in leaving. This may indicate that negative stereotypes of female leaders and a bias for male leaders were not strong enough to make people leave due to behavior displayed by a female supervisor more frequently than behavior displayed by a male supervisor.

For subordinate-supervisor gender match, the groups with the largest percentage of leaving due to management was the female subordinate-male supervisor match and the female subordinate-female supervisor match. In other words, a greater percentage of women left due to management regardless of supervisor gender. Going into greater detail, the top management-related reasons that were cited were unprofessional behavior and

lack of support. This suggests that women may be less tolerant of bad supervision or have higher standards for supervisors, regardless of the gender of their supervisor. Indeed, women can have high expectations for female supervisors, especially for the provision of solidarity (Lyngsie & Foss, 2017); yet, to the author's knowledge, there is no available research about female subordinates' expectations of male supervisors. Therefore, it is difficult to say why the rate is also high for female subordinates with a male supervisor. Perhaps, unprofessional behavior was different for female supervisors and male supervisors; unprofessional behavior may be a result of perceived lack of solidarity from female supervisors while, for male supervisors, it may be due to other negatively perceived behavior. Interestingly, men with a female supervisor left due to management less frequently than other groups. This contributes to previous research that shows that men do not necessarily view working for a female supervisor as negative (Semykina & Linz, 2013).

When someone left due to management, they mostly left because of unprofessional behavior followed by a lack of support. This is in contrast to those who left due to perceived supervisor incompetence which made up a much lower percentage of participants. This could indicate that, in general, employees perceive their supervisor as competent and/or that they tolerate incompetence much more than an unprofessional or unsupportive supervisor.

The Reasons behind the Ratings

The main qualitative reason given for answers on the quantitative items was positive for each item. This indicates that most participants gave a particular rating due to

something positive associated with that item. In other words, even individuals who leave an organization often have good things to say about certain attributes of their previous employer. This is in contrast to the narrative of the disgruntled employee who is fed up with everything about his or her employer and, therefore, decides to leave.

The top categorical reason for participants' responses on the voice item was positive management followed closely by negative management. This suggests that employees believe that the amount of voice that they have is contingent upon the behavior of their supervisor. In other words, it is not so much formal channels that make employees feel like they have a voice as it is informal channels, such as through conversations with their supervisors (Klaas et al., 2012). This highlights the important role that supervisors play in their subordinates' perceptions of voice. Communication was the top detailed reason, suggesting that participants gave their rating based on whether they felt they were able to express concerns, opinions, and ideas such as to their supervisors.

The top categorical reason for participants' responses on the opportunity to grow item was positive developmental opportunities, which was followed by negative promotional opportunities and negative developmental opportunities. The top detailed reason was availability. In other words, participants' rating was given mainly based on whether or not developmental or promotional opportunities were available to them. These results indicate that growth opportunities that provide employees with new knowledge and skills can be just as important as those that involve advancement.

The top categorical reason for organizational support was positive environment followed closely by positive management and negative management. These results indicate that the work environment and management are important factors in making employees feel like they are supported. These results are also consistent with the finding that organizational support was the strongest predictor of relationship with one's supervisor; if employees feel as though the organization, and more specifically management, is not supportive, it can impact the relationship that employees have with their supervisor.

The two items that represented relationship with supervisor, supervisor rating and work for supervisor again rating, had very similar qualitative reasons for participants' quantitative responses. Specifically, positive professionalism, positive management competency, and negative professionalism were the top three reasons for each item. In addition, helpful and supportive was the top detailed reason for each item. These results suggest that, while supervisor competence may be important, supervisor professionalism can influence the choice to work with a supervisor again to a greater extent. Or, it may indicate that professionalism is more appealing than competence when it comes to qualities that employees look for in a supervisor.

For the two items that represented organizational attraction, positive environment was the top category and co-workers was the top detailed reason given for ratings on those items; in fact, over one third of participants indicated that the work environment was the top reason for their rating. These results indicate that coworkers, organizational culture, the organization's mission and values, and how it treats its employees may play a

big role in organizational attraction (Chapman et al., 2005; Ibrahim, 2017; Rabl, 2015). However, another implication is that a positive environment and good co-workers are not enough to make someone stay at an organization; if employees have an issue with a different aspect of the organization, they may leave even if they view the environment, in general, as positive.

However, there was variation between the two organizational attraction items in frequency of responses after the top category. Specifically, negative management and negative environment were the second and third top reason for employer rating. This indicates that poor management and a toxic environment can significantly impact how one rates an employer. It also highlights the importance of interpersonal dynamics within organizations. These results are also consistent with the findings that those who left due to management or environment rated all attributes of employer image and organizational attraction lower than individuals who left due to other reasons. Alternatively, positive career and positive total rewards were the second and third top reason for employer recommendation. Therefore, if the environment is positive, if there are opportunities for development and promotion, and if pay and benefits are good, then former employees may be likely to recommend their former employer to others based on these factors.

Relationships among Employer Image Attributes and Organizational Attraction

In general, the means of the measured variables fell at about the middle of the scale but were slightly skewed toward the higher end. As a whole, these results suggest that employees perceive these attributes of employer image and organizational attraction to be a little better than good. For organizations reviewing these results, it is important to

understand the necessity of assessing their own employees on these aspects of employer image as their own results may differ.

However, the finding that voice, followed by opportunity to grow, had the lowest mean out of all of the attributes of employer image may suggest that these two areas are where much of the improvement can be made. To improve voice in the workplace, organizations should ensure that both informal and formal channels of voice are available to employees (Klaas et al., 2012). Specifically, they can execute a strategy that includes a formal channel such as a grievance filing or comment system and training for supervisors on how they can increase the voice of their subordinates. To increase a perception of opportunity to grow, aside from making promotions available, organizations could provide knowledge and skills training for employees and have more effective communication about training opportunities. Providing these opportunities may increase the chances that employees will stay at the organization for a long time (Sears & Fynes, 2017).

The higher mean for organizational attraction, which is closer to very good than good, indicates that, in general, former employees still have some attraction to their former employer. Therefore, even though they left the organization and may find some issues with it, they may still have some positive words to say about the organization and may even recommend it to others. Interestingly, assessing the mean of each item that represented organizational attraction, it was discovered that the mean for employer recommendation was higher than the mean for employer rating. This may be an

indication that even though some employees did not believe that the organization was a good fit for them, they thought it might still be a good fit for other people.

The strength of the correlations among the measured variables may indicate that they are good ratings to include in exit interviews and surveys. Organizational support in particular had high correlations with the other measured variables. This may not be surprising as organizational support has been linked to a variety of positive outcomes (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Francis, 2012; Gillet et al., 2013; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As perception of organizational support increases, the relationship with one's supervisor improves and the attraction to one's previous employer increases which are novel findings that can be added to the existing literature. Additionally, organizational support increases when perceptions of voice and opportunity to grow increase. The latter finding is consistent with previous research (Waseem, 2010). Therefore, because organizational support predicts important outcomes, organizations should implement strategies to increase employees' perceptions of voice and opportunity to grow in the workplace.

From these results, it is apparent that organizational support plays an important role in the relationship that employees have with their supervisor and in the extent to which they are attracted to their former organization. Indeed, it confirms that employees have a need to feel valued by their organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Further, these results may indicate that employees believe that their supervisors play a significant role in the extent to which they are supported in the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2016). In

other words, support from one's supervisor could be seen as an aspect of organizational support.

Employer Image and Organizational Attraction by Reason for Leaving

Depending on the reason why individuals leave an organization, how they rate attributes of their former employer's image and their attraction to that employer can vary. The ways in which they rate these factors may provide great insight into their feelings about the organization and what they might say to others about that organization. For example, those who leave due to reasons associated with management behavior and the work environment may be especially disgruntled. These individuals, on average, rated attributes of employer image and organizational attraction lower than participants who left for other reasons; more specifically, they view voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, relationship with one's supervisor, and organizational attraction as being between fair and good. As a result, they may be more likely to say negative things about the organization to others and may be less likely to recommend it to others. Therefore, organizations need to be especially concerned with how individuals who leave due to these reasons may impact the image that outsiders have them. In return, it may be urgent for organizations to address issues with management and the work environment more quickly than other issues.

Consistent with other results revealing the connection between employee voice and supervisors, the lowest means for those who left due to management were on voice and relationship with supervisor, almost at an even rating of "fair." This, again, supports the strength of the impact that supervisors have on their subordinates' level of perceived

voice. Indeed, documented supervisor-related antecedents of employee voice include trust in supervisor, supervisor openness, perceived supervisor support, and supervisor self-efficacy (Fast et al., 2014; Morrison, 2014).

In contrast to those who left due to management behavior or the work environment, those who left due to career-related reasons had the highest means for four out of the five measured variables. Thus, although they left, these individuals are likely to have an overall positive image of their former employer and may even recommend it to others even though they chose to leave. The attribute of employer image that did not have career as the group with the highest mean was, appropriately, opportunity to grow; however, even for this variable, those who left due to career-related reasons had the second highest mean. This indicates that some opportunities may have been available for these individuals but they did not meet their expectations.

Out of all of the measured variables, reason for leaving contributed the most amount of variance to relationship with supervisor and organizational support. In other words, former employees' top reason for leaving partly determined how they rated their relationship with their supervisor and the amount of support that they received. Indeed, organizational support and relationship with supervisor contained the largest range for means by reason for leaving.

Employer Image, Organizational Attraction, and Former Employee Gender

The importance of workplace climate may also help to explain gender differences on employer image and organizational attraction. Because women had lower ratings on most of the employer image attributes and organizational attraction, it may indicate that

they also perceived a more negative workplace climate than men. When analyses were broken down by employee gender, it was revealed that women reported less voice, less organizational support, a worse relationship with their supervisor, and less organizational attraction than men. The greatest between-gender difference was on relationship with supervisor. This may indicate that women expect more from their supervisors and are thus less satisfied when expectations are not met (Lyngsie & Foss, 2017). Additionally, women may be less tolerant of poor management which ultimately impacts the relationship that they have with their supervisor. Indeed, the differences between men and women on voice and organizational support may have played a role in the difference between men and women on their relationship with their supervisor.

The difference between men and women on perception of voice may be explained by several factors surrounding the construct of power. Specifically, women might have reported less voice than men because of internalized stereotypes about their gender and status in the organization (Ridgeway, 2001); similarly, they may feel that they do not have much influence in the organization (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Or, the suppression of women's voices could be a result of gender bias that exists within the organization, specifically with supervisors themselves. Perhaps, due to a number of reasons, some supervisors welcome ideas, thoughts, and opinions from their male subordinates more often than they do from their female subordinates. Voice is also a facet of workplace climate that can lead to positive outcomes for women (Settles, Cortina, Steward, & Malley, 2007). Therefore, women who perceived low levels of voice may

have experienced high levels of dissatisfaction, the latter of which may have contributed to their decision to leave.

Like voice, the difference between men and women on organizational support may be explained within the context of power. Voice and opportunity to grow are factors that are influenced by power, and these factors can influence the extent to which individuals feel supported in an organization. Further, having less access to resources, associated with voice and opportunity to grow or not, may make women feel less supported (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Additionally, because some people in the organization may believe that women have a lower social status than men, and, as a result, will provide less support to women than men (Ridgeway, 2001). The concept of power can also interact with workplace climate to create an environment where women have to face unique obstacles due to their gender which may lead them to seek higher levels of support from others than men (Maranto & Griffin, 2011). When women do not get the support that they seek out from others, it may cause them to feel unsupported in their workplace.

The difference between men and women on organizational attraction may be explained by higher levels of satisfaction with the organization's attributes and what it offered its employees for men than for women. Similarly, women's values may have conflicted with their experience at their previous employer. According to Tanwar and Prasad (2016), women place more value on work-life balance. With shift/schedule being a top reason for leaving for women, they may have felt a work-life imbalance which ultimately made them leave the organization. This difference in organizational attraction

may also be a result of gender differences on voice, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor, all of which influence the extent to which former employees are attracted to their previous employer.

Unlike the other attributes of employer image, men and women did not differ in opportunity to grow. This is inconsistent with research that has shown that women report having less access to resources in the organization (Francis, 2017; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Further, it is inconsistent with the notion that men are perceived to have greater levels of competence and skill which may result in them being offered more growth and development opportunities than women (Ridgeway & Correll, 2014). However, it is possible that this lack of difference could be the result of the types of industries represented or the gender composition of the organizations represented.

Overall, it appears that women had a worse image of their former employer and were thus less attracted to it than men. As a result, they may be more likely to spread negative information about their former employer to others. However, this hypothesis needs to be studied further.

Employer Image, Organizational Attraction, Gender, and Leadership

Unlike employee gender, there were fewer significant differences on the measured variables between those with a male supervisor and those with a female supervisor. Specifically, the only significant differences between the two groups were on opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor. First, those with a male supervisor reported significantly lower opportunity to grow with their former employer than those with a female supervisor. This contradicts literature that suggests that, because men have

greater access to resources in the workplace than women, male supervisors should have greater access to resources than female supervisors which enables them to pass these resources along to their subordinates (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Tam et al., 1995). However, this difference in opportunity to grow may be due to the sizable number of female supervisors, particularly those in healthcare, and the types of organizations with the highest number of female supervisors.

Though it may seem contradictory to the results for opportunity to grow, those with a male supervisor also reported a better relationship with their supervisor than those with a female supervisor. Indeed, it may indicate that subordinates do not view supervisors as playing a large role in providing them with growth opportunities. Further, because there were no significant differences between the two groups on voice or on organizational support, the argument that differences in these attributes impact the difference in relationship with supervisor is difficult to make. Therefore, it may be possible that stereotypes of female leaders and the double-standards that exist with female leaders influenced the perception of those with a female supervisor and thus impacted their relationship from the perspective of the subordinate (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016; Mathison, 1986; Tosone, 2009).

It is also important to note that the subordinate-supervisor gender match with the worst rating of relationship with supervisor was a female subordinate with a female supervisor; however, a female subordinate with a male supervisor had a rating almost as low. Further, men with a female supervisor had the highest mean on relationship with supervisor. Therefore, the difference on relationship with supervisor between those with a

male supervisor and those with a female supervisor may be mainly attributed to female subordinates with a female supervisor. Many of these female subordinate-female supervisor matches were in healthcare, so it is also key to interpret these relationships within this context. However, in making sense of these results, it is possible that women expect more from their supervisors, especially if their supervisors are female (Lyngsie & Foss, 2017; Mavin & Williams, 2016). As a result, if expectations are not met, female supervisors may be punished in a social and professional sense to a greater extent than male supervisors. Further, for female subordinates in a male-dominated organization, they may come to view their female supervisor as a “Queen Bee” if they do not receive solidarity from them (Derks et al., 2016; Staines et al., 1974).

Aside from relationship with supervisor, there were some significant mean differences between subordinate-supervisor gender match groups on the other attributes of employer image and organizational attraction. Specifically, the greatest difference on voice was between a male subordinate-female supervisor match and a female subordinate-male supervisor match followed by a female subordinate-female supervisor match. This could be a factor of the supervisor himself/herself or the organization, but it could also indicate that men feel like they are able to express concerns and ideas with a female supervisor. Or, it may be that they are given more opportunities to voice their opinions. Indeed, male subordinates may be given more voice or feel like they can and should have a voice because of their social status and the power and positive attributes that come along with that status (Berger et al., 1965, 1971; Rehg et al., 2008; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004).

Like voice, the greatest difference on organizational support was between a male subordinate-female supervisor match and a female subordinate-male supervisor match followed closely by a female subordinate-female supervisor match. Once again, men with a female supervisor reported significantly more organizational support than any other category. These results may be attributed to the fact that men with a female supervisor also reported the highest levels of voice and opportunity to grow. In contrast, women with a female supervisor and women with a male supervisor reported the lowest levels of voice and opportunity to grow. This difference in organizational support may, again, be due to factors associated with status characteristics, specifically men holding a higher status than women (Ridgeway, 2001).

The greatest difference for opportunity to grow was between female subordinates with a male supervisor and male subordinates with a female supervisor. Consistent with other results, the latter had the highest mean on this variable. This could be a function of several factors, including the supervisor and the organization. Though female subordinates with a male supervisor had low means on the variables, it is possible that opportunity to grow is attributed as a responsibility of the organization to a greater extent than it is attributed as a responsibility to the supervisor as opportunity to grow had a small influence on one's relationship with their supervisor. However, it could also mean that female subordinates do not feel as though their male supervisors are invested in their development.

The greatest difference with organizational attraction was, again, between female subordinates with a male supervisor and male subordinates with a female supervisor. The

latter reported significantly more organizational attraction than the former. Because relationship with supervisor had a very minimal impact on organizational attraction, caution should be taken when placing too much emphasis on subordinate-supervisor gender match in this context. However, it is possible that, for some individuals, their relationship with their supervisor, which varied by subordinate-supervisor gender match, impacted how attracted they felt to their former organization.

The Moderating Effects of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

In general, models with interactions only slightly improved models without the interactions. The organizational support model explained most of the variance, almost 40%, in relationship with supervisor out of the three independent variables. Including the interactions improved the model by .3%. The voice model explained the second most amount of variance, around 28%, in relationship with supervisor. Including the interactions improved the model by only .1%. The opportunity to grow model explained the least amount of variance, around 15%, in relationship with supervisor. Including the interactions improved the model by .3%. Thus, the most improvement by adding the interactions, though minimal, was for organizational support and opportunity to grow. Taken together, these results suggest that organizational support plays an important role in one's relationship with his or her supervisor and that subordinate-supervisor gender match should not be considered a strong moderator of these relationships.

Additional analyses revealed that subordinate-supervisor gender match was only a significant moderator in certain cases, which varied by type of match and independent variable. Specifically, neither the male subordinate-female supervisor match nor its

interactions with voice and organizational support significantly predicted relationship with supervisor. Similarly, neither the male subordinate-male supervisor match nor its interaction with opportunity to grow predicted relationship with supervisor.

Further, the lowest association between both voice and relationship with supervisor and organizational support and relationship with supervisor occurred in the male subordinate-male supervisor group. The lowest association between opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor occurred in the male subordinate-female supervisor group. Indeed, these attributes of employer image seemed to matter more to one's relationship with their supervisor for female subordinates with a female supervisor and female subordinates with a male supervisor. Specifically, voice and opportunity to grow had the most impact on how participants rated their relationship with their supervisor for female subordinates with a female supervisor; organizational support had the most impact on how participants rated their relationship with their supervisor for female subordinates with a male supervisor followed closely by female subordinates with a female supervisor.

With these findings in mind, it appears that employees weigh voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support heaviest when rating their relationship with their supervisor when they are females who have female supervisors, or as in the case of organizational support, male supervisors. These findings potentially indicate that female subordinates expect a lot from their supervisors, especially their female supervisors (Lyngsie & Foss, 2001). When these expectations are met, they rate their relationship with their supervisor as very good or even excellent; but, when these expectations are not met, then it significantly hurts the perceived relationship that employees have with their

supervisor. Similarly, female subordinates may believe that their supervisors carry a greater responsibility for providing these attributes than male subordinates.

The Big Picture on Gender in the Workplace

Overall, the results of this study are not positive for women. It appears that, in general, they have different experiences than men and that, more specifically, they may be treated differently than men in the workplace. Not only did women report lower levels of voice, organizational support, and organizational attraction, but they also reported having a worse relationship with their supervisor than men. Further, the gender of their supervisor did not seem to matter when it came to their perceptions of employer image and organizational attraction. There are a number of factors that could be at the root of all of these disparities. Perhaps, women still lack power, influence, and resources in the workplace compared to men. Additionally, stereotypes about women in the workplace may still be perpetuated, which is leading to intentional or unintentional discrimination. Relatedly, cultural expectations and interactional processes concerning gender can produce inequality (Risman, 2004). This may be a reflection of the ways in which gender is practiced in society; indeed, gender is a social institution (Martin, 2004).

Gender is an institution because it has endured over time as something that impacts all aspects of life (Martin, 2004). Further, it is an institution because there are rules and practices that revolve around it; at the same time, it is continuously changing. These rules and practices guide behavior; though, people can break from gender-conforming behaviors. Gendered practices affect the types of experiences that men and women have in the workplace which ultimately damage women's confidence. Often, this

is the result of how men treat women in the workplace, which is often subconscious. This may help to explain the low ratings provided by women with male supervisors in the current study. Yet, women can internalize stereotypes about women and participate in gendered practices as well; this may be evidenced by the low ratings provided by women with female supervisors and the high ratings provided by men with female supervisors.

According to Martin (2006), gender and power are “highly conflated” (p. 267). Because many of those in an organization who are powerful are men, it is difficult for women to claim that they are being treated differently due to their gender (Martin, 2004). Men want to preserve their power and privilege, so they will construct women as others and treat them as such (Risman, 2004). Therefore, they will engage in these gendered practices to keep their power (Martin, 2003). This power that men possess is structural in nature (Martin, 2006). According to Martin (2006), “Even organizations with more women than men employees are usually controlled by men” (p. 267). This could lead to a trickle-down effect of women being disadvantaged and treated differently in those organizations. What this means for this study is that, even for organizations who had a larger number of women, those in power were likely to be men. Therefore, gender composition of an organization may not necessarily matter in how women are treated in the workplace. Further, women’s experiences may not be so different whether they have a male supervisor or a female supervisor.

In essence, the results of this study revealed that gendered practices may still be present in the workplace. Further, these practices may be displayed, intentionally or unintentionally, by men and women alike. Either way, it results in women being at a

disadvantage and being treated differently in the workplace. Thus, the ways in which women are treated in the workplace and the experiences that they have may not fully change until gender as an institution evolves, perpetuation of stereotypes of women decreases among men and women alike, and comfort with men and women having equal access to power increases.

A Novel Model of Employer Image and Organizational Attraction

Supporting the hypotheses, all attributes of employer image were predictive of relationship with supervisor and organizational attraction. These findings are both novel additions to the literature and consistent with previous research. The impact of organizational support on the relationship with one's supervisor has not been examined in this manner in previous research, but its significance may indicate that employees believe supervisors are an important piece of organizational support.

Additionally, voice and opportunity to grow have been shown to be influenced by and to influence supervisor-related factors. Specifically, characteristics of one's supervisor, such as openness and trustworthy, promote subordinates' voice (Morrison et al., 2014). Thus, it makes sense that, because supervisors can influence and are partly responsible for the extent to which employees can use their voice, relationships with supervisors may be impacted by their subordinates' perceived level of voice. Also, because opportunity to grow has been shown to influence factors such as perceived investment in employees' development, job satisfaction, affective commitment, work effort, and performance (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Lee & Bruvold, 2003), it is plausible that subordinates may view supervisors as partly responsible for their growth and

development. If subordinates perceive that their supervisors do not seem to be interested in providing them with growth opportunities or making them aware of such opportunities, then that might impact their relationship.

The results also support previous research on organizational attraction. Specifically, it has been shown that organizational support increases organizational attraction to an employer (Trybou et al., 2014). Additionally, a positive relationship with one's supervisor and promotion/growth opportunities are aspects of social value which has influence on organizational attractiveness (Verma & Ahmad, 2016). While these relationships have been tested or discussed in previous literature, the finding that voice positively influences organizational attraction is a novel finding. This suggests that having a voice in the workplace is important to employees and that it can improve one's overall perception of and attraction to the organization.

Consistent with other findings from this study, organizational support was the most predictive of both relationship with supervisor and organizational attraction. Thus, organizational support may be the most important attribute of employer image as it can impact other attributes of employer image as well as organizational attraction. This also means that if organizations want their employees to have a positive view of them when they leave, they should ensure that they are providing their employees with the support that they need. This way, former employees may not be as disgruntled and may, consequently, be more likely to say positive things about their former employer to others.

On the other hand, opportunity to grow was the weakest predictor of relationship with supervisor. This may indicate that employees do not believe their supervisors play a

major role in providing them with access to developmental and promotional opportunities. Surprisingly, relationship with supervisor was the weakest predictor of organizational attraction. Because those who left due to management had the lowest ratings on attributes of employer image and organizational attraction, one might assume that relationship with one's supervisor would impact organizational attraction to a greater extent. Also, because supervisors are an important part of the employee experience, one might assume that they could affect employees' overall perception of or attraction to an organization. However, it appears that the relationship that one had with his or her supervisor, whether good or not, did not greatly impact their attraction to their organization one way or another. This further suggests that employees are able to separate their relationship with their former supervisor from their perspective of and attraction to their former employer. Consequently, while poor management may cause some people leave, a positive relationship with one's supervisor will not necessarily make that person more attracted to their former organization, at least to a great extent.

Relationship with supervisor was revealed to be a partial mediator of the relationships between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction. However, caution should be taken in spite of its significance as a mediator because the indirect effects were very small. This means that relationship with supervisor accounts for a minimal amount of these relationships. In general, this may highlight the lack of impact that relationship with supervisor has on organizational attraction.

Overall, the original model that was tested had poor fit. Indeed, recommended cutoffs for fit indices are .08 for the RMSEA and SRMR, .90 for the CFI, and .95 for the NFI (Hooper et al., 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). Model fit was only slightly improved by adding two additional paths, one from voice to organizational support and one from opportunity to grow to organizational support. The former was the stronger relationship of the two. These paths and significant results make sense theoretically. Indeed, these results support previous research that found that growth opportunities lead to a greater perception of organizational support (Waseem, 2010). Additionally, justice perceptions have been shown to influence organizational support (Ahmed & Nawaz, 2015; Eisenberger et al., 2016; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); because voice can be viewed as a component of procedural justice, it makes sense that it would influence organizational support. This model with additional paths almost met the recommended cutoff of .90 for the CFI with a value of .89, indicating that this model was on the brink of having good fit according to this particular fit index.

Upon suggestion from the committee, the author conducted an additional path analysis in another attempt to improve the fit of the model. Specifically, because the exogenous variables are not automatically correlated with one another, there were paths that were left untested. Therefore, the framework for the initial model was used with the addition of correlations between voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support. With the addition of these three correlational paths, the chi-square was zero, and the NFI was 1.0, indicating perfect model fit. Because all possible paths were accounted for, it was a just-identified model which left no degrees of freedom. However, perfect fit does

not indicate that the model is valid or that it is the only model. Indeed, the addition of other employer image attributes could form a model of employer image and organizational attraction that also has a high degree of fit. More importantly, though, is that the relationships presented have theoretical support; such support for the relationships in the model that was tested has been described in previous chapters. Further, this theoretical support was backed by significant regression coefficients produced from the relationships in the model.

Theoretical Implications

Most research in academia uses measures and scales that have been tested and administered extensively. However, some organizations may not use these well-established measures for their employee surveys because they take too much time to complete or may be too expensive to use. Thus, there can be a gap between the measures that are used in academic research and those used in organizations. This study used exit interview data from items that were actually used by organizations. Access to exit interview data for academic purposes can be limited, which makes this study distinct from others. Further, the mixed-methods approach of this study was one of its strengths. The quantitative data permitted the testing of relationships between attributes of employer image and organizational attraction as well as the testing of a new model. Further, the qualitative data provided a wealth of information about why former employees rated the quantitative items in the manner that they did. This type of data also provided insight into how ratings of employer image attributes and organizational attraction vary by reason for leaving. Though not tested for reliability in this study, the

one-item measures in this study show that one-item measures that represent well-studied constructs may be appropriate to use, especially in an organizational setting. Plus, the two-item measures displayed good reliability.

This study also presented a new way of examining employer image and organizational attraction from the perspective of former employees. Previous research has been conducted on how employer image impacts organizational attraction, but the attributes of employer image used in this particular study were novel to the employer image literature. Specifically, voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor were considered to be attributes of employer image that can be rated by former employees. Opportunity to grow was framed as an instrumental attribute as has been done previously (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016; Tanwar & Prasad, 2016). On the other hand, voice, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor were framed as experiential attributes, which was a novel way of studying experiential attributes in the context of employer image; experiential attributes have been traditionally used to describe what it is like to use certain products (Keller, 1993; Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). However, this study shows that experiential attributes can also relate to employer image; specifically, they can be used to describe what it is or was like to work at an organization. The results of analyses conducted with these attributes of employer image and organizational attraction show that these attributes, most of which are new to the employer image literature, not only influence each other but they also impact organizational attraction.

This study also makes contributions to the gender and leadership literature.

First, results revealed that it is useful to examine these attributes of employer image and organizational attraction in the context of gender. Specifically, because there were significant differences between the two genders on everything except opportunity to grow, it indicates that men and women still have different experiences in the workplace. For example, they do not feel like they have as much voice, receive as much organizational support, or have as good of relationships with their supervisors as men. Additionally, they are less attracted to their former employer than men. The difference between men and women in voice, in particular, is a novel addition to the voice literature as little research on gender and voice has been conducted in the past. In general, these results indicate that research still needs to be conducted on these constructs within the context of gender in an attempt to solve the problem as to why these differences still exist. Once this has been established, action can be taken to decrease these differences in the workplace.

Gender also played a role in the supervisor-related results of this study. Specifically, the results did not support the superiority of or preference for male or female leaders. For example, for those who left due to management, the percentage of people with a female supervisor who left was almost identical to the percentage of people with a male supervisor who left. Additionally, while those with a male supervisor reported better relationships with their supervisor, the subordinate-supervisor pairings with the lowest means on the attributes of employer image and organizational attraction were women with a male supervisor and women with a female supervisor. The highest pairing was consistently male subordinates with a female supervisor. These findings are

mixed additions to the gender and leadership literature. Specifically, even though a gender mismatch seemed to work best for male subordinates, and gender mismatch did not work particularly well for women; yet, a gender match did not necessarily benefit female subordinates, either. However, these results do highlight the importance of the subordinate-supervisor relationship. Further, an additional question that can be asked concerns the reasons why female subordinates, regardless of supervisor gender, had lower ratings on these attributes and organizational attraction than male subordinates.

Lastly, this study's findings also have industry-based implications. For example, the analyses that compared healthcare to non-healthcare employees provided a snapshot of the unique issues that may plague healthcare organizations. Specifically, many of those employees left for reasons that differed from non-healthcare employees, and it was clear that management was a problem for those in healthcare. This highlights the importance of not solely relying on reasons for leaving across various organizations but for also examining how retention issues vary by industry, and more specifically, by organization.

Practical Implications

The results of this study carry significant implications for organizations. Specifically, they provide greater insight into the aspects of employer image that influence former employees' attraction to their previous employer. Because voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor were impactful predictors of organizational attraction, organizations can take action to assess their organization for these factors and implement strategies to improve them accordingly. For example, because organizational support was shown to have a strong

impact on organizational attraction, organizations can assess their own employees' perceptions of organizational support and take steps to improve the types and amount of support they provide for their employees, if needed.

Analyzing gender differences on attributes of employer image provided a snapshot of how women and men view their former employer. It was found that female employees perceive that they have less voice, less organizational support, and worse relationships with their supervisor; steps can be taken to improve these organizational factors for women. Because no difference was found with opportunity to grow, it may indicate that women are being provided with more developmental and promotional opportunities than ever before. However, it could also be a function of the gender composition of the organizations and the type of industries under which they fall. Further, individual organizations may, intentionally or unintentionally, make it more difficult for women to develop and advance within an organization. Because women had significantly less positive ratings of attributes of their former employer, it is important to take a deeper look into why this is the case. This may be something that should be assessed and addressed by individual organizations based on need.

The findings also provide insight into the role that supervisors play in employer image and organizational attraction. Female subordinates, regardless of supervisor gender, appear to weigh factors as they relate to the relationship with their supervisor heavier than male subordinates. The low ratings given by female subordinates provide an indication that they might have higher expectations of their supervisors, place more importance on these factors, or that they consider these factors to be more related to their

supervisors, more-so than male subordinates. Either way, it is evident that the relationship between supervisors and female subordinates can be improved.

The model of employer image and organizational attraction presented in this study can be used on a broad level with data from multiple organizations, as was the case with this study. Or, it can be used by individual organizations to assess how the relationships in the model may look in their own organization. Even though relationship with supervisor might not influence organizational attraction to a great extent, it is important to assess because people do leave due to management and they might be among the most disgruntled.

Indeed, it is widely believed that most people who leave organizations are doing so because they are disgruntled with the organization. However, this is not always the case. The extent to which someone is disgruntled with the organization may depend on the reason that they left. Specifically, it was found that those who leave due to management behavior or the work environment, on average, rate all aspects of the organization as poor, which may be an indication that they are the most disgruntled people who leave an organization. As a result, they might be more likely to spread negative messaging about the organization after they leave, whether it's via word-of-mouth or through job websites and social media. This negative messaging could greatly impact outsiders' image of the organization, resulting in a less talented applicant pool or decreased use of its goods and services.

This study also highlights the usefulness of exit interview data in providing insight into the employee experience from the lens of former employees. Further, it

supports the use of these types of items in exit surveys and interviews. Incorporating quantitative ratings and qualitative data into the exit interview and other organizational surveys can provide a wealth of information that would be difficult to achieve if only one method is used. Indeed, in order to improve workplace conditions before talented employees leave, pulse and engagement surveys that contain both quantitative ratings and qualitative responses should be administered to employees to attain a sense of their perception of employer image and organizational attraction.

Limitations

There were some limitations of this study. The first several limitations focus on the methods that were used. For instance, the data used were cross-sectional and retrospective in nature; data came from one interview with participants conducted at one point in time, specifically two weeks after they left their employer. Because the interview with each participant was conducted after some time had passed after they left their employer, their recollections may have included inaccuracies or may have suffered from recency bias, focusing mainly on the final weeks of their employment. Additionally, some of the measures that were used were single-item measures. Although the use of such measures is appropriate in certain cases, they may not be as psychometrically sound and comprehensive as multi-item measures that have been used extensively in the literature (Fisher et al., 2016; Gardner et al., 1998; Yohannes et al., 2016).

Additional limitations were that most of the participants were from healthcare organizations and were women. However, any issues associated with these statistics were accounted for by conducting analyses of meaningful differences and calculating effect

sizes that take unequal sample sizes into account. The results of the analyses helped the author to determine that it was acceptable to leave healthcare and non-healthcare organizations as one sample. However, while many organizations were from the healthcare industry, a variety of other industries were included in the sample as well. The author did not include industry as a control variable and did not conduct any industry-specific analyses to see if results varied by industry or if the gender composition of each organization could impact results. However, for the purposes of this study, not delineating between industries was deemed appropriate.

Also, there may be other factors that were not included in the analyses or in the model that could have a significant impact on the relationships that were studied. Specifically, a variable about coworkers was not included in this study, but coworkers can play a major role in an employee's experience at an organization. Thus, interactions with coworkers may be an important attribute of employer image that impacts the extent to which former employees are attracted to their previous employer. Similarly, an attribute such as pay may be important to include in the model.

There was also no job role/title information available for the participants, so it is not known how position or department could have impacted results. Specifically, the importance that employees place on attributes of employer image or the relevance of such attributes to employees may vary by position and department. For example, some employees may have more direct interactions with their supervisor than others which could impact the extent to which other attributes influence their relationship with their supervisor. Additionally, there may be a greater opportunity to grow within certain

departments over others in an organization. Further, the lack of departmental information limits this study's ability to examine departmental differences, such as in organizational attraction.

Finally, the author chose to focus on and include employees who left due to reasons considered to be within the organization's control. Specifically, those who left for more personal reasons, such as health and family, were excluded. Therefore, results and implications should be interpreted within this context. Relatedly, employees' reason for leaving their employer can rarely be narrowed down to just one reason. Rather, it is usually a combination of factors that causes employees to leave. By focusing only on the reason that participants deemed as most important to their decision, other reasons for leaving are ignored. However, for the purposes of this study, only one reason, the most important reason, was used for practicality.

Future Research Directions

Based on the results of this study, there are several directions that future research can take. For example, as stated above, ratings of coworkers were not used in this study. However, relationship with coworkers could be an important attribute of employer image to measure. Therefore, relationship with coworkers, as well as other attributes such as pay, could be added to the model to test new relationships. Another research direction could focus on differences between individuals who voluntarily left due to opportunities elsewhere and those who voluntarily left due to dissatisfaction with some aspect of their employer. For example, someone who leaves because a recruiter extended them an offer for a job with a higher base salary may have a different image of and level of

organizational attraction to their employer than someone who leaves because their job expectations were not met.

Also, a study similar to the present one could be conducted with the inclusion of a follow-up. Specifically, the same participants could be asked about their word-of-mouth behaviors. In other words, they can be surveyed on what they have told others about their former organization or if they have actually recommended their former organization to others. Thus, instead of only assessing how attributes of employer image influence organizational attraction, the impact of organizational attraction on recommendations and positive/negative messaging would also be assessed. In essence, this research is a foundation for future research on former employees and the influence that they can have on others' image of an organization.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine employer image and organizational attraction in a novel way, specifically from the perspective of former employees. In general, results revealed potential for a new model of employer image attributes and organizational attraction that can be assessed using exit interview data. Specifically, voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor were all found to be important to former employees' attraction to their former employer. In addition, these employer image attributes influenced each other.

Results also revealed that ratings on these attributes of employer image and organizational attraction can vary by the reason one left the organization, former employee gender, supervisor gender, and subordinate-supervisor gender match. These

variations may provide insight into who might spread positive or negative messaging about the organization to outsiders, which, consequently, can impact outsiders' image of that organization. The findings of this study not only highlight the role that former employees could play in forming outsiders' image of an organization but also highlight the importance that former employees have in informing organizations of both strengths and problem areas of the organization. It is critical that organizations use exit data to inform action strategies that will improve the workplace, and, subsequently, the image that employees, former employees, and outsiders have of those organizations.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Hypotheses & Research Questions

Table A-1

List of Hypotheses and Research Questions

Hypotheses	Research Questions
<p>1.) Relationship with supervisor will be predicted by former employees' ratings of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support.</p>	<p>1.) How will reason for leaving vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?</p>
<p>2.) Organizational attraction will be predicted by (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor.</p>	<p>2.) How will (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, (d) relationship with supervisor, and (e) organizational attraction vary by reason for leaving?</p>
<p>3.) Relationship with supervisor will partially mediate the relationship between (a) voice and organizational attraction, (b) opportunity to grow and organizational attraction, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction.</p>	<p>3.) How will the mean of voice vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?</p> <p>4.) How will the mean of opportunity to grow vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?</p> <p>5.) How will the mean of organizational support vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?</p> <p>6.) How will the mean of relationship with supervisor rating vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?</p> <p>7.) How will means of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor vary by subordinate-supervisor gender match?</p>

	<p>8.) How will subordinate-supervisor gender match moderate the relationship between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor?</p> <p>9.) How will the mean of organizational attraction vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?</p>
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Appendix B

Path Model

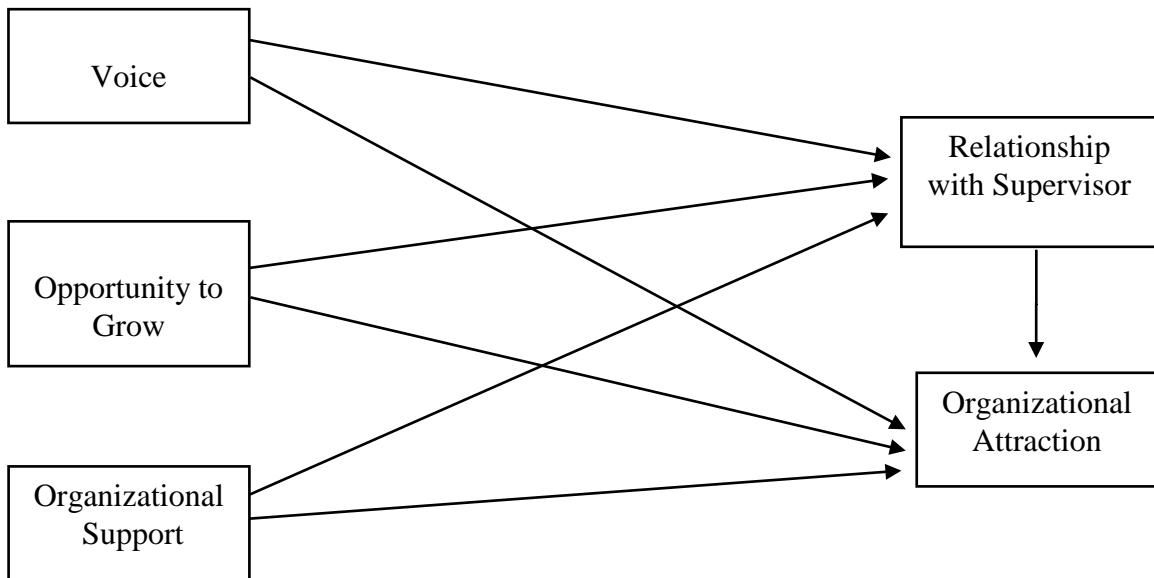


Figure B-1: Direct and Indirect Effects. Voice, opportunity to grow, and organizational support will predict relationship with supervisor (Hypothesis 1). Voice, opportunity to grow, organizational support, and relationship with supervisor will predict organizational attraction (Hypothesis 2). Relationship with supervisor will partially mediate the relationship between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction (Hypothesis 3).

Appendix C

Moderation Models

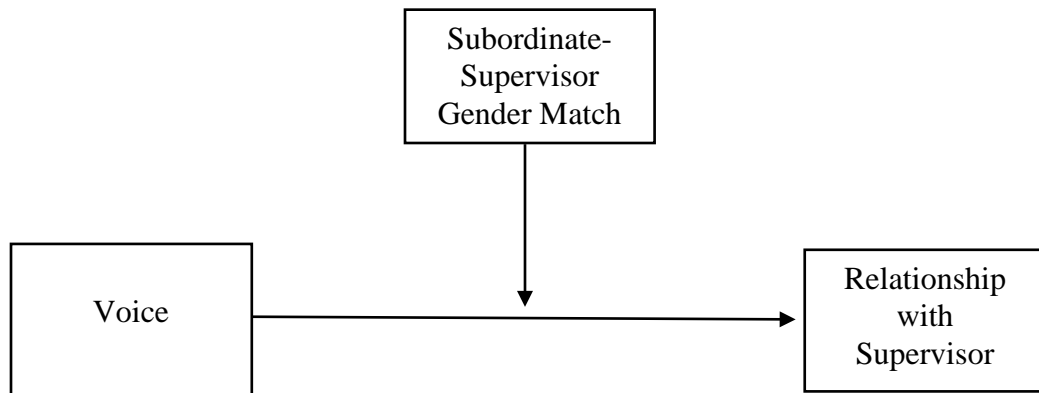


Figure C-1: Interaction effects with subordinate-supervisor gender match and voice. Subordinate-supervisor gender match may moderate the relationship between voice and relationship with supervisor (Research Question 8a).

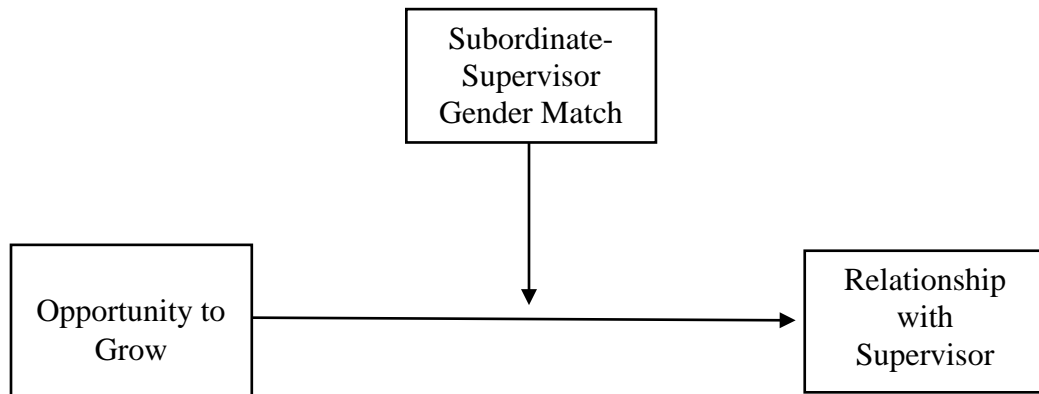


Figure C-2: Interaction effects with subordinate-supervisor gender match and opportunity to grow. Subordinate-supervisor gender match may moderate the relationship between opportunity to grow and relationship with supervisor (Research Question 8b).

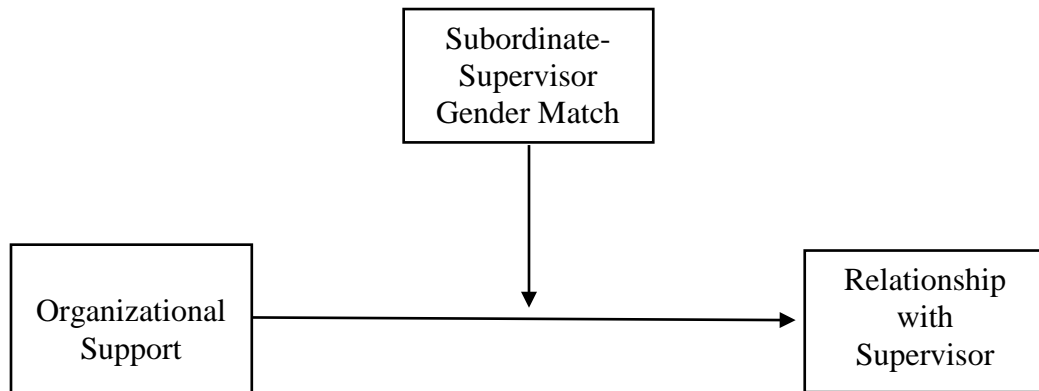


Figure C-3: Interaction effects with subordinate-supervisor gender match and organizational support. Subordinate-supervisor gender match may moderate the relationship between organizational support and relationship with supervisor (Research Question 8c).

Appendix D

Frequency Tables

Table D-1

Frequencies of Former Employees

	Frequency	Percent
Male	1,844	31.8%
Female	3,961	68.2%
Total	5,805	100.0%

Table D-2

Frequencies of Supervisors

	Frequency	Percent
Male	1,854	31.9%
Female	3,951	68.1%
Total	5,805	100.0%

Table D-3

Frequencies of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

Sub	Sup	Frequency	Percent
F	F	3,170	54.6%
M	M	1,063	18.3%
F	M	791	13.6%
M	F	781	13.5%
Total		5,805	100.0%

Table D-4

Frequencies of Reason for Leaving

	Frequency	Percent
Career	1,996	34.4%
Time	1,154	19.9%
Management	796	13.7%
Total Rewards	746	12.9%
Job	594	10.2%
Environment	519	8.9%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-5

Frequencies of Voice Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	1,238	21.3%
Disagree	1,017	17.5%
Neutral	680	11.7%
Agree	1,040	17.9%
Strongly Agree	1,830	31.5%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-6

Frequencies of Opportunity to Grow Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	1,191	20.5%
Disagree	1,050	18.1%
Neutral	593	10.2%
Agree	894	15.4%
Strongly Agree	2,077	35.8%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-7

Frequencies of Organizational Support Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	822	14.2%
Disagree	794	13.7%
Neutral	720	12.4%
Agree	1,249	21.5%
Strongly Agree	2,220	38.2%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-8

Frequencies of Employer Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	448	7.7%
Fair	807	13.9%
Good	1,210	20.8%
Very Good	1,575	27.1%
Excellent	1,765	30.4%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-9

Frequencies of Employer Recommendation Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Definitely Would Not	728	12.5%
Probably Would Not	576	9.9%
Neutral	373	6.4%
Probably Would	987	17.0%
Definitely Would	3,141	54.1%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-10

Frequencies of Supervisor Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	802	13.8%
Fair	695	12.0%
Good	741	12.8%
Very Good	913	15.7%
Excellent	2,654	45.7%
Total	5,805	100%

Table D-11

Frequencies of Work for Supervisor Again Rating

	Frequency	Percent
Definitely Would Not	1,163	20.0%
Probably Would Not	529	9.1%
Neutral	179	3.1%
Probably Would	549	9.5%
Definitely Would	3,385	58.3%
Total	5,805	100%

Appendix E

Healthcare vs Non-Healthcare Results

Table E-1

Top Reasons for Leaving by Healthcare Flag

Healthcare (<i>n</i> = 4,628)	Non-Healthcare (<i>n</i> = 1,177)
1.) Career (33.3%)	1.) Career (38.8%)
2.) Time (21.9%)	2.) Total Rewards (19.6%)
3.) Management (14.5%)	3.) Time (12.0%)
4.) Total Rewards (11.1%)	4.) Management (10.8%)
5.) Job (10.2%)	5.) Job (10.5%)
6.) Environment (9.1%)	6.) Environment (8.3%)

Note. *n* = sample within condition.

Table E-2

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving by Healthcare Flag

Healthcare (<i>n</i> = 4,628)	Non-Healthcare (<i>n</i> = 1,177)
1.) Shift/Schedule (14.8%)	1.) Base Pay (18.2%)
2.) Different Type of Work (11.2%)	2.) Developmental/Growth Opportunity (11.6%)
3.) Base Pay (9.9%)	3.) Different Type of Work (11.1%)
4.) School (9.6%)	4.) Shift/Schedule (7.7%)
5.) Unprofessional Behavior (7.3%)	5.) Other (7.4%)
6.) Developmental/Growth Opportunity (7.1%)	6.) Promotional Opportunities (6.6%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table E-3

Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables by Healthcare Flag

Variable	<u>Healthcare Flag</u>				t(5803)	r^2	p	g
	Healthcare		Non-Healthcare					
	M	SD	M	SD				
	(n = 4,628)		(n = 1,177)					
Voice	3.20	1.57	3.25	1.51	1.06 (1878)	< .01	n.s.	.03
Opportunity to Grow	3.32	1.59	3.13	1.55	-3.73 (1862)	.01	< .01	.12
Organizational Support	3.54	1.48	3.64	1.40	2.29 (1903)	< .01	< .05	.07
Relationship with Supervisor	3.67	1.53	3.93	1.44	5.37 (1917)	.01	< .01	.17
Organizational Attraction	3.77	1.26	3.66	1.24	-2.65	< .01	< .01	.09

Note. n = sample size within condition. r^2 = squared point-biserial correlation. When degrees of freedom are placed next to the corresponding t-value, it indicates that Levene's Test was significant and equal variances are not assumed. Hedges' g was used as an effect size instead of Cohen's d due to the difference in sample size.

Appendix F

Reason for Leaving Results

Table F-1

Top Reasons for Leaving and Detailed Reasons

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) Career (34.4%)	1.) Shift/Schedule (13.4%)
2.) Time (19.9%)	2.) Base Pay (11.6%)
3.) Management (13.7%)	3.) Different Type of Work (11.2%)
4.) Total Rewards (12.9%)	4.) School (8.6%)
5.) Job (10.2%)	5.) Developmental/Growth Opportunity (8.0%)
6.) Environment (8.9%)	6.) Unprofessional Behavior (6.9%)

Note. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding reason for leaving category.

Table F-2

Top Reasons for Leaving by Former Employee Gender

Male (<i>n</i> = 1,844)	Female (<i>n</i> = 3,961)
1.) Career (39.4%)	1.) Career (32.0%)
2.) Total Rewards (18.3%)	2.) Time (22.7%)
3.) Time (13.9%)	3.) Management (15.3%)
4.) Management (10.4%)	4.) Job (10.4%)
5.) Job (9.8%)	5.) Total Rewards (10.3%)
6.) Environment (8.2%)	6.) Environment (9.3%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-3

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving by Former Employee Gender

Male (<i>n</i> = 1,844)	Female (<i>n</i> = 3,961)
1.) Base Pay (17.0%)	1.) Shift/Schedule (15.6%)
2.) Different Type of Work (11.4%)	2.) Different Type of Work (11.1%)
3.) Developmental/Growth Opportunity (10.4%)	3.) Base Pay (9.1%)
4.) School (9.7%)	4.) Unprofessional Behavior (8.2%)
5.) Shift/Schedule (8.7%)	5.) School (8.1%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-4

Top Reasons for Leaving by Supervisor Gender

Male (<i>n</i> = 1,854)	Female (<i>n</i> = 3,951)
1.) Career (37.1%)	1.) Career (33.1%)
2.) Total Rewards (17.0%)	2.) Time (22.5%)
3.) Time (14.2%)	3.) Management (13.9%)
4.) Management (13.2%)	4.) Total Rewards (10.9%)
6.) Job (9.5%)	6.) Job (10.6%)
9.) Environment (9.0%)	9.) Environment (8.9%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-5

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving by Supervisor Gender

Male (<i>n</i> = 1,854)	Female (<i>n</i> = 3,951)
1.) Base Pay (15.7%)	1.) Shift/Schedule (15.7%)
2.) Different Type of Work (10.2%)	2.) Different Type of Work (11.6%)
3.) Developmental/Growth Opportunity (9.5%)	3.) Base Pay (9.7%)
4.) Shift/Schedule (8.5%)	4.) School (8.7%)
5.) School (8.5%)	5.) Unprofessional Behavior (7.4%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-6

Top Reasons for Leaving by Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

F Sub F Sup (<i>n</i> = 3,170)	M Sub M Sup (<i>n</i> = 1,063)	F Sub M Sup (<i>n</i> = 791)	M Sub F Sup (<i>n</i> = 781)
1.) Career (31.0%)	1.) Career (37.7%)	1.) Career (36.2.1%)	1.) Career (41.7%)
2.) Time (23.8%)	2.) Total Rewards (21.3%)	2.) Time (18.0%)	2.) Time (17.2%)
3.) Management (15.0%)	3.) Time (11.5%)	3.) Management (16.2%)	3.) Total Rewards (14.3%)
4.) Job (10.7%)	4.) Management (11.0%)	4.) Total Rewards (11.3%)	4.) Job (10.2%)
5.) Total Rewards (10.1%)	5.) Job (9.5%)	5.) Job (9.5%)	5.) Management (9.5%)
6.) Environment (9.4%)	6.) Environment (9.0%)	6.) Environment (9.0%)	6.) Environment (7.0%)

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-7

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving by Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

F Sub F Sup (n = 3,170)	M Sub M Sup (n = 1,063)	F Sub M Sup (n = 791)	M Sub F Sup (n = 781)
1.) Shift/Schedule (16.5%)	1.) Base Pay (20.0%)	1.) Shift/Schedule (12.0%)	1.) Type of Work (13.2%)
2.) Type of Work (11.2%)	2.) Growth Opp (10.7%)	2.) Type of Work (10.5%)	2.) Base Pay (12.9%)
3.) Base Pay (8.9%)	3.) Type of Work (10.1%)	3.) Base Pay (10.0%)	3.) School (12.7%)
4.) Unprofessional (8.1%)	4.) School (7.4%)	4.) School (9.9%)	4.) Shift/Schedule (12.7%)
5.) School (7.7%)	5.) Other (6.4%)	5.) Unprofessional (8.5%)	5.) Growth Opp (9.9%)

Note. n = sample size within condition. Growth Opp = Developmental/Growth Opportunity. Unprofessional = Unprofessional Behavior of Management

Table F-8

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving Due to Management by Former Employee Gender

Male (n = 191)	Female (n = 605)
1.) Unprofessional Behavior (38.7%)	1.) Unprofessional Behavior (53.7%)
2.) Support (25.7%)	2.) Support (22.0%)
3.) Communication (16.8%)	3.) Other (10.1%)
4.) Knowledge & Skills (9.9%)	4.) Communication (8.3%)
5.) Other (8.9%)	5.) Knowledge & Skills (6.0%)

Note. N = 796. n = sample size within condition.

Table F-9

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving Due to Management by Supervisor Gender

Male (<i>n</i> = 245)	Female (<i>n</i> = 551)
1.) Unprofessional Behavior (43.3%)	1.) Unprofessional Behavior (53.2%)
2.) Support (23.3%)	2.) Support (22.7%)
3.) Communication (14.7%)	3.) Other (9.4%)
4.) Other (10.6%)	4.) Communication (8.3%)
5.) Knowledge & Skills (8.2%)	5.) Knowledge & Skills (6.4%)

Note. *N* = 796. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table F-10

Top Detailed Reasons for Leaving Due to Management by Subordinate-supervisor Gender Match

F Sub F Sup (<i>n</i> = 477)	M Sub M Sup (<i>n</i> = 117)	F Sub M Sup (<i>n</i> = 128)	M Sub F Sup (<i>n</i> = 74)
1.) Unprofessional (54.1%)	1.) Unprofessional (33.3%)	1.) Unprofessional (52.3%)	1.) Unprofessional (47.3%)
2.) Support (21.4%)	2.) Support (22.2%)	2.) Support (24.2%)	2.) Support (31.1%)
3.) Other (10.1%)	3.) Communication (21.4%)	3.) Other (10.2%)	3.) Communication (9.5%)
4.) Communication (8.2%)	4.) Knowledge (12.0%)	4.) Communication (8.6%)	4.) Knowledge (6.8%)
5.) Knowledge (6.3%)	5.) Other (11.1%)	5.) Knowledge (4.7%)	5.) Other (5.4%)

Note. *N* = 796. *n* = sample size within condition. Unprofessional = Unprofessional Behavior. Knowledge = Knowledge & Skills

Appendix G

Tables of Qualitative Responses

Table G-1

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Voice Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Management (29.3%)	1.) Communication (35.7%)
2.) (-) Management (26.4%)	2.) Support (17.3%)
3.) (+) Environment (9.6%)	3.) Treatment of Employees (10.9%)

Note. 305 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-2

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Opportunity to Grow Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Developmental Opportunities (31.0%)	1.) Availability (32.2%)
2.) (-) Promotional Opportunities (24.9%)	2.) Other (20.8%)
3.) (-) Developmental Opportunities (16.8%)	3.) Expanding Responsibility (18.9%)

Note. 237 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-3

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Organizational Support Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Environment (26.8%)	1.) Support (35.3%)
2.) (+) Management (24.7%)	2.) Co-Workers (27.1%)
3.) (-) Management (21.1%)	3.) Communication (7.3%)

Note. 205 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-4

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Employer Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Environment (38.1%)	1.) Co-Workers (27.4%)
2.) (-) Management (10.6%)	2.) Organizational Culture (7.2%)
3.) (-) Environment (9.7%)	3.) Other (6.5%)

Note. 198-298 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-5

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Employer Recommendation Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Environment (35.0%)	1.) Co-Workers (16.4%)
2.) (+) Career (12.2%)	2.) Developmental/Growth Opportunities (10.3%)
3.) (+) Total Rewards (8.7%)	3.) Organizational Culture (9.6%)

Note. 260-266 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-6

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Supervisor Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Professionalism (32.1%)	1.) Helpful & Supportive (23.8%)
2.) (+) Management Competency (18.7%)	2.) Leadership Skills (16.0%)
3.) (+) Communication (15.9%)	3.) Demeanor (15.7%)
(-) Professionalism (15.9%)	

Note. 28 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Table G-7

Top Categories and Detailed Reasons for Work for Supervisor Again Rating

Category	Detailed Reason
1.) (+) Professionalism (33.1%)	1.) Helpful & Supportive (22.5%)
2.) (+) Management Competency (19.4%)	2.) Demeanor (17.7%)
3.) (-) Professionalism (16.1%)	3.) Leadership Skills (15.9%)

Note. 201 missing cases. Detailed reason not necessarily within corresponding category.

Appendix H

Results for Measured Variables

Table H-1

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations among the Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	1	2	3	4	5
1.) Voice	3.21	1.56	--	--				
2.) Opportunity to Grow	3.28	1.58	--	.44**	--			
3.) Organizational Support	3.56	1.46	--	.64**	.45**	--		
4.) Relationship with Supervisor	3.72	1.52	.93	.52**	.36**	.62**	--	
5.) Organizational Attraction	3.74	1.25	.82	.57**	.47**	.65**	.48**	--

Note. $N = 5805$. ** $p < .01$. Voice, Opportunity to Grow, and Organizational Support do not have reliability estimates because they are single-item measures.

Table H-2

Color Map of Means of Measured Variables by Reasons for Leaving

Reason for Leaving	Voice	Opportunity to Grow	Organizational Support	Relationship with Supervisor	Organizational Attraction
Career ($n = 1,996$)	3.72	3.51	4.10	4.23	4.18
Environment ($n = 519$)	2.26	2.68	2.51	3.00	2.83
Job ($n = 594$)	2.95	3.30	3.27	3.75	3.46
Management ($n = 796$)	2.02	2.48	2.18	2.02	2.84
Time ($n = 1,154$)	3.53	3.71	3.99	4.06	4.10
Total Rewards ($n = 746$)	3.48	3.24	3.88	4.14	3.88

Note. Highest means are green, lowest means are red, and means in-between are yellow. Color gradient should be viewed by column. For example, management has the lowest mean (dark red) on voice, and career has the highest mean (dark green) on voice.

Table H-3

ANOVA Results for Reason for Leaving and Measured Variables.

Variable	<i>F</i> (5, 5799)	<i>p</i>	η^2
Voice	229.99	< .01	.17
Opportunity to Grow	86.84	< .01	.07
Organizational Support	374.01	< .01	.24
Relationship with Supervisor	386.54	< .01	.25
Organizational Attraction	259.34	< .01	.18

Note. *N* = 5,805.

Table H-4

Means and Standard Deviations of Voice by Reasons for Leaving

Order of Reason for Leaving by Highest to Lowest Mean	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1.) Career	3.72	1.36
2.) Time	3.53	1.49
3.) Total Rewards	3.48	1.53
4.) Job	2.95	1.54
5.) Environment	2.26	1.43
6.) Management	2.02	1.29

Table H-5

Means and Standard Deviations of Opportunity to Grow by Reasons for Leaving

Order of Reason for Leaving by Highest to Lowest Mean	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1.) Time	3.71	1.47
2.) Career	3.51	1.51
3.) Job	3.30	1.55
4.) Total Rewards	3.24	1.57
5.) Environment	2.68	1.57
6.) Management	2.48	1.58

Table H-6

Means and Standard Deviations of Organizational Support by Reasons for Leaving

Order of Reason for Leaving by Highest to Lowest Mean	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1.) Career	4.10	1.16
2.) Time	3.99	1.24
3.) Total Rewards	3.88	1.32
4.) Job	3.27	1.46
5.) Environment	2.51	1.40
6.) Management	2.18	1.31

Table H-7

Means and Standard Deviations of Relationship with Supervisor by Reasons for Leaving

Order of Reason for Leaving by Highest to Lowest Mean	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1.) Career	4.23	1.18
2.) Total Rewards	4.14	1.28
3.) Time	4.06	1.30
4.) Job	3.75	1.43
5.) Environment	3.00	1.55
6.) Management	2.02	1.43

Table H-8

Means and Standard Deviations of Organizational Attraction by Reasons for Leaving

Order of Reason for Leaving by Highest to Lowest Mean	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1.) Career	4.18	1.36
2.) Time	4.10	1.49
3.) Total Rewards	3.88	1.53
4.) Job	3.46	1.54
5.) Management	2.84	1.43
6.) Environment	2.83	1.29

Table H-9

Means and Standard Deviations of Measured Variables by Former Employee Gender

Variable	Former Employee Gender				<i>t</i> (5803)	<i>r</i> ²	<i>p</i>	<i>g</i>
	Male		Female					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
Voice	3.38	1.52	3.13	1.57	-5.88 (3688)	.01	< .01	.16
Opportunity to Grow	3.29	1.55	3.27	1.60	-.25 (3690)	< .01	n.s.	.01
Organizational Support	3.76	1.39	3.47	1.48	-7.19 (3815)	.01	< .01	.20
Relationship with Supervisor	4.00	1.39	3.60	1.56	-9.86 (3979)	.02	< .01	.27
Organizational Attraction	3.85	1.18	3.70	1.28	-4.45 (3877)	.01	< .01	.12

Note. *n* = sample size within condition. *r*² = squared point-biserial correlation. When degrees of freedom are placed next to the corresponding *t*-value, it indicates that Levene's test was significant and equal variances are not assumed. Hedges' *g* was used as an effect size instead of Cohen's *d* due to the difference in sample size.

Table H-10

Means and Standard Deviations of Measured Variables by Supervisor Gender

Variable	Supervisor Gender				<i>t</i> (5803)	<i>r</i> ²	<i>p</i>	<i>g</i>
	Male		Female					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
	(<i>n</i> = 1,854)		(<i>n</i> = 3,951)					
Voice	3.23	1.54	3.20	1.57	-.65 (3689)	< .01	n.s.	.02
Opportunity to Grow	3.18	1.56	3.32	1.59	3.19 (3685)	< .01	< .01	.09
Organizational Support	3.58	1.43	3.55	1.48	-.79 (3739)	< .01	n.s.	.02
Relationship with Supervisor	3.84	1.48	3.67	1.54	-3.92 (3770)	< .01	< .01	.11
Organizational Attraction	3.71	1.24	3.76	1.26	1.51	< .01	n.s.	.04

Note. *n* = sample size within condition. *r*² = squared point-biserial correlation. When degrees of freedom are placed next to the corresponding *t*-value, it indicates that Levene's test was significant and equal variances are not assumed. Hedges' *g* was used as an effect size instead of Cohen's *d* due to the difference in sample size.

Table H-11

Means and Standard Deviations of Measured Variables by Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

Variable	Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match							
	F Sub F Sup		M Sub M Sup		F Sub M Sup		M Sub F Sup	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	(<i>n</i> = 3,170)		(<i>n</i> = 1,063)		(<i>n</i> = 791)		(<i>n</i> = 781)	
Voice	3.13	1.57	3.32	1.51	3.10	1.56	3.46	1.54
Opportunity to Grow	3.31	1.60	3.22	1.54	3.14	1.60	3.38	1.57
Organizational Support	3.47	1.49	3.68	1.41	3.46	1.44	3.87	1.36
Relationship with Supervisor	3.59	1.56	3.99	1.40	3.62	1.55	4.00	1.38
Organizational Attraction	3.71	1.29	3.75	1.21	3.65	1.27	3.98	1.13

Note. *n* = sample size within condition.

Table H-12

Color Map of Means of Measured Variables by Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match

Gender Match	Voice	Opportunity to Grow	Organizational Support	Relationship with Supervisor	Organizational Attraction
F Sub F Sup	3.13	3.31	3.47	3.59	3.71
F Sub M Sup	3.10	3.14	3.46	3.62	3.65
M Sub F Sup	3.46	3.38	3.87	4.00	3.98
M Sub M Sup	3.32	3.22	3.68	3.99	3.75

Table H-13

ANOVA Results for Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match and Measured Variables

Variable	$F(3, 5801)$	p	η	η^2
Voice	12.64	< .01	.08	.01
Opportunity to Grow	4.15	< .01	.05	.002
Organizational Support	19.06	< .01	.10	.01
Relationship with Supervisor	30.03	< .01	.12	.02
Organizational Attraction	11.56	< .01	.08	.01

Note. $N = 5,805$.

Table H-14

Significant Post Hoc Tests from ANOVA Results for Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match and Measured Variables

Variable	Mean Difference	<i>p</i>	<i>g</i>
Voice			
F Sub F Sup & M Sub M Sup	-.19	< .01	.12
F Sub F Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.33	< .01	.21
M Sub M Sup & F Sub M Sup	.22	< .01	.14
F Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.36	< .01	.23
Opportunity to Grow			
F Sub F Sup & F Sub M Sup	.17	< .01	.11
M Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.16	< .05	.10
F Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.24	< .01	.15
Organizational Support			
F Sub F Sup & M Sub M Sup	-.20	< .01	.14
F Sub F Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.40	< .01	.27
M Sub M Sup & F Sub M Sup	.22	< .01	.15
M Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.20	< .01	.14
F Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.41	< .01	.29
Relationship with Supervisor			
F Sub F Sup & M Sub M Sup	-.40	< .01	.26
F Sub F Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.42	< .01	.27
M Sub M Sup & F Sub M Sup	.37	< .01	.25
F Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.38	< .01	.26
Organizational Attraction			
F Sub F Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.27	< .01	.21
M Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.22	< .01	.20
F Sub M Sup & M Sub F Sup	-.33	< .01	.27

Note. There were no significant post hoc tests for Opportunity to Grow. Hedges' *g* was used as an effect size instead of Cohen's *d* due to the difference in sample size.

Appendix I

Moderated Regression Results

Table I-1

General Linear Model Results with Effects of Voice and Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Type III SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match	101.54	3, 5797	33.85	20.45**	.01
Voice	2352.61	1, 5797	2352.61	1421.79**	.20
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match X Voice	22.44	3, 5797	7.48	4.52**	.002

Note. ** $p < .01$; $R^2 = .28$. $N = 5,805$.

Table I-2

General Linear Model Results with Effects of Opportunity to Grow and Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Type III SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match	207.77	3, 5797	69.26	35.38**	.02
Opportunity to Grow	1101.63	1, 5797	1101.63	562.75**	.09
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match X Opportunity to Grow	36.58	3, 5797	12.19	6.23**	.003

Note. ** $p < .01$; $R^2 = .15$. $N = 5,805$.

Table I-3

General Linear Model Results with Effects of Organizational Support and Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Type III SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	η_p^2
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match	71.95	3, 5797	23.98	17.10**	.01
Organizational Support	3170.25	1, 5797	3170.25	2260.63**	.28
Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match X Organizational Support	34.36	3, 5797	11.45	8.17**	.004

Note. ** $p < .01$; $R^2 = .39$. $N = 5,805$.

Table I-4

Multiple Regression of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match and Voice on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Voice	.43	.03	.44	16.48**
F Sub F Sup	-.29	.05	-.10	-6.27**
F Sub M Sup	-.24	.06	-.06	-3.96**
M Sub F Sup	-.05	.06	-.01	-.83
F Sub F Sup x Voice	.10	.03	.08	3.45**
F Sub M Sup x Voice	.08	.04	.03	2.05*
M Sub F Sup x Voice	.04	.04	.01	.93

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$; Interpretation should be made in reference to missing category of Male Subordinate- Male Supervisor.

Table I-5

Simple Slope Results of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match for Voice and Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Gender Match</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
F Sub F Sup	.53	.02	.54	35.81**
M Sub M Sup	.43	.03	.46	17.07**
F Sub M Sup	.51	.03	.52	16.88**
M Sub F Sup	.47	.03	.52	16.95**

Note. ** $p < .01$; FF: $R^2 = .288$, $f^2 = .40$; MM: $R^2 = .215$, $f^2 = .27$; FM: $R^2 = .265$, $f^2 = .36$; MF: $R^2 = .269$, $f^2 = .37$.

Table I-6

Multiple Regression of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match and Opportunity to Grow on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Opportunity to Grow	.27	.03	.28	8.30**
F Sub F Sup	-.36	.06	-.12	-6.41**
M Sub M Sup	.04	.07	.01	.60
F Sub M Sup	-.27	.07	-.10	-3.72**
F Sub F Sup x Opportunity to Grow	.12	.04	.10	3.43**
M Sub M Sup x Opportunity to Grow	.02	.04	.01	.427
F Sub M Sup x Opportunity to Grow	.10	.05	.04	2.31*

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$; Interpretation should be made in reference to missing category of Male Subordinate- Female Supervisor.

Table I-7

Simple Slope Results of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match for Opportunity to Grow and Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Gender Match</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
F Sub F Sup	.39	.02	.40	24.27**
M Sub M Sup	.28	.03	.31	10.63**
F Sub M Sup	.37	.03	.38	11.52**
M Sub F Sup	.27	.03	.30	8.80**

Note. ** $p < .01$; FF: $R^2 = .157$, $f^2 = .19$; MM: $R^2 = .096$, $f^2 = .11$; FM: $R^2 = .144$, $f^2 = .17$; MF: $R^2 = .090$, $f^2 = .10$.

Table I-8

Multiple Regression of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match and Organizational Support on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>
Organizational Support	.54	.03	.52	21.08**
F Sub F Sup	-.25	.04	-.08	-5.90**
F Sub M Sup	-.20	.06	-.05	-3.58**
M Sub F Sup	-.10	.06	-.02	-1.71
F Sub F Sup x Organizational Support	.13	.03	.09	4.30**
F Sub M Sup x Organizational Support	.13	.04	.05	3.38**
M Sub F Sup x Organizational Support	.03	.04	.01	.74

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$; Interpretation should be made in reference to missing category of Male Subordinate- Male Supervisor.

Table I-9

Simple Slope Results of Subordinate-Supervisor Gender Match for Organizational Support and Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Gender Match</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>
F Sub F Sup	.67	.01	.64	47.29**
M Sub M Sup	.54	.03	.55	21.26**
F Sub M Sup	.68	.03	.63	22.79**
M Sub F Sup	.57	.03	.57	19.09**

Note. ** $p < .01$; FF: $R^2 = .414$, $f^2 = .71$; MM: $R^2 = .299$, $f^2 = .43$; FM: $R^2 = .397$, $f^2 = .66$; MF: $R^2 = .319$, $f^2 = .47$.

Appendix J

Plots of Interactions

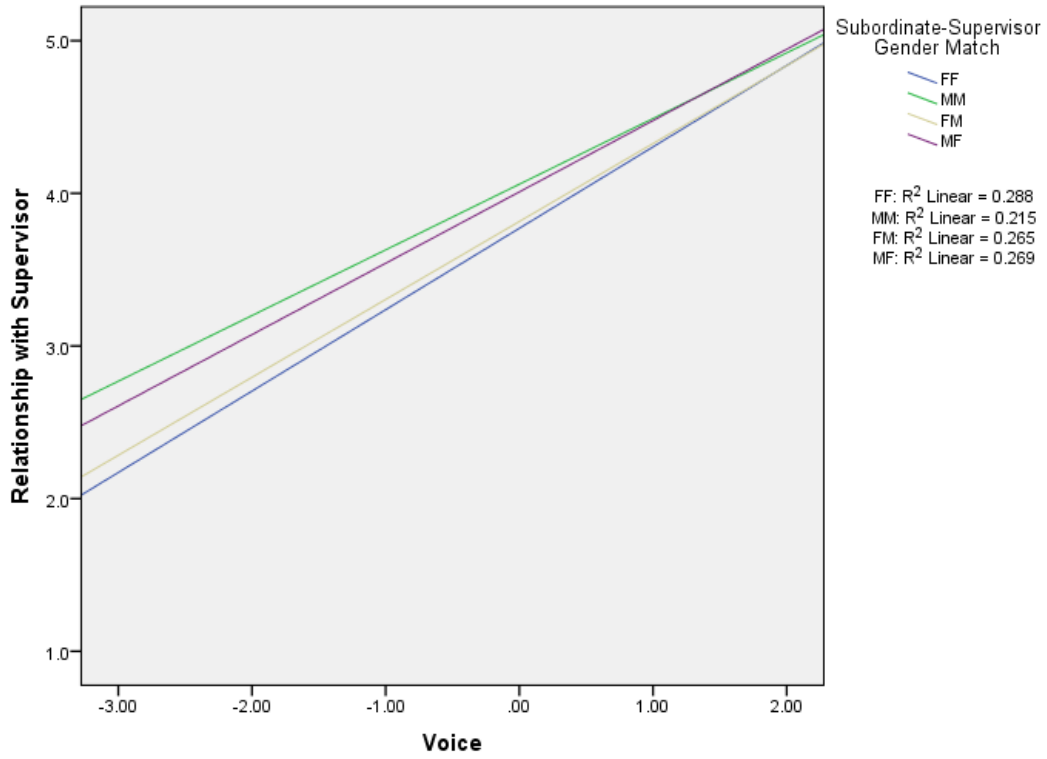


Figure J-1: Effect of voice on relationship with supervisor by subordinate-supervisor gender match.

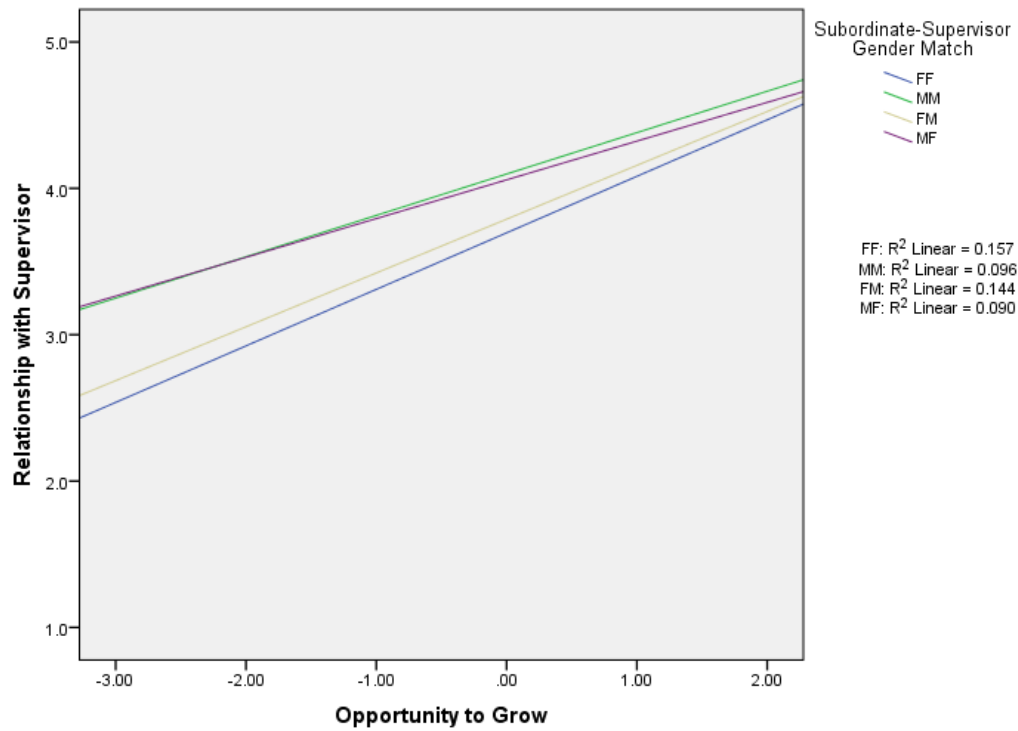


Figure J-2: Effect of opportunity to grow on relationship with supervisor by subordinate-supervisor gender match.

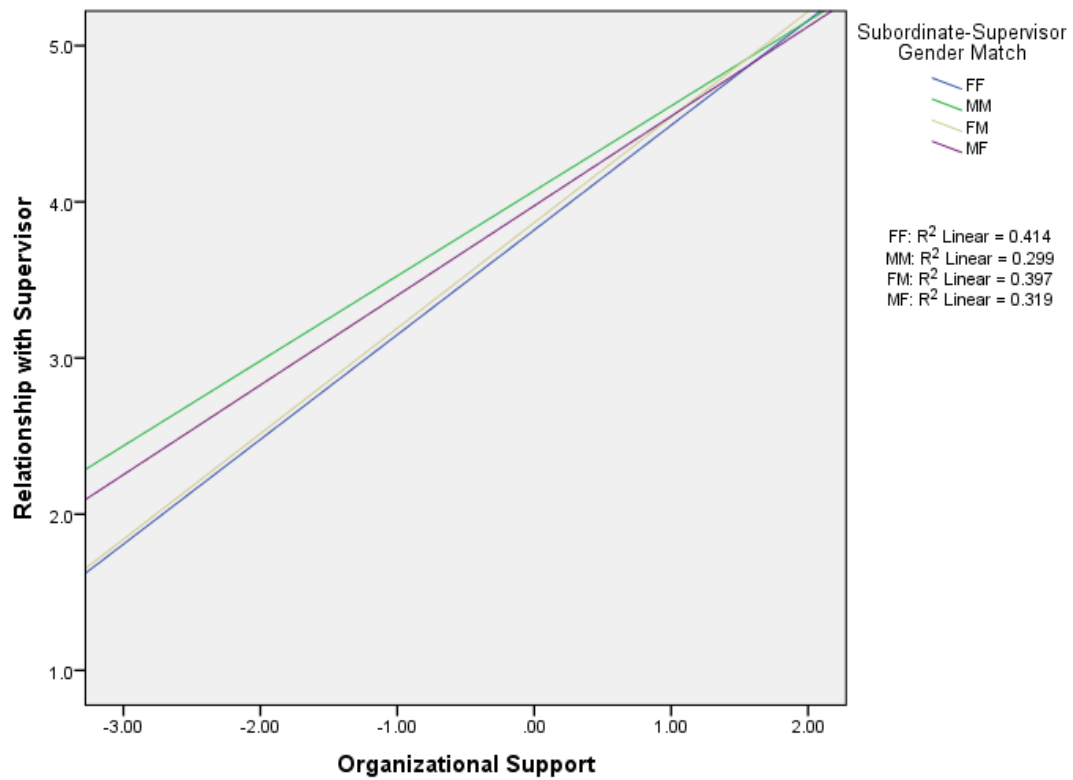


Figure J-3: Effect of organizational support on relationship with supervisor by subordinate-supervisor gender match.

Appendix K

Path Model Results

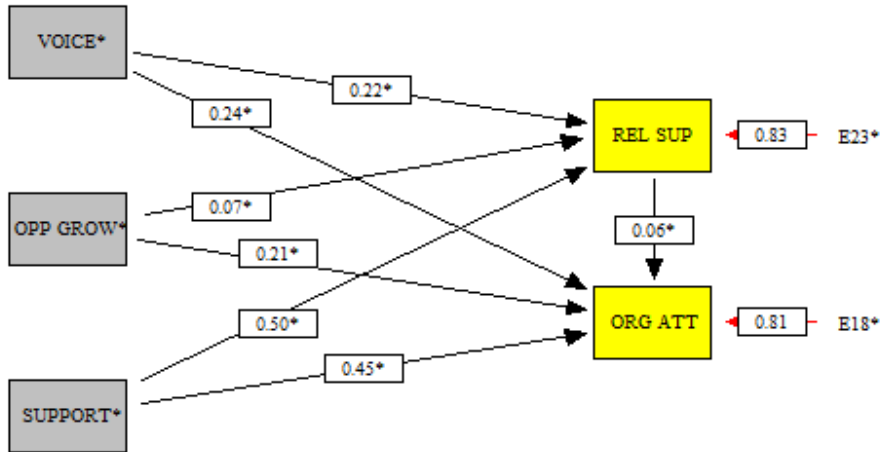


Figure X: EQS 6 disseration model 1 no constrains.eds Chi Sq.=4642.90 P=0.00 CFI=0.60 RMSEA=0.52

Figure K-1: Path model with standardized regression coefficients.

Table K-1:

Multiple Regression of Voice, Opportunity to Grow, and Organizational Support on Relationship with Supervisor

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>
Voice	.19	.01	.22	19.82*
Opportunity to Grow	.07	.01	.07	6.76*
Organizational Support	.48	.01	.50	46.07*

Note. * $p < .05$.

Table K-2:

Multiple Regression of Voice, Opportunity to Grow, Organizational Support, and Relationship with Supervisor on Organizational Attraction

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t</i>
Voice	.17	.01	.24	21.61*
Opportunity to Grow	.14	.01	.21	19.22*
Organizational Support	.34	.01	.45	35.73*
Relationship with Supervisor	.05	.01	.07	5.07*

Note. * $p < .05$.

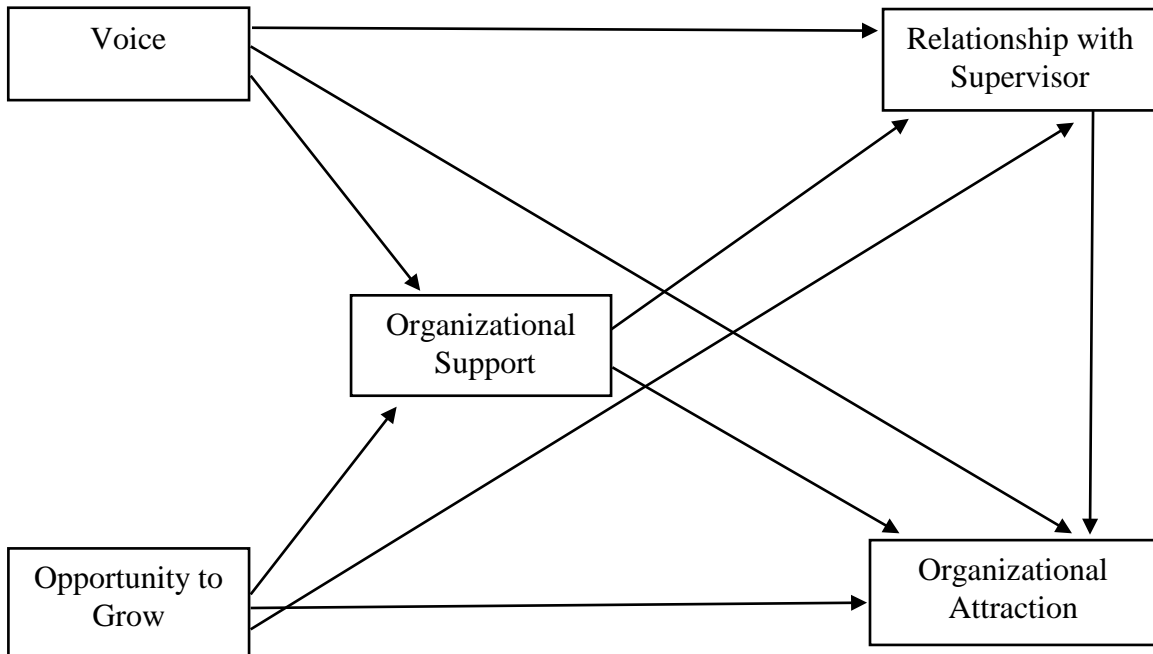


Figure K-2: Improved path model. Original path model with the addition of two paths—one from voice to organizational support and one from opportunity to grow to organizational support.

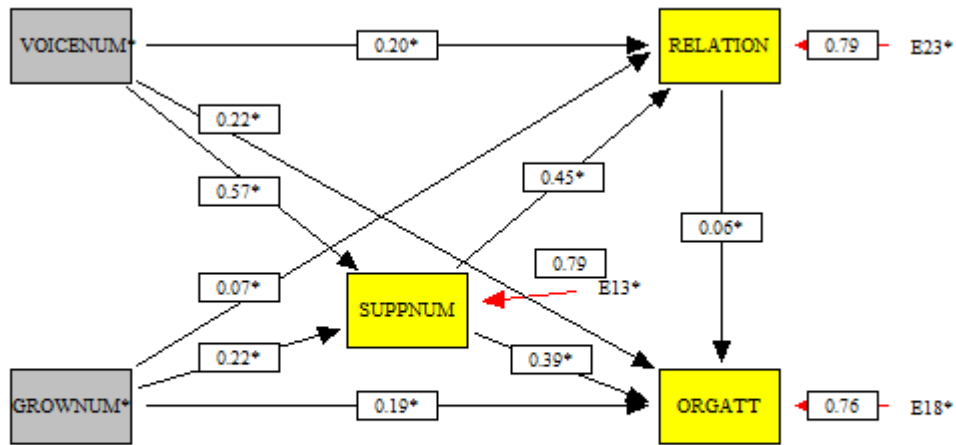


Figure X: EQS 6 model 2 reorganized.eds Chi Sq.=1274.80 P=0.00 CFI=0.89 RMSEA=0.47

Figure K-3: Improved path model with standardized regression coefficients.

Appendix L

Results of Hypotheses and Research Questions

Table L-1

Results of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Results
1.) Relationship with supervisor will be predicted by former employees' ratings of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support.	1.) Supported. (a)-(c) were all significant. Organizational support was the strongest.
2.) Organizational attraction will be predicted by (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor.	2.) Supported. (a)-(d) were all significant. Organizational support was the strongest.
3.) Relationship with supervisor will partially mediate the relationship between (a) voice and organizational attraction, (b) opportunity to grow and organizational attraction, and (c) organizational support and organizational attraction.	3.) Supported. Partial mediation for (a)-(c). Indirect effects were marginal but significant.

Table L-2

Results of Research Questions

Research Questions	Results
1.) How will reason for leaving vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?	1.) Career, total rewards, and time were top 3 for men. Career, time, and management were top 3 for women. Same results based on supervisor gender; % of those who left due to management was similar. Little variation in reason for leaving based on subordinate-supervisor gender match; % of those who left due to management was highest for F Sub M Sup gender match and lowest for M Sub M Sup gender match.
2.) How will (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, (d) relationship with supervisor, and (e) organizational attraction vary by reason for leaving?	2.) Main effect of reason for leaving for (a)-(e). Most impact on (c) and (d). Career had highest mean for (a), (c)-(e). Management followed by Environment had lowest means.
3.) How will the mean of voice vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?	3.) Men reported higher levels of voice. No difference based on supervisor gender.
4.) How will the mean of opportunity to grow vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?	4.) No difference between men and women. Those with a female supervisor reported higher levels of opportunity to grow.
5.) How will the mean of organizational support vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?	5.) Men reported higher levels of organizational support. No difference based on supervisor gender.
6.) How will the mean of relationship with supervisor vary by (a) former employee gender and (b) supervisor gender?	6.) Men reported better relationships with their supervisor. Those with a male supervisor reported better relationships with their supervisor.
7.) How will means of (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, (c) organizational support, and (d) relationship with supervisor vary by subordinate-supervisor gender match?	7.) Main effect of match for (a)-(d). M Sub F Sup match had significantly higher means on variables than other matches for most post hoc tests. F Sub M Sup match was lowest on (a)-(c).
8.) How will subordinate-supervisor gender match moderate the relationship between (a) voice, (b) opportunity to grow, and (c) organizational support and relationship with supervisor?	8.) Interactions improved models by a significant but marginal amount. Subordinate-supervisor gender match only a significant moderator in certain cases; not all interactions were significant for each variable. F Sub F Sup had steepest slope for (a) and (b). F Sub M Sup had steepest slope for (c).
9.) How will the mean of organizational attraction vary by (a) former employee gender, (b) supervisor gender, and (c) subordinate-supervisor gender match?	9.) Men reported higher levels of organizational attraction. No difference based on supervisor gender. M Sub F Sup had significantly higher levels of organizational attraction than the other matches.