

An exploration into the roles of managerial support and occupational stigma in the employee turnover process amongst non-managerial quick service workers in Guyana.

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List of Abbreviations

AC	Air Conditioning
BOG	Bank of Guyana
CCM	Constant Comparative Method
CCYD	Caricom Commission on Youth Development
CD	Career Development
CDB	Caribbean Development Bank
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CI	Customer Incivility
CRI	Camex Restaurants Inc
CXC	Caribbean Examinations Council
DBA	Doctor of Business Administration
FFWP	Family Friendly Workplace Practices
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Director
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IR	Intention to Remain
JS	Job Satisfaction
JT	Job Tenure
LR	Likelihood to Recommend
MM	Middle Manager
MS	Managerial Support
OC	Organizational Commitment
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
PSS	Perceived Supervisor Support
RBV	Resource-Based View
SC	Stigma Consciousness
SCA	Sustainable Competitive Advantage
SCTIQ	Stigma Consciousness and Turnover Intent Questionnaire
SCQ	Stigma Consciousness Questionnaire
SI	Supervisor Incivility
SM	Senior Manager

SMTQ	Stigma Consciousness and Managerial Support Questionnaire
SHRM	Society for Human Resource Management
VRIN	Valuable, Rare, Inimitable and Non-Substitutable
VRIO	Value, Rarity, Imitability and Organization
WERS	Workplace Employee Relations Survey
WLC	Work-Life Conflicts

Note on references: Harvard referencing is used throughout the thesis for citation purposes.

Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the role of managerial support and occupational stigma in the employee turnover process amongst non-managerial employees (crew members) in the quick service sector. Guided contextually by the Decent Work Agenda and framed theoretically by the Resource-Based View, this sequential explanatory mixed-method study was conducted with the employees of a large quick service operator in Guyana. The entire population of crew members was surveyed via questionnaire, whilst a mixture of random and purposive sampling was used to identify fifteen managers who participated in structured interviews. A key feature of the study is the ethical dimension, as the author of the study is the owner and CEO of the study organization. This necessitated the use of a professional research assistant to administer the questionnaires and interviews, as well as undertake the transcription and anonymization of the data.

Correlation analysis was used to analyze the quantitative data, whilst thematic analysis was deployed to decipher data from structured interviews. The study produced four important findings. First, the study, in a new geographical context, supported previous research which found managerial support to be positively associated with employee retention. Second, the study identified the prevalence of impulsive quits as a result of pervasive supervisor incivility. Third, the study discovered that perceptions of slavery exist around quick service work. Fourth, the study detected the stigma of homosexuality in relation to males employed in the quick service sector.

The findings of the study underpin its contributions to knowledge and practice. A Model of the Employee Turnover process was developed. This model demonstrates the relationships between managerial support, work-life conflicts, career development and supervisor incivility in the turnover process. The study also generated a Retention Toolkit, which provides a framework for improving human resource systems/practices and, second, training aimed at developing the leadership skills of managers in the sector.

The findings of this study may also be applicable to non-managerial workers in the wider hospitality sector and to other shop floor workers. Future studies, using the findings of this study as a base, should target other workers in the hospitality sector in Guyana and the wider English-speaking Caribbean, where the hospitality industry has a very significant role.

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Robert and Carmin Campbell, both of blessed memory.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis has been composed solely by myself and that it has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree. Except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Study

The study aims to investigate the drivers of employee turnover amongst the non-managerial employees (crew members) of Camex Restaurants Incorporated (CRI), a large quick service (fast food) operator in Guyana. This introductory chapter will, first, establish the reasons and motivation for the study. Following this, there will be an identification of the aims, objectives, themes and research questions. These research questions were, in each case, generated by the context of, or literature reviewed in, this study. The location of the study in terms of its context, study area and ethical guidelines will also be discussed. The research gap in the literature is identified and the chapter ends with details on the structure of the thesis.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the drivers of employee turnover which undermine efforts to improve retention. This loss of human resources is important, as people are at the center of quick service business, a business described in Kacmar et al. (2006) as a “high-involvement human resource system” (Kacmar et al., 2006, p.134). High employee turnover of both crew and management results in declining customer service and is negatively associated with sales and profit (Kacmar et al., 2006). High employee turnover has been the Achilles Heel of the restaurant business. Restaurant jobs are seen as temporary jobs with little room for promotion. They are also viewed as jobs with hard work, few or no benefits, long hours, very often on a shift basis with low compensation and sexual harassment (Wildes, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Quick service (fast food) jobs, the subject of this study, are at the bottom of the restaurant industry, since these are fast-paced jobs with no tips.

The emergence of Guyana as a petrostate has brought opportunities for CRI to expand its business. Guyana is expected to record the highest level of economic growth in the world in 2020 with the IMF projecting GDP growth of 86% (IMF, 2019; Regis, 2019). Investment in the quick service sector has been growing in recent years and continued unabated through an economic contraction in 2017.

However, CRI is facing human resource management challenges with both recruitment and retention. It is unable to attract suitable recruits and has been forced to accept a situation where more than 50% of its crew members lack the minimum acceptable qualifications for the job. Additionally, turnover of non-managerial employees, which had been declining since 2014, rose from 64% in 2018 to 88% in 2019.

Contextual information suggests the possibility that a lack of managerial support and occupational stigma may be driving the turnover at CRI. Slightly less than 50% of the workforce, in the restaurants, at CRI identify as single parents. Prima facie, this suggests a proliferation of work-life conflicts. Globally, the decline in union membership, together with the increased presence of

women and dual-career couples in the workforce has, in part, increased the need for managers to be more supportive, as employees encounter different types of work-life conflicts (Travaglione et al., 2017; Ferrante, 2019). Challenges with managerial support would not be unique to CRI. These challenges have also impacted McKinsey, one of the world's leading consulting companies, and Microsoft, the world's most valuable company by market capitalization (Ferrante, 2019; Mikel, 2019). Added to potential issues with managerial support, there is some evidence that quick service jobs in Guyana are stigmatized. The literature suggests that quick service workers are viewed as uneducated and their work is seen as servitude (Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Comments by Guyana's Minister of Finance suggest the same (Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment, Kaieteur News, 2016). Microsoft assigned a data analytics team to diagnose the cause of the problems with its workforce and stabilize retention. This study will undertake a similar exercise and explore the data to identify the drivers of turnover at CRI and improve retention.

1.3 Aim of the Study

Given the nature of the issues facing CRI, the overall aim of the study is as follows:

To explore the roles of managerial support and occupational stigma in the employee turnover process amongst non-managerial quick service workers in Guyana.

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the following objectives were identified:

1. To Examine the Role of Managerial Support in the Employee Turnover Process.
2. To Examine the Role of Occupational Stigma in The Employee Turnover Process.
3. To Make Recommendations for Increasing Employee Retention.

This study is a pragmatic enquiry, ultimately focused on solving an organizational issue. A key objective is to make practical recommendations to solve the employee turnover problem at CRI. The objectives identified are focused on solving this problem. Managerial support and occupational stigma have been identified as possible drivers of turnover. These two themes will be thoroughly explored with a goal of defining practical data-driven recommendations for increasing retention.

1.4 Research Themes and Questions

The research themes are a point of central focus that guide this study from introduction to conclusion. These themes are identified in the context chapter and further developed in the literature review. This combination of context and literature then leads to the sub-themes and the research questions. This study is developed around two major themes: managerial support (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017) and occupational stigma (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Whilst the objectives of this study were

narrowly focused on finding solutions, the sub-themes and research questions cast a wide net to ensure that the issues were comprehensively interrogated. For managerial support, the sub-themes that arose were work-life conflicts, career development, customer incivility and workplace incivility (Deery, 2008; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Allen and Bryant, 2012; Suifan et al., 2016; Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018). Intra-group stigma was the single sub-theme that surfaced under occupational stigma (Saunders, 1981; Gunn and Canada, 2015; Harris, 2015). The themes, sub-themes and research questions that developed were as follows:

THEMES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Theme: Managerial Support

Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?

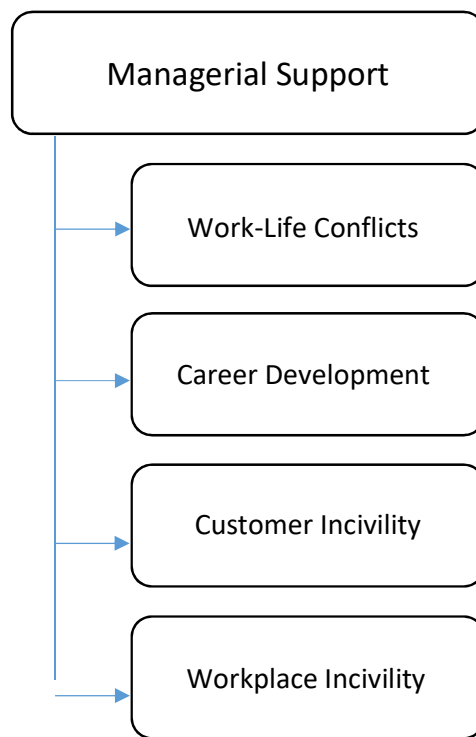


Figure 1.1: Managerial Support and Sub-Themes

SUB- THEMES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Work-Life Conflicts - What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Career Development - How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Customer Incivility - What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector? Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Workplace Incivility - What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

1.4.2 Theme: Occupational Stigma

Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions? Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?

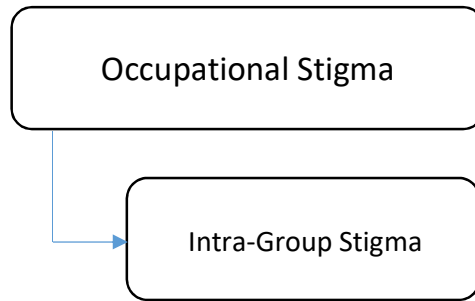


Figure 1.2: Occupational Stigma and Sub-Theme

SUB- THEMES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Intra-Group Stigma - Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?

All of the themes and sub-themes had their origin in either in the context chapter or the literature review or both. In each case the literature review connected the theme or sub-theme to the restaurant or hospitality sectors, thus underscoring the relevance of the theme or sub-theme to this study. The questions were broadly worded to identify the presence of any aspect of the themes or sub-themes present in the turnover process.

1.5 Locating the Study

The study is located in the quick service sector of Guyana. The informants are all employees of CRI. The study is a mixed methods study that utilized the entire population of crew members to complete survey questionnaires. Additionally, a random sample of thirteen operations managers plus two managers from the human resource department responded to questions in a structured interview (Ivankova et al., 2006). The author is the owner and CEO of CRI. This resulted in a decision to hire an external research assistant to maintain a respectful distance between the researcher and the research subjects. Permission was sought from the Human Resource Director (HRD) of CRI to conduct the study. The HRD communicated verbally with informants on their willingness to participate in the study. Both the HRD and the research assistant advised informants, ex ante, of the purpose of the study and stressed that their participation must be voluntary, anonymous and without burden (Wallace and Sheldon, 2015). It was emphasized that no negative consequences would result from refusing to participate. Participants were required to sign the consent form prior to completing the questionnaires and structured interviews and were

advised of their freedom to withdraw from participation at any time before or during the course of completing the questionnaires or the interviews. Clearance was sought from the Research Integrity Committee of the Edinburgh Napier University for every aspect of this study.

Analysis of the context of the study was guided by the Decent Work Agenda (Decent Work, 2020; Decent Work and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 2020) whilst RBV analysis provided the theoretical framework (Barney, 1991; Barney, 1995). The study was approached with the lens of a critical pragmatist using mixed methods guided by theories on employee turnover, managerial support, occupational stigma, customer incivility and workplace incivility (Ulrich (2007; Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill, 2011; Forrester, 2013). Correlation analysis was used to decipher the quantitative data and thematic analysis to saturation was applied to the structured interviews (Eisenhardt, 1989; Hauke and Kossowski, 2011; Ravenswood, 2011; Akoglu, 2018). The resulting data were analyzed through iterative comparisons with information from the content chapter and the literature to produce a model of turnover in the quick service sector, a Retention Toolkit to provide soft skill training to managers and to improve human resource systems/practices within the organization.

A wider cross-section of quick service employees would have led to more generalizable results. However, no other quick service operator in the market would have cooperated in the study had they been aware of the identity of the researcher.

1.6 Research Gap

The drivers of turnover are very much contextual. This led to a call for organizations to research their turnover issues and to avoid decision-making based on gut instinct (Allen and Bryant, 2012). Careful searches revealed no literature on employee turnover, managerial support, occupational stigma or incivility in Guyana. One article was found on employee turnover in the wider English-speaking Caribbean (Lansiquot et al., 2012). A second gap in the literature was detected in the area of occupational stigma in the quick service sector. Third, little research has been done on workplace incivility in the service sector. Additionally, most of the research on workplace incivility has been in Europe and North America (Sharma and Singh, 2016; Hashim et al., 2019). Consequently, the findings of this study will fill critical gaps in the literature on employee turnover, in addition to its primary purpose of resolving an organizational issue.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis road map (Figure 1.3) shows the linkages between the research objectives, research themes, research questions, data gathering, data analysis, the achievement of the objectives, the contribution to knowledge and the contribution to practice.

Chapter	Content	Key Outputs
Introduction (Chap 1)	Purpose and aim of the study Research themes and Questions Location of the study Research gap	Research aim Research objectives 1,2,3
The Quick Service Sector in Guyana (Chap 2)	Macroeconomic conditions Quick service sector Camex Restaurants Inc Decent Work Agenda	Research themes
Literature Review (Chap 3)	Resource-based view of Strategy Employee Turnover theory Managerial Support Occupational Stigma Conceptual model	Research questions 1,2,3,4,5, 6,7,8,9
Philosophy and Methodology (Chap 4)	Philosophy Ethics Methodology Pilot study	Questionnaires Correlation analysis Structured interviews Constant comparative method
Findings and Discussion (Chap 5)	Quantitative findings Qualitative findings Discussion Emergent issues	Data analysis Discussion of research questions
Conclusion and Recommendations (Chap 6)	Achievement of research Objectives Contribution to knowledge Contribution to practice Recommendations for future Research	Answer research objectives 1,2,3 Model of employee turnover in quick service Retention toolkit

Figure 1.3: Thesis Road Map

In the road map, the research objectives are identified in the introductory chapter (Chapter 1). The research themes surface in the context chapter (Chapter 2) and these themes directly influence the literature review (Chapter 3). The contextual information and the literature review combine to generate the research questions. The research questions plus the philosophical, ethical and methodological approaches detailed in Chapter 4 suggest the data gathering and data analysis tools. The data produced by the study is analysed and discussed in Chapter 5. Comparisons with the extant theory and the contextual information are a key aspect of the analysis and discussion. The literature review is itself impacted and revised as a result of the iterative comparisons. The findings of Chapter 5 then lead to answers to the research objectives, the contribution to knowledge and the contribution to practice in Chapter 6. The remainder of this thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 2 - The Quick Service Sector in Guyana

This chapter provides the macroeconomic background to the issues being experienced by CRI. Details about competition and the turnover problem in the quick service sector are then presented. The chapter then provides background information on CRI along with relevant details about its human resource challenges inclusive of its turnover problem. The chapter also compares the human resource practices of CRI to the requirements of the Decent Work Agenda to identify areas of compliance and deficit.

Chapter 3 - Literature Review

The chapter briefly discusses human resource management and its role in the resource-based view of corporate strategy before initiating a wide-ranging review of the literature on employee turnover, managerial support, customer incivility, workplace incivility and occupational stigma. The research questions are generated in this chapter together with a conceptual model of the employee turnover process at CRI.

Chapter 4 – Philosophy and Methodology

This chapter discusses elementary aspects of philosophy along with critical pragmatism, which is the philosophical approach underpinning this study. The ethical principles guiding this study and the practical steps taken to ensure conformity are described in detail. The chapter then discusses the mixed methods used in this study along with the sampling strategy and data analysis used in both the quantitative and qualitative phases. A report on the pilot study, its results and impact on the main study are also presented.

Chapter 5 - Findings and Discussion

Initially this chapter presents the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis of the quantitative data. This is followed by qualitative data analysis where the data is examined iteratively with information from the context and the literature to produce the findings. The findings are then used to answer all of the research questions of the study.

Chapter 6 – Conclusion

This chapter reviews the achievements of the study viz-a-viz the research objectives. The contribution of the study to knowledge is detailed and a final Model of the Employee Turnover process is presented. This is followed by the study's contribution to practice, which is centered on a Retention Toolkit to be used to improve human resource systems/practices and to train managers of the firm. The chapter ends with recommendations for future research and the final thoughts of the author.

Chapter 2: The Quick Service Sector in Guyana

2.1 Introduction

This Chapter seeks to present the macroeconomic background, industry and company information in order to provide a clear outline of the context within which the study was conducted. The economy of Guyana is about to explode with Guyana's emergence as a petrostate and projected economic growth of 86% in 2020 (IMF, 2019).

This positive outlook presents a tremendous opportunity for business expansion. On the other hand, rising public sector wages and increased competition for labor threaten to crowd out the private sector in the endeavor to recruit employees in the minimum wage band (Caponi, 2017). Recruitment of these entry-level workers is currently a challenge, and unique, given that 40% of the country's youth are unemployed (CDB, 2015), a situation that seems likely to worsen. CRI is already hiring candidates who lack the minimum qualifications for non-managerial positions and are unprepared for the world of work since the sector seems to be unattractive to the educated workforce (Gafar, 2004; CCYD, 2010).

The quick service sector in Guyana has grown in the last thirteen years since the entry of CRI. Store counts have increased 369% and a number of new operators have entered the sector. Current operators in the sector are likely to increase investments even as additional entrants seek to enter the market. This situation has also created retention challenges. After years of decline, the non-managerial turnover rate at CRI rose from 64% in 2018 to 88% in 2019, making this the most important management challenge.

Almost 50% of the restaurant employees are single parents with work-life challenges. These employees are supervised by managers whose training is mainly technical and who lack the soft skills needed to deal with these conflicts. It is likely that turnover is created in this mismatch between the needs of the employees and the skills of the managers.

Within the chapter, information on the macroeconomic opportunities and threats (Section 2.2), work ethic (Section 2.3), a canvas of the local quick service sector (Section 2.4), details on the history and main human resource challenges of CRI (Section 2.5) along with the decent work agenda (Section 2.6) are presented. The Chapter ends with a summary (Section 2.6) of the key issues which impact turnover at CRI and which inform the research questions for this study.

2.2 Macroeconomic Conditions

This section presents important aspects of the current macroeconomic conditions in Guyana which impact recruitment and turnover at CRI. It addresses economic growth, public sector wages and youth unemployment. The focus on youth unemployment is important since quick service jobs are typically filled by young adults. In the United States, “70 percent of the fast-food workforce is at least 20 years old” (Chen, 2015, p.1). This situation was not dissimilar to that being experienced by CRI, where the average age for the non-managerial employees who participated in this study was 24.3 years.

2.2.1 Economic Growth

The short to medium-term outlook for Guyana’s economy is undoubtedly positive. After a brief contraction in 2017, the trend of GDP growth substantially reversed in 2018 when growth of 4.1% was recorded (Bank of Guyana Annual Reports 2018). The year 2018 saw a declining role for the traditional anchors of “sugar, rice, gold and fishing” (Bank of Guyana Annual Reports, 2018, p. 6) with growth driven primarily by:

...higher production of bauxite, livestock, forestry and other crops as well as increases in the activities of construction, manufacturing, wholesale & retail trade, rental of dwellings and other services (Bank of Guyana Annual Report, 2018, p. 9).

Table 2.1: Guyana GDP Growth Rate (%) 2015 - 2020

Guyana GDP Growth (%)	
YEAR	%
2015	3.2
2016	3.4
2017	2.1
2018	4.1
2019	4.4*
2020	86*
* Denotes estimated growth	

Source: Bank of Guyana Annual Report, 2018

The IMF has projected GDP growth rates of 4.4% for 2019 (Guyana: Staff Concluding Statement of the 2019 Article IV Mission, 2019) and 86% for 2020 (IMF, 2019; Bristow and Fieser, 2019.). The jump in projected growth for 2020 is due to “tsunami of cash” expected as Guyana emerges as the “World’s Newest Petrostate” (Crowley, 2019, p.1). The expected growth in the economy presents

an opportunity for CRI to grow its business, as customers will likely have increased disposable income.

2.2.2 Rising Public Sector Wages

Facing a clamour for increased public sector wages (Government reviewing public sector employees’ wages, Kaieteur News, 2016), the Government has responded with annual wage increases. The increases varied depending on the rank of the employee. Typically, the lowest paid employees received the highest increases. Table 1 below shows the increases granted for the last five years. In 2019, these increases ranged from 3% at the low end to a maximum of 9%:

...public servants will see the minimum wage boosted from \$64,200 to \$70,000. Along with their salary boost, public servants will also receive increases ranging from three percent to nine percent. In addition, all the increases will be retroactive to January 2019, and will free be from tax (Minimum wage boosted to \$70,000, Kaieteur News, 2019).

Table 2.2: Guyana: Public Sector Wage Increases 2015 - 2019

Guyana: Public Sector Wage Increases		
YEAR	Min (%)	Max (%)
2015	5	26.4
2016	1	10
2017	0.5	8
2018	0.5	7
2019	3	9

Source: Kaieteur News, 2019

Quick service work is hard and physically strenuous with long hours. Quick service operators, such as CRI, who typically pay minimum wage to their non-managerial workers, will have to match the constantly rising minimum wage offered by the public sector if they are to survive. To make matters worse, the government has adopted a new approach of making increases retroactive and free of taxation. This policy is one that is patently unfair to private sector workers. The annual public sector salary increases, and the tax-free component, have the potential of crowding out the private sector in the competition for workers in the minimum wage band (Caponi, 2017).

2.2.3 Unemployment

Data on the labor markets in Guyana and the Caribbean is scant. In fact, the Caribbean Development Bank, in a 2015 Report titled “Youth are the Future: The Imperative of Youth Employment for Sustainable Development in the Caribbean,” addresses this issue in its very first sentence stating “the quality of labor market data in the Caribbean is poor” (CDB, 2015, p7). This same report highlighted several worrying trends amongst youth. Whilst it was a Caribbean wide study, most of its findings are applicable to Guyana whose youth population was included in the study. The CDB (2015) report identified youth unemployment in the Caribbean as amongst the highest in the world. The poorest youth tended to have a labor participation rate greater than that of those better off. This situation is likely the result of youths dropping out of school in order to boost family income (CCYD, 2010). Unemployment also impacted women more than men since women were affected negatively by unplanned pregnancies and other work requirements, such as household chores (CDB, 2015). A high level of teenage pregnancies had previously been linked to poor education (CCYD, 2010).

The CDB (2015) report indicated a 40% level of youth unemployment in Guyana. This issue of youth unemployment has been a chronic problem for Guyana. Gafar (2004) had reported similar findings from statistics as far back as 1999:

In 1999, approximately 35% of the total unemployed was concentrated in the age group 15-24 years. The data show that approximately 41% of the age group 15-19 years and 16% of the age group 20-29 years are unemployed; hence, youth unemployment is a serious problem (Gafar, 2004, p.672).

In addition to concerns about the level of youth unemployment, there are issues about readiness for the world of work. Turning again to a regional study, the Caricom Commission on Youth Development (CCYD) stated thus:

The Region has produced excellent graduates, capable of holding their own anywhere in the world, but it is an already acknowledged fact that such quality is not the norm; that the education systems are performing well below acceptable standards, turning out adolescents and youths who are ill-equipped, not only for the Twenty-First Century world of work, but also for social life (CCYD, 2010, p33).

Here again Gafar (2004) had reported similarly for the situation in Guyana:

Another reason for youth unemployment is that the current educational system has not prepared youths for the labor market. Employers find that many of the youths who seek work lack basic literacy and numeracy skills, good work ethic and attitude, and technical skills (Gafar, 2004, p.673).

The failure of the education system has led to a gap between jobs available and the skills of the potential recruits. It is felt that remittances from the Guyanese diaspora and the ability to earn via illicit activities help to perpetuate the current state of dysfunction (Gafar, 2004) by providing a safety net. Whilst there seems to be an abundance of youths available for employment in the quick service sector, there is evidence that there might be substantial shortcomings in the preparation of these youths for the world of work.

2.3 Work Ethic

The issue of work ethic amongst the youths of Guyana was explored by Gafar (2004). There is additional anecdotal evidence to suggest that this is indeed a serious problem. One columnist writing under a pen name described the situation as follows:

The work ethic in Guyana leaves much to be desired. Change in Guyana's work ethic is slow. No matter what is done, the work ethic remains almost the same as it was three decades ago. This is so because workers are rarely sanctioned for their work ethic. They get away with their lackadaisical attitude (The work ethic in Guyana, Kaieteur News, 2015).

If one were to accept the statement above and the research of Gafar (2004) as true, then this situation presents serious challenges for businesses, especially those in the service sector. Taking this to its logical conclusion, this means expectations for efficient delivery of services should be muted. Hamer (2009) writing in the Stabroek News, a leading national newspaper, provided some justification for this inference stating:

I have already said that our standard of Customer Service in Guyana is, on the whole, distressingly low. This, of course, is not to say that we will not find high standards in some places. On the whole, however, I have found that instances of unpleasantness, unhelpfulness, indifference, rudeness and, sometimes, downright backwardness are to be found in an alarmingly high number of places where people are required to go to receive one service or another (Hamer, 2009).

Poor work ethic will have negative impacts on customer service. The comments of Hamer (2009) point to incivility being directed at customers. Such incivility might be a catalyst for customer incivility as a response. Addressing this issue through training will be important for quick service employers such as CRI who tend to provide jobs for those entering the workforce for the first time.

2.4 Overview of the Quick service Sector

The importance of this sector is not always obvious. This study previously referenced the paucity of information on the labor market. The situation with Guyana’s quick service sector is much worse. Data on the contribution of, and employment levels in, the restaurant industry in Guyana is limited. Data on the issues of competition and employee turnover in the sector is non-existent. Nevertheless, this section will use the best available socioeconomic information to illuminate the context of the study.

2.4.1 Economic Contribution

The Central Bank of Guyana (BOG) Annual Report for 2016 states that:

Although private sector employment data are unavailable, there were indications of some job creation in the mining, telecommunication, and other services industries (Bank of Guyana Annual Report 2016, p. 14).

From the BOG 2016 Annual Report, we learn that restaurants are reported under “other services” and that this category also includes tourism, hotel and entertainment activities. The 2016 report indicated that:

Other services, which consist of tourism, restaurant, hotel, and entertainment activities, grew by 5.7 percent compared to 1.7 percent growth in 2015, due to the fiftieth independence anniversary celebrations and seasonal activities during 2016 (Bank of Guyana Annual Report 2016, p. 13).

There was no mention of other services in the BOG 2017 Annual Report but the 2018 Report had this to say:

Other service activities expanded by 14.0 percent relative to the 3.5 percent growth end-2017 due to social and cultural activities in the first half of 2018 alongside seasonal demand (Bank of Guyana Annual Report 2018, p.12).

Table 2.3: Guyana: Growth in Other Services

Guyana: Growth in Other Services (%)	
YEAR	Growth Rate (%)
2015	1.7
2016	5.7
2017	3.5
2018	14

Source: Bank of Guyana Annual Report, 2018

The quick service sector has the potential to make meaningful economic contributions. For example, the restaurant sector in the US grew 8.6% annually and revenues reached \$160 billion in 2013, with the quick service sector responsible for 25% of that figure (Bebe, 2016). Based on the BOG reports of 2016 and 2018, we now know that other services in Guyana have been expanding and that growth ranged from a low of 1.7% in 2015 to a high of 14% in 2018. The information reported in the BOG Annual Reports represents the best available information on the restaurant sector. The consolidation of the restaurant sector with tourism, hotel and entertainment, means we are unable to provide specific details about the size and contribution to GDP of the restaurant sector or its quick service component. However, based on the information available on competition in quick service in Guyana, it can be inferred that its growth probably matches the documented growth in other services.

2.4.2 Competition

Whilst there is no information available in the public domain about the gross revenues of the restaurant industry or the quick service sector in Guyana or the market shares of the different operators, information is available on the growth in the number of stores.

Construction of new quick service outlets continued unabated, despite the brief contraction in economic growth experienced in 2017. In 2006, the operators of quick service chains were Popeye's (one store), KFC (four stores), Pizza Hut (one store), Dairy Bar (one store which is now closed), Demico (eight stores now reduced to four) and Royal Castle (one store now increased to eight) with a total of sixteen stores. There is now a total of fifty-nine (59) stores opened as of December 2019 (See Table 4). This represents a 369% increase in thirteen (13) years with a number of new stores currently under construction. These fifty-nine (59) stores represent the entire population of quick service chain stores in the country and all the units are locally owned. Omitted from this survey are the small 'mom and pop' restaurants which may offer, in part, similar fare.

The franchise of the original KFC/Pizza Hut group operator was terminated in 2014. Pizza Hut reopened in December 2015 and KFC reopened in October 2016, both under new franchisees. Burger King was the first of the big international burger chains to enter the market when they opened their first location in December 2017. Articles appearing in the newspapers and online suggest that Wendy's also has an interest in entering the Guyana market (Wendy's for Guyana, Stabroek News, 2010).

Table 2.4: Quick Service Operators in Guyana

Operator	Year Started	Number of Stores
Demico House	1971	4
KFC	1994	7
Pizza Hut	1996	6
Royal Castle	1999	9
Popeye's	2003	3
Church's Chicken	2006	15
Mario's Pizza	2009	4
Quiznos	2012	1
Bruster's	2012	2
Dairy Queen	2013	5
Burger King	2017	3

CRI operates the Church's Chicken, Mario's Pizza, Quiznos and Dairy Queen brands. This means that CRI operates 25 of the 59 outlets in operation. However, its competitors have opened/relaunched 17 units in the last three years.

2.4.3 Employee Turnover Issues

Batt and Lee (2014) undertook a survey of the entire restaurant sector in the US and stated that in all four sectors (fine upscale dining, casual fine dining, moderately priced family restaurants and quick service) high turnover levels are a problem and this was especially so in the quick service sector. Such high turnover numbers have a harmful effect on operations and service as:

When turnover is high, it's often difficult to maintain that same level of service because it takes time for management to hire and train new employees. Trying to do the same with less is already a challenge, but the noise and friction around indoctrinating new team members when simultaneously running day-to-day operations compels managers to cut corners so they can get staff out on the floor faster. This creates gaps where inconsistencies can emerge and impact the guest experience (Carouthers, 2019).

Bebe (2016) had previously cited turnover rates reaching 300% for the lowest level employees in some quick service stores. High turnover in the restaurant sector is not limited to the US, Nasyira et al. (2014) report a non-managerial turnover rate of 100% in the quick service in Malaysia. At CRI, the non-managerial turnover rate, which declined from a high of 102% in 2014 to 64% in 2018, rose again to 88% in 2019.

A careful analysis of the information presented in this section shows that the restaurant sector is likely growing and making a significant contribution to Guyana's economy. Taken together, the growth in other services and the growth in store count corroborate the inference above. However, the turnover problem in the quick service sector is a major challenge. CRI has not been exempt from this phenomenon, and managing this turnover issue is a major goal for CRI and the focus of this study. The next section will review critical aspects of CRI in an effort to identify specific factors which may be driving employee turnover.

2.5 Camex Restaurants Inc (CRI)

This section will provide a brief history of CRI before reviewing the environmental threats and company-specific challenges with recruitment, employee turnover, work-life conflicts and management development to draw attention to the turnover problem and the key variables which may be driving it.

2.5.1 CRI History

CRI was established in 2006 with the objective of being the restaurant operating arm of parent company Camex Limited. The company operates five different restaurant brands. These brands are Church's Chicken, Mario's Pizza, Quiznos, Dairy Queen and Pollo Tropical. The first store, a Church's Chicken restaurant, was opened in the capital city of Georgetown, Guyana in March 2006. Mario's Pizza was added in November 2009, Quiznos in July 2012, Dairy Queen in October 2013 and Pollo Tropical in December 2016.

CRI operates seven locations in the capital city of Georgetown together with stores in several other rural areas throughout the country (Linden, New Amsterdam, Rosignol, Rose Hall, Corriverton, Buxton, Parika, Vreed-En-Hoop and Bartica). CRI remains the only operator in the entire country with a significant footprint outside of the capital city. The population in several of these rural areas is quite small and unlikely to sustain more than one or two operators. Consequently, CRI has had the benefit of a first mover advantage.

In 2006, CRI had sales just under US\$1M. By 2012, sales had exceeded US\$12M and CRI had become the largest restaurant company in Guyana surpassing, by a significant margin, even the KFC/Pizza Hut group which had started operations in 1993. In 2012, CRI captured the Church's Chicken Franchisee of the Americas Award, the Guyana Manufacturers and Services Association President's Award for unprecedented growth and the Church's Chicken Growth Pillar Award for five years of double-digit growth in sales and transactions. In 2014, CRI won the President's Award from the Georgetown Chamber of Commerce and the Business of the Year Award from the African Business Expo. As of 2019, CRI employs over 400 people with turnover of approximately US\$16M annually.

2.5.2 Wage Pressure

Rising public sector wages and increased competition in the quick service sector present a serious threat to CRI's ability to recruit and retain its non-managerial employees. It is no secret that such employment entails hard work, on shifts with long hours, on weekends and holidays with low pay. With public sector minimum wages now above those of the private sector, a government job seems much more appealing than the physicality of quick service. CRI's ability to respond to the wage pressure is limited by the fact that the quick service business typically has very thin margins. The emerging oil economy and projected rapid growth in GDP will create increased competition in the labor market and add another layer of difficulty.

2.5.3 Recruitment

Increased competition means there is an intense struggle amongst the operators in quick service for recruits, but that is not the end for CRI. With the high level of youth unemployment, it would be natural to assume that CRI's files are overflowing with applications, but the situation is quite the contrary. This is, perhaps, a confirmation of the unwillingness to work previously detected in the CDB (2015) report. On several occasions over the past years, CRI has been compelled to hold Job Fairs as staff levels declined to perilous levels.

A further complication arises from the fact that the quick service sector in Guyana does not attract the best educated youth. Historically, in the US, teenagers and young adults at tertiary institutions made up a significant proportion of the staff at restaurants. However, in recent times, the quick service sector there has also been experiencing difficulty recruiting young people as a result of low levels of unemployment and rapid growth in the number of fast-food outlets (Abrams and Gebeloff, 2018). There is some evidence that graduates of tertiary educational institutions in Guyana see quick service work as being beneath them (Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment, Kaieteur News, 2016). This perception of restaurant workers as uneducated has been documented in the literature in different contexts (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018).

As a consequence of the foregoing, CRI is forced to take applicants whose qualifications are notably below the minimum threshold of three subjects CXC or GCSE. Currently, 52% of the non-managerial employees lack the minimum educational requirements. Of those accepted for training, 18% are unable to pass the initial training tests. Failure to accept those who do not satisfy minimum requirements would mean closing stores and going out of business. With no immediate end in sight to this situation, the need to employ just about anyone applying will continue for the foreseeable future.

2.5.4 Employee Turnover

The turnover rate at CRI had been on the decline until recently. The aggregate turnover rate declined from 77% in 2014 to 47% at the end of 2018 before climbing again to 61% in 2019. The turnover rate for the managerial ranks has undergone continuous declines, moving from 27% in 2014 to 18% in 2019 (see Table 2.5 below). The rise in aggregate turnover in 2019 was fueled by a jump in the turnover rate for non-managerial employees from 64% to 88% in 2019. Management will need to pay careful attention to this negative trend.

Table 2.5: Camex Restaurants Turnover Statistics

CAMEX RESTAURANTS TURNOVER STATISTICS												
Year	Aggregate Turnover				Non-Managerial Turnover				Managerial Turnover			
	Open	Close	Terminated	Rate (%)	Open	Close	Terminated	Rate (%)	Open	Close	Terminated	Rate (%)
2014	374	408	303	77	260	268	269	102	114	140	34	27
2015	408	444	272	64	268	281	235	85	140	163	37	24
2016	444	467	251	55	281	292	219	76	163	175	32	19
2017	467	392	227	53	292	235	195	74	175	157	32	19
2018	392	405	188	47	235	252	157	64	157	153	31	20
2019	405	420	251	61	252	255	223	88	153	165	28	18

The decline between 2014 and 2018 was probably the result of efforts by the management to measure employee turnover and focus on its reduction. Incentive programs which rewarded attendance, punctuality and customer service were implemented for non-managerial employees whilst non-compete clauses were added to the contracts of senior managers. A secondary factor, that possibly impacted the decline, was the slowdown in the economy with GDP growth declining from 3.2% in 2015 to 2.1% in 2017 (BOG Annual Reports 2016 and 2018). This slowdown would have reduced the prospects for job seekers, and it is surprising that the impact of the slowdown did not reduce turnover to a greater extent. The explanation for this may lie in the simultaneous rapid expansion of the quick service sector, which proceeded unabated through the economic decline and increased competition for labor. As the economy strengthens, the turnover rate is expected to rise with consequential negative impacts for the company. The increase in the rate for non-managerial turnover from 64% to 88% in 2019 is early evidence of what the short to medium-term future holds.

2.5.5 Work-Life Conflict

Over 90% of the employees at CRI are women. With high levels of teenage pregnancies and many single parent households, numerous women take up employment out of desperation as there is an acute need to provide for self and family (The plight of today's parents, Kaieteur News, 2014). Even if there are no dependents involved, economic circumstances often force many, both male and female, into employment even though they may be unwilling to work. Of the 322 employees who work directly in the restaurants, 154 women and 5 men identify as single parents. The absence of suitable childcare arrangements and the requirement to perform household chores often conflict with employment in quick service. The hours of work are also a challenge, as employees on the night shifts will normally arrive home late from work. The fact that non-managerial workers earn close to minimum wage means day care, babysitter and elder care fees are usually beyond their means. Time off to study is only granted to employees with two years or more service, so the opportunities for personal development are limited for the same segment of the employee population where turnover is highest. Even given time off to attend a child's parent conference or some other urgent personal matter might be difficult to negotiate if such a meeting did not fall on the employee's day off or was not requested well in advance.

These work-life conflicts, inherent in quick service work, mean that once an alternative presents itself employees will leave their jobs (Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al, 2018). Reducing work-life conflict and improving promotional opportunities have been shown as important for increasing the retention of female employees (Deery and Jago, 2015). It is important for the management of CRI to address these concerns in order to further reduce its turnover level.

2.5.6 Management Training

Given the obvious difficulties that would arise from work-life conflicts, managerial support would be expected to play a significant role in resolving these issues (O'Neill et al., 2009; Lewis, 2010). Providing this support would require training to assist managers in developing, inter alia, the required soft skills (Poulston, 2009; Davidson et al., 2010; Bharwani and Butt, 2012).

Recruitment challenges forced CRI into a practice of promoting from within. This has necessitated several training programs since many recruits were academically unprepared in the first place. There are internal and external aspects to the training of managers at CRI. Internally, there are three levels of training. Level 1 training, which is titled Team Trainers Training, is for Assistant Supervisors. The Level 2 training is titled Basic Operations and Leadership Training and is targeted at Assistant Supervisors and Supervisors. The third and final level of internal management training is the Advanced Operations and Leadership Training, which was designed for Supervisors, Senior Supervisors and Managers. Details on the areas covered in these three levels are provided in the Table 2.6 below:

Table 2.6: Internal Management Training

Title	Target Managers	Objectives
Team Trainers Training	Asst. Supervisors	a) Hands on training for new team members
Basic Operations and Leadership Training	Asst. Supervisors Supervisors	a) Effectively open and closed shifts; b) Prepare a daily deployment chart; c) Supervise the Team Trainer; and, d) Follow the Leaders Path Chart
Advanced Operations and Leadership Training	Supervisors Senior Supervisors Managers	a) Effectively open and close shifts b) Plan weekly rosters c) Execute an entire shift with minimum distractions/problems d) Prepare requisition forms e) Maintain an effective line of communication at various levels.

CRI has also provided numerous opportunities for staff members to develop professionally through external management development and specialist training programs. These external programs were as follows:

MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

1. University of Guyana - Degree programs in the areas of Finance and Business Management
2. Master of Business Administration programs at the University of Guyana, the University of the West Indies, the University of London and the Australian Institute of Business.
3. Institute of Private Enterprise Development - Marketing Diploma from the Institute of Commercial Management.
4. Associate certification from the Association of Chartered and Certified Accountants.
5. JTW Management Institute - Certificate in Customer Service.

SPECIALIST TRAINING

6. Financial Literacy and Counterfeit Detection.
7. Supply Chain Management

A review of the training provided demonstrates a gap in terms of soft skills training, which is exactly what is required for the provision of managerial support. This is managerial support that would focus on helping employees manage work-life conflicts and facilitate career development.

2.6 Decent Work Agenda

This section identifies the essential features of decent work and produces evidence of Guyana's commitment to the decent work agenda through its international agreements and local legislation. Literature connecting the various aspects of decent work, and legislative mandates, to employee retention are discussed. The section ends with a comparison of the employment practices of CRI to the requirements of decent work, and local legislation, to detect areas of compliance and deficit.

2.6.1 International and Local Requirements

The International Labour Organization (ILO) identified decent work as comprising:

...fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men (Decent Work, 2020, p. 1).

For the ILO decent work is important as it will result in “stronger and more inclusive economic growth” (Decent Work and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 2020, p.2). In keeping with its mandate to effect decent work globally, the ILO has identified, for special attention, increased participation of women in the workforce with satisfactory policies for maternity protection and work-life balance; addressing the possible mismatch between the demands of the workplace and the skills of young people; safe workplaces where both employers and employees are aware of their rights and responsibilities; and inclusive decision-making involving workers at all levels (Decent Work and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 2020).

To advance the decent work agenda in Guyana, a Decent Work Country Work Programme 2017 to 2021 was agreed between the government, labour and employers' associations. Whilst this programme addresses decent work from a public policy perspective, it does identify concerns about safety at work, unacceptable work (child labour, domestic workers and non-standard forms of employment) and social protection which have specific relevance to business enterprises. More specific to this study, Guyana is a signatory to the Working Conditions (Hotels and Restaurants) Convention, 1991 (No. 172). The 1991 Convention seeks to ensure, inter alia, that the hours of work for restaurant workers are reasonable with provisions for rest periods, overtime pay, leave and holiday work which are in accord with local laws and practice. Additionally, working schedules should be provided with reasonable notice so that workers are able to manage personal and family commitments.

Several pieces of local legislation operate collectively to protect the rights of restaurant workers and give effect to Guyana's commitment to the Decent Work Agenda and the 1991 Convention. The Labour Act 1942 (Chapter 98:01) states, inter alia, that wages are to be in the form of money

and employers must have no say about the manner in which such wages are to be expended. The Leave with Pay Act 1995 (Chapter 99:02), sets out the annual holiday entitlement for all workers. The Labour (Conditions of Employment of Certain Workers) Act 1978 (Chapter 99:03) establishes the minimum wages and other conditions of work for restaurant and certain other categories of workers. The Termination of Employment and Severance Pay Act 1997 (Chapter 96:01) sets out the necessary conditions for redundancy, termination and disciplinary action. It also specifies the minimum notice period for termination of an employee's service and the basis for computation of severance. The Prevention of Discrimination Act 1997 (Chapter 99:08) seeks to prevent sexual harassment, gender discrimination as well as discrimination in recruitment, employment, promotion and training. The aim of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 1997 (Chapter 99:06) is to ensure a safe working environment for all employees and for the establishment of safety committees in all workplaces.

The idea of decent work represents an aspirational goal of the ILO for all jobs globally. This idea does not necessarily mesh with the neo-liberal agenda which tends to increase inequality (Blustein et al., 2016). Nevertheless, the pursuit of most aspects of the decent work agenda has been connected in the literature to increased employee retention. Poulston (2009) identified the hospitality sector as one with poor working conditions resulting from, inter alia, long hours of work, staff shortages, time constraints, shift work and inadequately skilled managers, which are all factors that drive employee turnover. Cloutier et al. (2015) linked both the pursuit of gender balance and the development of employees through training to increased retention. Building on the work of Hirschman (1970) and Spencer (1986), Lam et al. (2016) suggested that giving voice to employees will promote firm creativity/improvement and reduce turnover intentions. Sherman et al. (2008) highlighted an association between occupational safety and turnover intentions. The linkage between pay and employee turnover is not necessarily as strong as one might expect. The literature suggests a threshold above which pay loses significance as a driver (Khatri et al., 2001; Muhoho, 2014). The subjects of this study are mainly female entry-level workers earning minimum wages. Almost half of the study subjects are also single parents. The findings of Hennequin (2007) suggest that the adequacy of pay would be important for reducing turnover amongst these employees.

2.6.2 Areas of Compliance and Deficit

The import of Guyana's commitment to the decent work agenda, the 1991 Convention and local legislation means that CRI should ensure a fair income, overtime pay, satisfactory conditions of work (inclusive of scheduling that allows for attention to personal matters), adequate leave and rest, minimum standards of social protection, equality of opportunity between men and women and a safe working environment. Additionally, opportunities for training and participation in decision-making should be afforded to all employees. In keeping with the above requirement for

facilitating changes in the work schedule, CRI insists that whenever there is an urgent personal matter which requires attention, requests should be submitted at least one week in advance.

The private sector minimum wage in Guyana is \$44,200.00 monthly whilst the public sector minimum wage is \$70,000.00. Entry level crew members at CRI earn \$53,482.00 monthly which is 21% above the mandated minimum wage for private sector workers. These crew members also receive a meal allowance of \$5,612.00 for a total of \$59,094.00 monthly. Once the crew member has successfully completed the first training course (All Star Examination) they receive a 3% boost to their income. An attendance bonus is paid fortnightly if they have not been absent from, or late to, work during the fortnight. Crew members also receive other allowances if they function as cooks or cashiers or work in the cold room. Prima facie it would seem that salaries and allowances for crew members at CRI greatly exceed the required minimums and probably represent a fair income even though it is less than the remuneration for entry level public service workers.

Crew members are legally entitled to one hour's rest during every eight hour shift. Additionally crew members receive overtime pay for all work which exceeds 40 hours per week. The Holidays with Pay (Hotel, Restaurant, Cookshop and Parlour Employees) Order made under the Leave with Pay Act 1995 (Chapter 99:02) specifies that restaurant employees be granted a minimum of one day's leave (or twelve (12) days annually) for every month worked. CRI crew members are granted leave in accordance with the statute. However, after three years of service this entitlement is increased, in excess of the statutory minimum, to sixteen (16) days annually. After five years of service this entitlement is again increased to twenty (20) days annually.

Social protection benefits are provided in the first instance by the National Insurance Scheme (NIS) which provides a wide range of benefits including old age pension, industrial injury and maternity benefits (https://www.nis.org.gy/benefits_payable). Social protection for crew members follow the same trend as income and leave with CRI providing benefits in excess of the statutory minimums. Pregnant crew members are given a reduced workload prior to going on maternity leave. The law provides for three months maternity leave during which the (NIS) pays 70% of their salary and CRI pays 30%. Additionally, the company provides a non-compulsory contributory pension scheme for employees with at least two years of service. Group Life and Group Medical coverage are also provided for all employees on a non-contributory basis.

Remarkably, eighty five percent (85%) of both the crew members, and the managers, are female. Consequently, current issues like gender equity in the workplace were never raised and are not currently areas of concern.

In order to ensure substantive justice for employees, all requests for suspension or termination of crew members are reviewed by a team of senior executives including the CEO. Procedurally, the system can be improved to give the employee a proper hearing. Currently, the voice of the employee is only heard on an ad hoc basis in such disciplinary matters. This absence of the employee's voice also extends to day to day work issues. Oftentimes, issues become critical

before they are addressed. In addition to the lack of employee voice, CRI lacks a plan for the personal development of its crew members beyond the technical on the job training. A final area of deficit is the absence of a statutorily required Health and Safety Committee.

This section has detailed the requirements of decent work and local legislation. It has identified compliance gaps with CRI failing to ensure crew member participation in decision-making and its failure to address issues relating to the personal development of crew members. CRI must also establish the statutorily required Health and Safety Committee. All three of these areas have been connected to employee retention in the literature (Hirschman, 1970; Spencer 1986; Sherman et al., 2008; Cloutier et al., 2015; Lam et al., 2016)

2.6 Summary

The economic outlook for Guyana is positive and the economy is expected to accelerate with its emergence as a petrostate. GDP growth is projected to reach 86% in 2020 (IMF, 2019). Rising public sector wages, increased competition in quick service, and higher demand for labor from the wider private sector are all likely to result in wage inflation. In this environment, CRI will face serious challenges in recruiting and retaining its employees. In fact, the company is already facing rising employee turnover after years of decline. Addressing these challenges is critical if CRI is to retain its leading position in this people-centered business.

Preliminary indications are that work in quick service is viewed negatively and not suitable for the educated (Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment, Kaieteur News, 2016). The suggestion is that the educated youth of Guyana see quick service work as beneath them. This has resulted in a situation where CRI is hiring and promoting employees who fail to meet certain basic academic requirements. At the same time, extant literature has suggested quick service workers are stigmatized as uneducated (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). If it is accepted that quick service in Guyana is stigmatized, then it is likely that employees high in stigma consciousness will reduce occupational identification (Shantz and Booth, 2014) and leave (Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2018). The ultimate goal of this study is the reduction of employee turnover; hence, this issue of occupational stigma will be further investigated.

Just under half of those employed directly in the restaurant are single parents. This situation is likely to generate work-life conflicts that create turnover intentions (Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al., 2018). Lowering the turnover rate will provide many benefits, of which improved customer service is perhaps the most desired. The issues with work-life conflicts will require resolution if turnover is to be reduced, and developing supportive managers will be key in this regard (O'Neill et al., 2009; Lewis, 2010). However, the internal and external training programs provided to managers by the company seem focused on operations and are unlikely to deliver the soft skills required to manage such a highly contextualized situation.

A review of the human resource policies and practices of CRI has identified compliance gaps when compared to the requirements of decent work and local legislation. CRI needs to address these issues via crew member participation in decision-making, personal development of crew members and a statutorily required Health and Safety Committee as all three of these issues have been connected to employee retention in the literature (Hirschman, 1970; Spencer 1986; Sherman et al., 2008; Cloutier et al., 2015; Lam et al., 2016)

This section has presented the background of the study and identified occupational stigma, work-life conflicts and managerial support as key challenges that may be driving employee turnover. It has also identified a few compliance gaps. These themes inform both the theoretical and empirical analysis undertaken in this dissertation. In many ways, this chapter is the beginning and the end of this study. The contextual information presented in this chapter influences each succeeding

chapter. It impacts Chapter 3 where the challenges identified will be integrated with the literature to develop the research questions. In Chapter 4 factors such as the educational level of the employees influence the data collection tools and the wording of those tools. Chapter 5 brings together information from the context, literature and survey data for iterative analysis to produce the findings of this study and Chapter 6 is where this study's contribution to theory and recommendations for practice are developed to address the problems raised in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will review the extant literature and provide a theoretical framework for this study on employee turnover. Since this study is located in the area of human resource management, the connection and importance of human resource management to business strategy is initially addressed. The review will cover employee turnover, managerial support and occupational stigma, along with other antecedents to turnover such as workplace incivility and customer incivility which are relevant to the quick service sector.

After an initial discussion of human resource management and its role in the resource-based view (RBV) of strategy, the chapter undertakes an extensive discussion of the literature on employee turnover (Section 3.4). The issue of employee turnover is one of recurring concern and one of the most researched areas in human resource management. It has been addressed on numerous occasions, over several decades, in academic journals and doctoral dissertations in various geographical regions (March and Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1982; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Peterson 2004; Budhwar et al., 2009; Harris, 2010; Memon et al., 2014; Bebe, 2016; Ayodele et al., 2020). The chapter reviews the different schools of thought along with the models, causes and effects of turnover. The section on employee turnover ends with a discussion on strategies for reducing turnover.

The next section of the chapter (Section 3.5) examines the literature on managerial support. This section has its origins in the findings in the context chapter. That chapter had identified work-life conflicts as a probable cause for employee turnover at CRI. There has been much research on managerial support and its role in resolving issues of work-life conflict and career development. Interest in this area has grown as these issues take center stage, driven, in part, by the increased presence of women and dual-career couples in the workplace. Greater emphasis on managerial support has been shown to reduce such conflicts (O'Neill et al., 2009; Lewis, 2010; Talukder, 2019).

Customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012; Walker et al., 2014; Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017) is discussed in Section 3.6 and workplace incivility (Pearson and Porath, 2005; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Miner and Eischeid, 2012; Chen and Wang, 2019) is discussed in Section 3.7. Incivility, which surfaced briefly in Section 2.3, is reviewed as it might provide alternative explanations to occupational stigma.

Occupational stigma is addressed in Section 3.8. Research on occupational stigma in the restaurant sector is less developed (Saunders 1981; Wildes, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Shigihara, 2018). Comprehensive searches of various databases found limited research which studied the impact of occupational stigma in the quick service sector (Woodhall-Melnik, 2018). Nothing was found on

occupational stigma and employee turnover in quick service, thus defining a potential research gap to be addressed by this study.

In Section 3.9 a conceptual model of employee turnover is proposed. This model will connect managerial support, occupational stigma, supervisor incivility and customer incivility with employee turnover to demonstrate the mechanism through which these variables impact the turnover decision amongst non-managerial workers in the quick service sector. Information from the context chapter and the literature review serve as the basis for the model and research questions, generated in this chapter, which will be examined in Chapters 4 and 5.

Peer-reviewed research in the areas of employee turnover, managerial support, occupational stigma, workplace incivility, customer incivility and the quick service sector in Guyana is scant to non-existent. The output of this study, then, has the potential fill a gap in the research on employee turnover in quick service and to expand the knowledge of managerial support, occupational stigma, workplace incivility and customer incivility in a new international context.

3.2 Resource-Based View (RBV) of Strategy

This section will briefly review the Resource-Based View (RBV) of strategic thought to highlight the importance of human resource management (HRM) to business strategy and of retention to human resource management (Porter, 1980; Porter, 1985; Barney, 1991; Barney, 1995; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010; Barney et al., 2011; Sirmon et al., 2011; Pesic et al., 2013; Barney and Mackey, 2016; Davis and Simpson, 2017; Delery and Roumpi, 2017; Paauwe and Boon, 2018; Teece, 2018; Magasi et al, 2020).

3.2.1 RBV and Strategy

For more than five decades, the Strength, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) framework has undergirded most of the research on corporate strategy. This framework approaches strategic analysis by utilizing internal and external lenses. RBV was developed in an era when strategy scholarship was dominated by analysis external to the firm. Porter (1980) had advanced a Five Forces model of industry analysis and this work was later augmented by the Porter (1985) analysis of value chain activities that lead to competitive advantage.

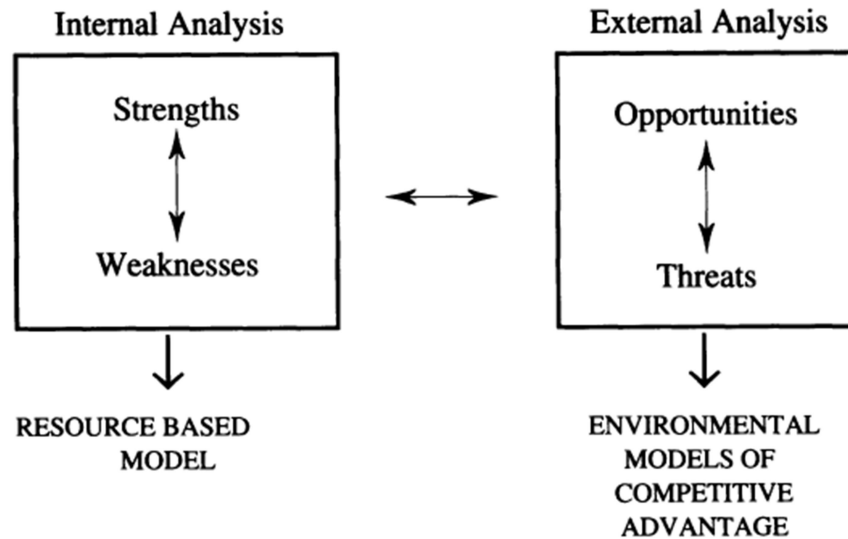


Figure 3:1 SWOT Framework (Barney, 1991, p.100)

Notwithstanding the advances generated by Porter’s work, the insights into corporate strategy remained partial. External analysis represents just half of strategic analysis and was unable to explain differences in the performance of firms in the same industries. An even greater challenge for external analysis was the phenomenal success of individual firms in moribund sectors like the airline and steel industries (Barney, 1995). RBV differs from the industry focused approach (Porter, 1980; Porter, 1985) in that it looks inward towards the development of resources and capabilities to create a sustainable competitive advantage. A firm enjoys a sustainable competitive advantage when it implements:

...a value creating strategy not simultaneously being implemented by any current or potential competitors and when these other firms are unable to duplicate the benefits of this strategy (Barney, 1991, p. 102).

Resources and capabilities within the RBV are defined as:

...bundles of tangible and intangible assets, including a firm’s management skills, its organizational processes and routines, and the information and knowledge it controls that can be used by firms to help choose and implement strategies (Barney et al., 2011, p.1300).

The RBV is not contradictory to the industry focused approach; it seeks to complement it by providing “a framework for evaluating whether or not particular firm resources can be sources of competitive advantage” (Barney, 1991, p.101). RBV assumes that resources possessed by the firm are heterogeneous and immobile. Also implicit in the RBV is the understanding that not all resources possessed by the firm are capable of delivering a sustainable competitive advantage (SCA). Consequently, the identification of the key resources able to deliver a SCA becomes a

critical issue. Barney (1991) advanced the Valuable, Rare, Imperfectly Imitable and Non-Substitutable (VRIN) model as a means of identifying those key resources.

Valuable resources are resources that aid in improving firm efficiency. Since these resources may be possessed by competitors, they will not help the organization to generate a competitive advantage. Consequently, to achieve a competitive advantage, these resources must also be rare. Rare resources may be shared by competitors. However, for these resources to create a competitive advantage, any sharing must stop short of creating a situation of widespread competition. Whilst valuable and rare resources may create competitive advantage, inimitability is necessary for this competitive advantage to be sustainable. With inimitability, other firms are unable to obtain these resources. Inimitability can be achieved through one or more of unique historical conditions, casual ambiguity or social complexity. The final condition for firm resources to deliver a SCA is non-substitutability. The possession of valuable, rare and inimitable resources allows the firm to pursue strategies not available to its competitors but value, rarity and inimitability are not, per se, sufficient conditions for SCA in the RBV. Competing firms with similar or different resources may still be able implement the same strategy. Hence, non-substitutability of the resources is a key attribute of resources capable of delivering a SCA in the RBV model.

Barney (1995) extended the VRIN model by highlighting the role of organization in achieving SCA. Key components of the organization like “its formal reporting structure, its explicit management control systems and its compensation policies” can complement the other resources and capabilities of the firm in enhancing its competitive advantage (Barney, 1995, p. 56). The addition of organization to the model led to a rechristening of VRIN as the VRIO model.

The contentions of the RBV advocates are not without criticism, and whilst is not the purpose of this study to discuss these criticisms in their entirety, a few of them relevant to this study will be addressed. First, it has been argued that the mere possession of VRIO resources is insufficient for achieving a SCA. Achieving a SCA would require both the resources and the capability to deploy those resources. In this regard, RBV was identified as lacking a theory of capability deployment. A second criticism, which is somewhat related to the first, is that RBV doesn't pay sufficient attention to individual judgment, especially the role of entrepreneurs in creating a SCA. Third, the critics also argue that resources are not created equal as RBV seems to suggest; and that, in any event, individual resources are not important for achieving a SCA. It is the effective combination of these resources to achieve synergies that really matters. Fourth, it was suggested that there was not a clear enough distinction between resources and capabilities and this was critical especially for firms facing a hyperactive competitive environment where capabilities would be critical. In other words, RBV was more suited for analysis of a static environment (Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010). Finally, the goal of inimitability will always be difficult to achieve “given that with enough time and money almost every resource can be the object of imitation” (Pesic et al., 2012, p. 579). Progress has been made in overcoming some of the identified weaknesses of RBV. For example, Sirmon et al. (2011) focused on resource orchestration in “addressing the role of

managers' actions to effectively structure, bundle, and leverage firm resources" (Sirmon et al., 2011, p. 1390) whilst Teece (2018) focused on dynamic capabilities which represent "the firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal competences to address, or in some cases to bring about, changes in the business environment" (Teece, 2018, p. 40).

3.2.2 RBV and Human Resource Management

The human resources of the firm include "the knowledge, experience, skill, and commitment of a firm's employees and their relationships with each other and with those outside the firm" (Barney and Wright, 1998, p.32). It has been argued that of the resources and capabilities of the firm, human resources are, perhaps, the most important. It is human resources that must develop and deploy the other resources and capabilities. Barney and Mackey (2016) suggested that:

...if a firm can implement HR practices that exploit its other costly-to-imitate resources and capabilities, these practices can help a firm realize its potential of sustained competitive advantage. (Barney and Mackey, 2016, p.376).

This importance of human resources to the implementation of strategy was underscored by Paauwe and Boon (2018) who suggested that RBV:

...uses (human) resources as a starting point. The unique strengths and capabilities of the employees determine the range of possible business strategies to be implemented (Paauwe and Boon, 2018, p.44).

The VRIO model can be deployed to analyse the human resources (HR) and organizational support of the firm with a view of assessing whether HR practices are capable of delivering a SCA. The challenge to inimitability of resources in the VRIO framework is also a challenge for human and organizational resources. Can the firm develop human resource practices that are inimitable? This study takes the position that this may be possible by synergistically combining human resource systems/practices and the human capital developed within those systems and organization resources (Barney and Wright, 1998; Barney and Mackey, 2016; Delery and Roumpi, 2017; Paauwe and Boon, 2018). For example, a recruitment department focused on attracting the best customer service agents for a firm would be valuable because efficient customer service has been connected to improved firm performance (Kacmar et al., 2006). Within the VRIO model, human resource practices must also be rare to create a competitive advantage. If the recruitment department is then armed with a screening tool which allows it to ascertain whether candidates have the necessary personality traits for frontline customer service then this would likely result in a competitive advantage as a valuable resource is now imbued with rarity. Though rare it is likely that competitors will, over time, develop screening tools of their own to weaken this advantage. It would therefore be necessary for the firm to complement this with inimitable resources to achieve a SCA. In HR, one such example would be a corporate culture based on trust and teamwork (Barney, 1991; Barney, 1995; Barney and Wright, 1998). This would be difficult to replicate and

would be a good complement for employees selected for their natural gifts to deliver superior customer service. Having satisfied the conditions of value, rarity and inimitability, the organization of participative work systems (or a scheme to incentivize superior customer service) would likely create additional synergies and deliver a SCA. Studies have shown that participative work systems create value (Barney and Wright, 1998; Pesci et al., 2012) and this is one possible example of how organization may combine with the human resource elements in the VRIO model to deliver SCA. In this example, VRIO's embrace of participative work systems would dovetail with the ILO's Decent Work objective of giving voice to employees. Analysis utilizing RBV has been, and continues to be, used in numerous ways within human resource management. These applications include improving workplace learning, analysing entrepreneurship, reporting human capital valuations and determining effective paths for succession planning in family-owned businesses (Davis and Simpson, 2017; Magasi et al, 2020).

3.2.3 RBV, Human Resource Management and Retention

One of the basic goals of human resource management is the provision of a workforce adequate in terms of numbers (headcount) and skills. Regardless of whether strategy formulation is formal or ad-hoc, human resource management needs to be integrated in the process to ensure that positions important to the success of the strategy are filled with the right people. This is a significant point, as people are seen as the most important resource of the firm, as they are critical to firm performance and to competitive advantage (Angle et al., 1985; Pfeffer, 1994; Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2002; Campbell et al., 2012). For Bartlett and Ghoshal (2002):

...people are the key strategic resource, and strategy must be built on a human-resource foundation (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2002, p. 35).

However, effective human resource management goes way beyond recruitment and selection. The development and retention of human capital is also vital (Boxall and Purcell 2000; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2002; Campbell et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2017). These were points addressed succinctly by Lin et al. (2017):

Human capital management comprises two constructs: investment, which is composed of attraction and development, and enhancement, which is composed of deployment and retention (Lin et al., 2017, p.82)

As previously discussed human and organizational resources should be, within the VRIO framework, systematically organized to be a source of SCA. The firm will be unable to achieve, or it will lose, a SCA if it is unable to retain its employees. Hatch and Dyer (2004) make the point that:

Turnover results in a loss of knowledge and training that leads to significant increases in defects. On top of that, the rate of learning is slowed as turnover disrupts the basic

learning process and human resources are focused on training (relearning) rather than new learning (Hatch and Dyer, 2004, p 1174).

Even if selection policies are perfect, high turnover means human capital is leaking, often after training, which is costly. It is, therefore, beneficial for the firm to retain its talent if it is to succeed. Human resource management must, then, accept the challenge of creating a work environment that will enhance retention. There might be the temptation, in sectors such as quick service, to accept high levels of turnover. In other words, human resource management may see its role as simply replacing bodies. There is nothing strategic in such a policy. Significant rents will accrue to the firm that is able to reduce voluntary turnover. It is important to note that the human resource strategy within an organization is “variegated” for the different occupational groups (Boxall and Purcell, 2000; Jackson et al., 2014). The strategies applied to management would rarely be the same as the strategies applied to non-managerial workers. The focus of this study will be on retention of non-managerial workers.

3.2.4 Synopsis of the Literature on the Resource-Based View of Strategy

HRM can play a strong supporting role in achieving a sustainable advantage through the utilization of other resources and capabilities such as patents, licenses, finances and physical assets. What is important to note is that HRM will not be able meet the expectations of any strategy in the face of high employee turnover. This section has provided details on the VRIO framework within RBV. This framework will be utilized to evaluate the human resource management practices of CRI to make recommendations for a retention system that will aid the company’s efforts to achieve a SCA.

3.3 Employee Turnover

This section will explore the theory of employee turnover. The labor market and psychological schools of thought, along with more comprehensive models of employee turnover, are examined and the section ends with recommendations for addressing employee turnover and a synopsis of the section.

3.3.1 Classification of Employee Turnover

Turnover was defined by Mobley (1982) as a “time specific event marked by physical separation from the organization” (Mobley, 1982, p. 111). Where the separation is initiated by the employee, turnover is considered voluntary. Involuntary turnover, on the other hand, occurs where the turnover is initiated by the organization. Researchers and managers should separate these two forms of turnover as it “broadens our understanding of how different types of turnover impact the customer” (Burch and Holtom, 2015, p.27). One can assume that involuntary turnover is good for the organization. However, some forms of involuntary turnover, for example layoffs, may have a demoralizing effect on remaining employees. Subramony and Holtom (2012) had previously

argued for combining layoffs with voluntary turnover when assessing the impact of employee turnover on customer service. Since layoffs have not been an issue for CRI and are unlikely to be an issue in the foreseeable future, this study will focus its attention on voluntary turnover only.

The classification of voluntary turnover can be further subdivided into *functional* and *dysfunctional* turnover. If poor performers leave and are replaced by employees of a higher caliber, or if highly paid employees leave and they are replaced by employees willing to provide the same quality of work for less pay, then this is classified as functional turnover (Allen and Bryant, 2012). Examples of dysfunctional turnover would be the departure of skilled or high-performing employees who are not replaced by employees of similar caliber or are replaced by employees of similar caliber at higher pay (Pietersen and Oni, 2014). Finally, dysfunctional turnover might be *avoidable* or *unavoidable*. Avoidable turnover suggests that the employee left because of a situation over which the organization had control. Examples of this would be an employee leaving because of pay and/or other working conditions (Poulson, 2009; Bakhtiar et al., 2016; Moon and Song, 2019). Unavoidable turnover relates to situations where the organization is not at fault and could do nothing to prevent the departure of the employee. An example of this would be an employee who was migrating to join a spouse. Figure 3.2 below illustrates the different classifications and their linkages.

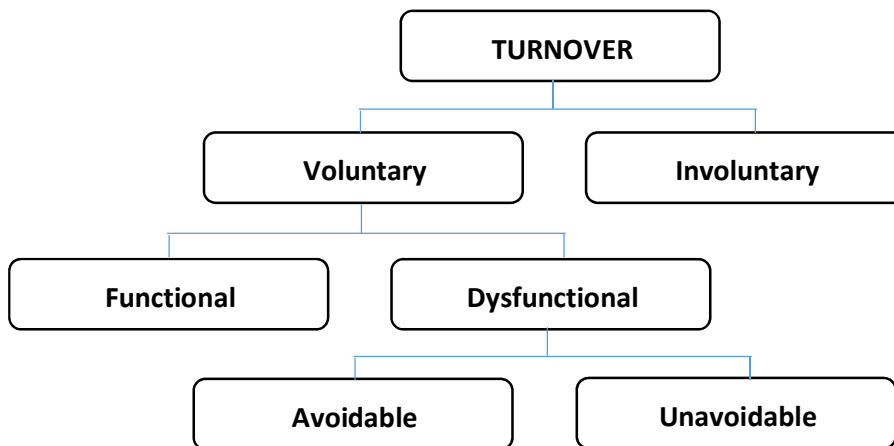


Figure 3.2: Turnover Classification Scheme
(Reprinted from the SHRM Foundation by Allen and Bryant, 2012, p.5)

3.3.2 Labor Market School

There are two schools of thought on the issue of employee turnover. The first school is the labor market school. Bosworth et al. (1996) defined a labor market as when:

...buyers and sellers of labor meet or communicate to agree on a price (a wage) at which they are willing to exchange a given volume of labor services (Bosworth et al., 1996, p. 175)

Within this school, there are several theories. Since there is imperfect knowledge of the market, search theory assumes that sellers of labor set a minimum price at which they would be willing to sell their services. This price will depend on the labor market. At periods of low unemployment, sellers will demand more and vice versa. Even though search theory deals with the unemployed, there is no reason why it cannot be extended to those employed. Employees may search to determine self-worth. Searches might be passive or active where significant investment in time and effort is made. It must be noted the studies have been unable to link search intention to turnover (Morell, 2016).

Whilst on a macro level, a connection might be made between employment levels and turnover, the labor market school, with its focus on pay, is unable to explain turnover at the level of the individual. Allen and Bryant (2012) make it clear that:

...the bulk of the research evidence suggests that pay may not be nearly as important as many managers believe (Allen and Bryant, 2012, p.12).

Effective interventions to manage employee turnover require an understanding of the withdrawal process at the individual level. Given this inadequacy of the labor market school, this literature review will turn to the psychological school for additional clarity.

3.3.3 Psychological School

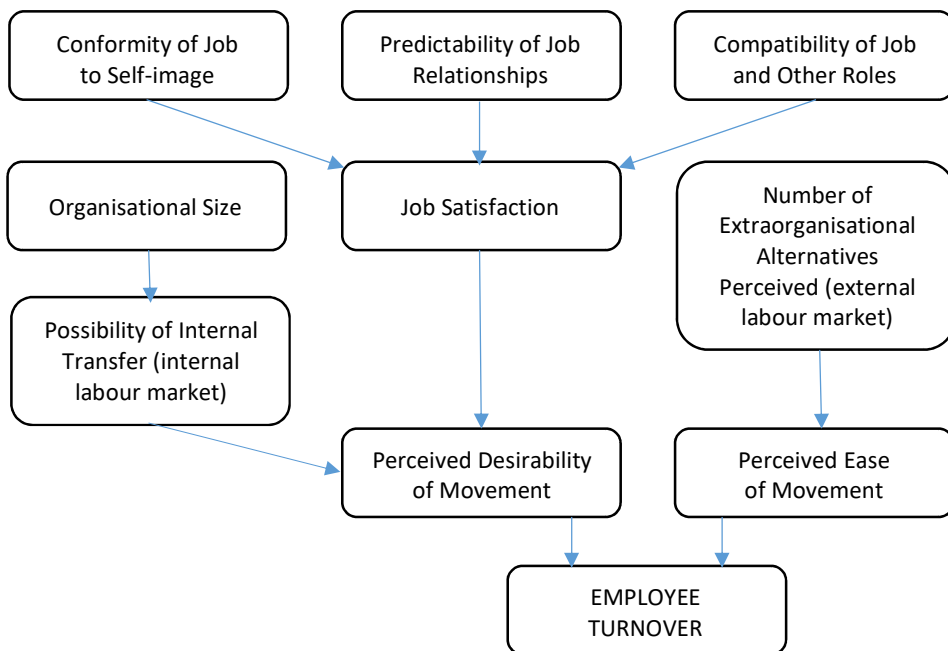


Figure 3.3: Simplified version of March and Simon's model (Morrell, 2016, p.43).

The origin of the psychological school can be traced to the seminal work of March and Simon (1958), and their work continues to influence current turnover literature (Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Morrell, 2016, Wilden et al., 2019). In their view, an employee would continue to participate as long as his or her pay is equal to or exceeds his or her contributions. The employee's determination of the acceptability of his or her pay would be influenced by the value of their work and opportunities available externally. The greater the extent to which pay exceeded contribution, the lower the perceived desirability of movement. This model was unique in that it also captured the effects of the internal and external labor markets.

For March and Simon (1958), job satisfaction was affected by the degree to which the job conforms to the self-image of the individual, predictability of the critical relationships and compatibility of the job with other roles the employee may have outside of the organization. If the employee sees the job as beneath their ideal, or there is difficulty with interpersonal relationships at work, or the work schedule clashes with family and other social commitments, then job satisfaction would be impacted negatively and desirability of movement, aka turnover intention, increases. Ultimately, the decision to leave is:

...determined by two factors: 'perceived desirability of movement', which is influenced by job satisfaction; and 'perceived ease of movement', that is, assessment of alternatives (Morell, 2016, p.43).

With larger organizations, there would be greater opportunities for promotion or transfers from uncomfortable positions. This, in the view of March and Simon (1958), would also reduce the likelihood of transfers. On the other hand, the individual's tendency to search and their visibility in his or her community or sector, together with the number of firms visible to the individual, the number of firms to which the individual is visible and the level of business activity, combine to determine the perception of external opportunities and the perceived ease of movement. The greater the perception of the attractiveness of external opportunities, then greater will be the likelihood of turnover.

Even though March and Simon's (1958) work has influenced generations of employee turnover researchers, it is considered limited since it overemphasized the role of pay as a motivator, ignored the role of organization commitment and failed to see the decision as a process (Morrell, 2016).

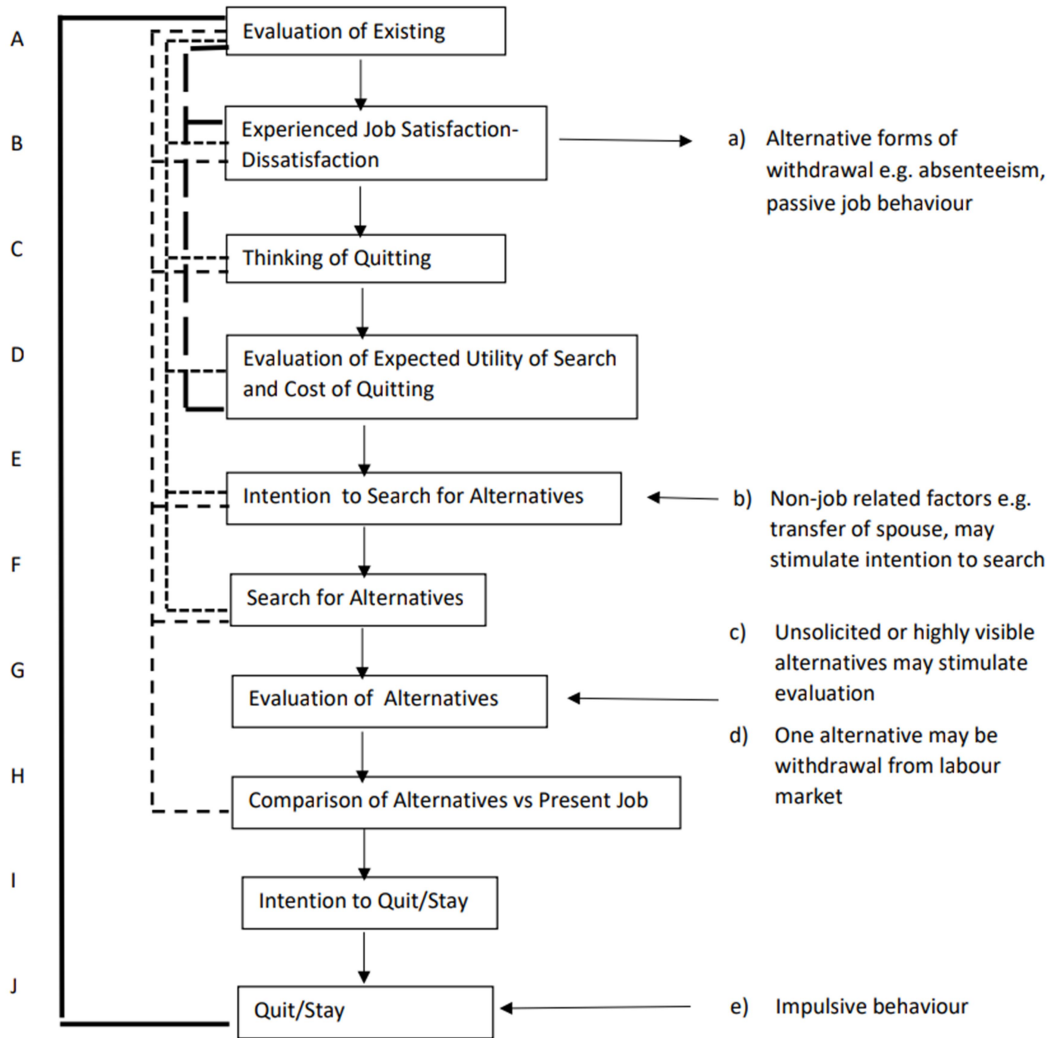


Figure 3.4: The employee turnover decision process (Mobley, 1977, p. 238)

Given the limitations of March and Simon’s work, Mobley (1977) proposed a process model of turnover that is remarkable for its long-lasting influence on the theories concerning the employee turnover process (Hom and Griffeth, 1995). Mobley’s model focused on employee “satisfaction, commitment and intention” (Peterson, 2004, p. 210). These elements remain key to most models on turnover. Mobley (Figure 3.4) proposed that the turnover decision has several stages, beginning with a job evaluation which could lead to a finding of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction would then result in thoughts of resigning and the exploration of alternative employment. The costs of resignation such as loss of benefits, workplace relationships, etc., would be compared with the alternatives explored. If the alternative is still considered worthwhile then a decision to leave is made and the end result is a turnover.

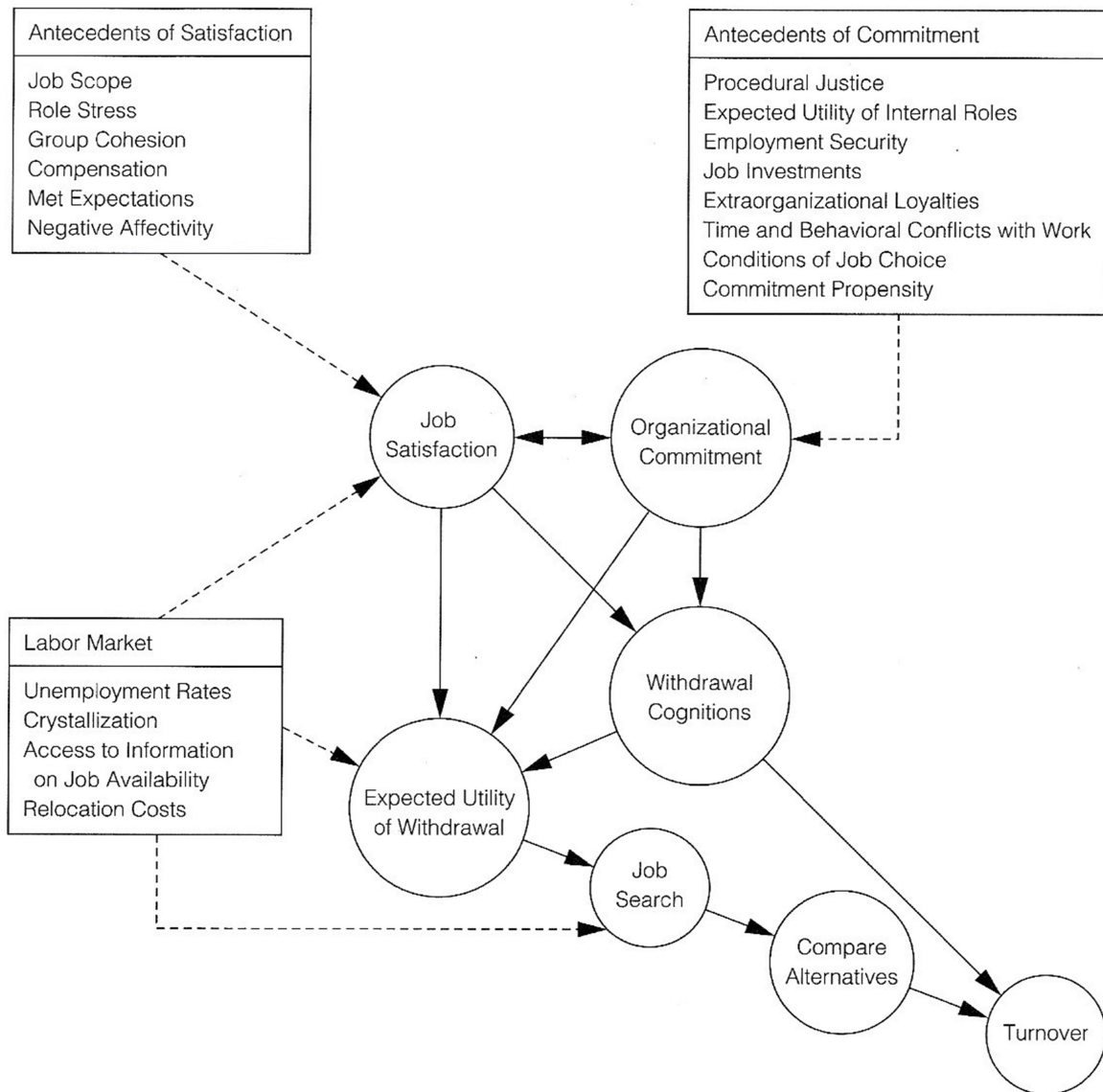


Figure 3.5: Integrative Model of Turnover Determinants (Hom and Griffeth, 1995, p. 108).

In 1995, Hom and Griffeth sought to create an:

...an integrative theoretical framework that builds on contemporary formulations, incorporating constructs and construct linkages that comply with empirical findings (Hom and Griffeth, 1995, p. 107).

In this model, both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were negatively linked to withdrawal cognitions, and the negative relationship between commitment and withdrawal cognitions was stronger than the negative relationship between job satisfaction and withdrawal cognitions. Based on empirical studies, the model reflects a mutual relationship between commitment and satisfaction, whilst they both have a direct impact on withdrawal cognitions.

Dissatisfaction and weakened commitment can lead along one pathway to thoughts of quitting and then directly to turnover. The second pathway deviates slightly from the previous constructs of March and Simon (1958) and Mobley (1977) in that it recognizes an employee can develop thoughts of quitting before the search and comparison of alternatives. The state of the labor market will impact the process by frustrating the decision to quit in periods of high unemployment and accelerating it during periods of low unemployment. In the final stage of this pathway, if the comparison of alternatives is positive, then there is turnover.

3.3.4 Recent Developments

Job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) played a central role in the models used by Mobley (1977) and Hom and Griffeth (1995). Researchers have recognized that employees leave for many reasons which have nothing to do with either of these two factors. An unplanned pregnancy or the relocation of a spouse are two good examples of events that can generate turnover not captured by these models. The shock-driven unfolding model of Lee et al. (1999) attempted to overcome the limitations of the models based primarily on JS and OC. Additionally, some researchers separated the drivers of high turnover between push and pull factors (Budwhar et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010; Lindsay et al., 2019). The genesis of this separation into push and pull, can be found in March and Simon's (1958) model. Push factors are desirable movements which result from weakened job satisfaction. Pull factors reflect ease of movement from job availability. Amongst the push factors are:

...stressful work environment, monotonous work, long commutes, a sense of powerlessness or lack of control at work, daily physical confinement, over-regimentation (the feeling of being spied on), odd work hours, and abusive clients (Budwhar et al., 2009, p.354).

Pull factors are external and include low unemployment, good salaries, benefits and well-known brands (Budwhar et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010).

This focus on factors has led to recent research being directed towards a wide variety of antecedents to turnover intention. Some examples of factors covered by such research are role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, stress, lack of organization support, workplace incivility, work-

life conflict, burnout, family conflict, customer interaction, customer incivility, occupational stigma and dead-end jobs (Wildes, 2005; Wildes; 2007; Deery, 2008; Poulson, 2009; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; De Tienne et al., 2012; Al Battat, 2013; Arnold and Walsh, 2015; Deery and Jago, 2015; Bakhtiar et al., 2016; Suifan et al 2016; Asghar et al., 2018; Han et al., 2016; Rahim and Cosby, 2016; McWilliams, 2017; Rubenstein et al., 2018; Moon and Song, 2019).

It would be inappropriate to end the discussion of the factors which cause employee turnover without mentioning the phenomenon of impulsive resignation (Maertz and Campion, 2004; Hom et al., 2012). Maertz and Campion (2004) described impulsive quitting as follows:

Impulsive quitting is driven by sharp negative affect followed by quitting “on the spot.” It makes sense that impulsive quitters would be less attracted to alternatives. They experience such strong negative affect, perhaps from a psychological contract breach, that they decide to quit immediately without any planning. (Maertz and Campion, 2004, p.578).

Impulsive quitting is an action outside the scope of the models discussed and is also different from push-and-pull factors in that it does not follow the typical path with an evaluation of alternatives. It is conceivable that organizations will experience the occasional impulsive resignation from time to time. However, high levels of such turnover probably mask an underlying problem with management which must be addressed.

3.3.5 Effects of Turnover

There are positive and negative aspects to turnover for the organization. Positive consequences may include separation of poor performers, reduction in employment costs, greater cohesion, satisfaction, commitment and opportunities for upward mobility amongst employees who remain. Possible negative consequences include loss of top performers, decreased customer satisfaction, decreased productivity, higher recruitment/training costs and decreased employee cohesion, satisfaction and commitment (Mobley, 1982; Dyer, 1983; Chen et al., 2010; Tura, 2020). It is likely that the organization will attempt to benefit from the positive consequences of involuntary turnover when separating from an employee. Negative consequences are more commonly associated with voluntary separations and, more so, with high levels of voluntary separation.

With rapid growth in services, greater attention is being paid, by both marketing and human resource management, to the attraction and retention of customer-facing employees (Budhwar et al., 2009; Al Battat, 2013). Several studies have connected higher employee turnover to reduced customer service levels (Kacmar et al., 2006; Hausknecht et al., 2009; Burch and Holtom, 2015). Hausknecht et al (2009) submitted the following mechanism for service depletion:

Turnover impairs organizational performance because it depletes knowledge and redirects members’ attention away from service provision. Experienced unit members must divide attention between core service tasks and socialization and training of new members, while novices spend time learning the job and gaining experience (Hausknecht et al., 2009, p.1073).

The connection between turnover and customer service is so strong that Hurley and Estelami (2007) suggested that easily obtainable turnover measures may be useful indicators of customer satisfaction. This means that in the absence of information on customer satisfaction, turnover intention may prove to be a useful proxy. It must be noted that in seeking to maximize customer satisfaction, companies often raise the stress levels of employees who deal frequently with customer incivility. This results in higher turnover levels (Budwhar et al., 2009; De Tienne et al., 2012) and suggests a delicate balancing act when trying to maximize employee and customer satisfaction simultaneously for certain customer-facing employees.

3.3.6 International Differences in Human Resource Management and Employee Turnover

Research undertaken in Singapore noted that “organizational commitment, **procedural justice** and a job-hopping attitude” were the main drivers of turnover intention (Khatri et al., 2001, p.54). This Asian phenomenon of **job-hopping** was defined as “employees switching jobs irrespective of better alternatives or other apparently rational motives” (Khatri, et al., 2001, p.56). This job-hopping was a matter of such great concern that it was discussed in the Singaporean parliament.

In a study focused on the call center industry in India, it was reported that firms were closing because of “poor management of human resources and lack of internal marketing philosophy” (Budwhar et al., 2009, p.353). The call center industry there reported various turnover rates ranging from 20-70 per cent with informal admissions to it being much greater. This resulted in managers having to hire almost daily. Several unique factors were observed as driving employee turnover. Job-hopping was prominent to the point of being the popular thing to do. Second, the fact that India is a conservative country did not help; the necessity for female employees to work night shifts in this industry clashed with cultural norms and lead to problems in the family and wider society. Third, employee poaching between companies in the sector was also common. This employee poaching was similar to the ‘talent raiding’ reported by Khatri et al. (2001).

It is perhaps intuitive that poor pay would have greater significance, as a driver of employee turnover, in countries where per capita income is low. In a 2014 article, which examined data from both public and private sector organizations in Tanzania, Muhoho (2014) concluded that “low salaries and benefits were the main reason” for employee turnover (Muhoho, 2014, p. 687). The situation in Tanzania, where per capita income in 2014 was US\$806.20, (<https://tradingeconomics.com/tanzania/gdp-per-capita>) can be juxtaposed with the situation in Singapore, where per capita income in 2014 was US\$52,244.40 (<https://tradingeconomics.com/singapore/gdp-per-capita>). Khatri et al. (2001), in a study of companies in the retail, food, and shipping sectors in Singapore, found that “organizational commitment was the only factor that was strongly associated with turnover intention across all three industries”(Khatri et al., 2001, p.68). Satisfaction with pay was found to be important only in the retail sector. Pay in the food and shipping sectors was higher than the retail sector and this suggests some threshold above which pay is of lesser concern. Hennequin (2007), in a study of

blue collar workers from several sectors in France with similarly high turnover (average 28%), found that the importance of monetary reward varied and was “particularly important for single women or those who were single parents” (Hennequin, 2007, p.573).

Moving closer to Guyana, Lansiquot et al. (2012) executed a study on the turnover intention of registered nurses in the Eastern Caribbean. This study was necessary since migration was the driver for over 70% of turnover amongst the nursing personnel in the islands. A “substantial intent to leave” was discerned amongst the study participants (Lansiquot et al., 2012, p. 192). It was particularly high amongst the younger, less qualified nurses and was aided by the psychic proximity (similarity in language, laws and customs) of the destination countries and by the presence of family already residing there.

3.3.7 Employee Turnover in the Hospitality Industry

Committed and satisfied employees are key to any business and, even more so, to the hospitality industry. Human capital is the most important input in the hospitality industry. In hotels and restaurants the vast majority of workers, from cleaners to managers, are customer-facing and can impact perceptions of service. Excellent service means repeated and new customers as word spreads. Nevertheless, the hospitality industry typically suffers from some of the highest turnover rates. In fact, it has been diagnosed with the affliction of a turnover culture (Iverson and Deery, 1997; Davidson and Wang, 2011)

...the acceptance of turnover as a part of the work-group norm. That is, it is a normative belief held by employees that turnover behavior is quite appropriate (Iverson and Deery, 1997, p. 71).

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Hausknecht et al. (2009) undertook a large study involving “75 work units and data from 5,631 employee surveys, 59,602 customer surveys, and organizational records” of an organization operating hotels and casinos in the United States (Hausknecht et al., 2009, p. 1068). Their study confirmed the negative effect of high voluntary turnover on customer service perceptions. Kalidass and Bahron (2015) identified a negative relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS), Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and OC on the one hand, and turnover intention on the other. In studies carried out on hotels in Kenya and Malaysia, poor working conditions, inadequate pay, work stress, injustice, work-life conflict and lack of involvement were cited as factors that created turnover intentions (Kuria et al., 2012; AlBattat et al., 2013).

RESTAURANTS

Kacmar et al. (2006) demonstrated in a study of 262 Burger King restaurants, that both manager and crew turnover negatively impacted unit performance in a relationship mediated by customer wait time. In a study of over eight hundred fast food workers in Malaysia, Ryan et al. (2011)

identified boredom, poor pay and working conditions, short-term employment contracts, poor supervision, poor training and sexual harassment as factors causing high turnover. They found that twenty percent (20%) of the employees thought frequently about leaving and that they were often influenced by friends to do so. To counter this they suggested that management should consider “groups of employees as units” rather than “individuals not associated with other employees” (Ryan et al., 2011, p. 357). Stress and burnout were also found to influence the decision to turnover. Turnover intention was connected to customer incivility (Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017), poor organizational support and supervisory support (Han et al., 2016), high stigma consciousness (Wildes, 2005) and workplace incivility (Miner and Eischeid, 2012).

3.3.8 Turnover Reduction Strategies

The retention of good and/or talented employees will remain a critical objective of management ad infinitum. Many managers harbor misconceptions about the cause of turnover in their organizations. Allen and Bryant (2012) pointed to this issue by saying:

...many retention management efforts are based on misleading or incomplete data, generic best practices that don't translate, or managerial gut instinct at odds with research evidence (Allen and Bryant, 2012, p. v).

It follows, therefore, that organizations should study their turnover issues, as the cause of turnover is often specific to the context.

In their practical and incisive look at the turnover question, Allen and Bryant (2012) made several suggestions for addressing employee turnover. In no particular order, their suggestions included a recommendation for firms to collect, track and review data on employee turnover, job satisfaction and organizational commitment regularly. Second, new hires should be provided with detailed information about the job and organization during interviews. Third, high-performing insiders should be assigned as role models and mentors. Fourth, leadership training for line managers should be provided and they should be made responsible for retention (Poulston, 2008; Davidson et al., 2010; Bharwani and Butt, 2012). Fifth, minimize role conflicts and train line managers to provide unambiguous role expectations. Sixth, provide opportunities for growth and training. Seventh, foster employee relationships and teamwork. Eighth, encourage employee referrals for new team members. Ninth, provide incentives linked to tenure. Tenth, enrich the job experiences of employees.

Additional recommendations for reducing employee turnover have ranged from effective corporate communications, staff planning (through the use of temporary staff in volatile business environments), systems to harvest employee feedback, recognition for outstanding performances (Chen et al., 2010) through to servant leadership (Harrison and Gordon, 2014).

3.3.9 Turnover Research

Research has been focused primarily on the antecedents to turnover and numerous models were developed to explain the turnover process. Most, if not all, of the research in the field use **turnover intention** as a proxy for turnover since a strong correlation has been found between turnover intention and actual turnover (Memon et al., 2014; Hongvichit, 2015). This is important as employees can turnover “physically and/or mentally” (Al Battat et al., 2013, p.62). Turnover Intention has also been used as a gauge of management practices (Khatri et al., 2001; Hurley and Estelami 2007).

However, not all studies support the use of turnover intention as a proxy. First, Cohen et al. (2016) found the connection between turnover intention and actual turnover to be tenuous in a study of public sector employees in the United States. Second, as with most academic issues, “intent to” is not without its detractors. Morrell (2016) cited the work of Dalton et al. (1999) and Vandenburg and Nelson (1999) who “undermined” studies based on “intent to” variables (Morrell, 2016, p. 49). Third, there would be mediating variables, such as unemployment levels, between the formation of an intention to leave and actual turnover (Hom et al., 2012).

This study will use turnover intention as a proxy for actual turnover in the quantitative research and will focus on actual turnover with its qualitative interviews.

3.3.10 Review of Turnover Literature

No literature review on a widely researched subject such as employee turnover will ever be complete. Decisions must be made about what to include and what to exclude. Unlike the Doctor of Philosophy, the DBA is a practitioner doctorate which requires a succinct presentation and this limits the literature review even further. Consequently, certain criticisms can be laid against the theories and models of employee turnover detailed in this chapter. The models detailed in this review are drawn, primarily, from the psychological school of employee turnover as the study is focused on decision-making at the level of the individual (i.e., the micro-level). Therefore, limited focus is given to the labour market (i.e., the macro-level). This internal focus is in consonance with the RBV as the ultimate goal is to create a HRM system capable of delivering a SCA. A second limitation of the models is the centrality of JS/OC, though this deficiency is partially remedied by the discussion on antecedents to turnover.

In addition to the limitations of these models, minimal attention was paid to the recruitment and onboarding process in this study. Realistic job previews have been linked to reduction in voluntary turnover (Earnest, Allen and Landis, 2011). This oversight was driven by the situation described in the context chapter. That chapter suggested urgency in recruitment, a situation so urgent that CRI is forced to employ crew members whose qualifications failed to

meet the company's minimum standards. A review of the recruitment and onboarding process is an important area for future research.

The goal for most quick service businesses is to reduce voluntary turnover. Most of the research and literature on employee turnover, including the literature in this study, is focused on determining why employees leave. More thought should be directed towards finding out the reasons why employees stay on the job. The reasons why people stay are not necessarily the same as why they leave and can be just as important to retention (Chamberlain, 2017).

A failure to consider the full range of withdrawal behaviours is another weakness and area for future research. As an example, reluctant stayers, employees who want to leave but can't, will be disgruntled and engage in behaviours such as absenteeism and lateness which are likely to be costly to the firm (Li et al., 2016). The literature also covered turnover with a broad brush and failed to dissect turnover between its functional and dysfunctional parts. Along these same lines there was additional failure, in the theoretical models, to separate managerial turnover from that of shop floor or frontline workers. This failure was somewhat ameliorated with the discussion on turnover in the hospitality sector.

3.3.11 Synopsis – Employee Turnover

Human resources play an important role in strategy (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2002; Paauwe and Boon, 2018) and employee retention is key to its capacity to undertake this role (Lin et al., 2017). Consequently, much research is directed to the issue of employee turnover (March and Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1982; Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Peterson 2004; Budhwar et al., 2009; Harris, 2010; Memon et al 2014; Bebe, 2016; Ayodele et al., 2020). For the purposes of this study, employee turnover will be defined as:

An event which brings a contract of employment to an end [author's italics].

Different schools of thought have attempted diagnose the cause of employee turnover but there is no single cause. In fact, the drivers are quite contextual and range from job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) to the phenomenon of job-hopping identified in Asia (Khatri et al., 2001). The labor market school has been unable to explain employee turnover at the individual level, so most of the research (and this study) has been executed utilizing models generated by the psychological school. JS and OC have been central to most of those models but much turnover occurs for reasons that have nothing to do with either JS or OC.

Several researchers examine turnover based on the antecedents to turnover rather than models based on JS and OC. This section has identified six factors, managerial support, occupational stigma, work-life conflicts, career development, workplace incivility and customer incivility, connected to the restaurant sector (Wildes, 2005; Miner and Eischeid, 2012; Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017) which have the potential to shed light on the drivers of turnover at CRI. Of

these six, managerial support and occupational stigma were previously identified as important issues at CRI. Workplace and customer incivility can easily be confused with stigma and will be scrutinized carefully to remove ambiguity in the analysis. These six factors will be discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

3.4 Managerial Support

This section will discuss managerial support, the theoretical foundation on which it rests and its connection to employee turnover. Managerial support is said to exist when:

...employees perceive their immediate manager as leading by example, giving them the support needed to do the job well, is perceived to be personally effective, and is good at developing people (Tyman et al., 2011, p.294).

Managerial support is built with social exchange theory as its foundation. Blau (1964) cited in Emerson (1976) explained social exchange as follows:

Social exchange as here conceived is limited to actions that are contingent on rewarding reactions from others (Emerson, 1976, p.336).

This definition implies:

...a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving "transactions" or simply "exchange" (Emerson, 1976, p.336).

The argument here is that pure economic relationships do not result in commitment. It is the social exchanges that create "obligations, gratitude and trust" which produce commitment (Blau, 1964 cited in Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005, p. 882). Effective and respectful communications are precursors to building trust (Silva et al., 2012; Khalid and Ali, 2017) and, thus, essential to managerial support. Within an organization, it is envisaged that employees may develop relationships with, inter alia, managers, customers and other employees once these relationships are mutually rewarding (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano et al; 2017). These mutually rewarding relationships that develop and reinforce commitment should also, theoretically, reduce employee turnover.

3.4.1 Managerial Support and Employee Turnover

The literature on turnover has already established the centrality of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to most employee turnover models. The literature has also segmented organizational commitment into affective, normative and continuance commitment (Emhan, 2012). Affective commitment is maximized when employees share and embrace the same goals. Normative commitment is reflected by loyalty to, and a commitment to remaining in the organization. Fear of loss of income and benefits is the main factor for employees remaining in the organization in continuance commitment (Emhan, 2012). Emhan (2012) investigated the relationship between managerial support, job satisfaction and the three aspects of commitment, and found that there is a positive relationship between managerial support and job satisfaction. There was also a positive relationship between these two factors on the one hand and affective and normative commitment in the for profit sector (see Figure 3.6 below). No significant relationship was detected between these factors and continuance commitment. This study occurred during an economic crisis and this may have impacted the results.

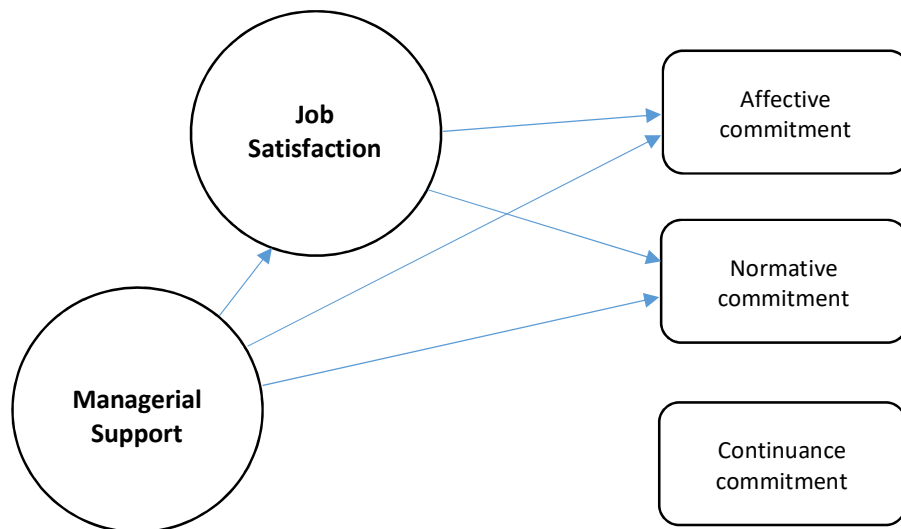


Figure 3.6: Result of Emhan (2012) study as it related to the ‘for profit’ sector.

In addition to its effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, managerial support, or lack of, has been found to have significant effects on perceived career success and retention (Tymon et al., 2011) and employee engagement and retention (Alias et al., 2014).

Ko et al. (2013) examined the role of top management support separately from that of supervisor support and found that top management support had a stronger influence on job satisfaction, whilst supervisor support held sway over perceived organizational performance. This would suggest that the actions of top management would have a greater effect on employee turnover, since the relationship is mediated by job satisfaction. This does not mean that supervisor support has no impact on turnover/retention. Li et al. (2017) connected supervisor support to retention, with group trust acting as the mediator in a study on the turnover intentions of casino non-managerial employees. It must be noted that casino non-managerial employees bear much similarity to entry level quick service employees, as these are physically demanding, low paid, shift jobs which result in substantial work-life conflicts. This would explain similarities in the findings of Li et al. (2017) and Kacmar et al. (2006).

3.4.2 Managerial Support and Work-Life Conflict

Work-life conflict has been driven by:

...demographic and workplace changes such as rising numbers of women in the labor force, an ageing population, longer working hours, and more sophisticated technology enabling near constant contact with the workplace (Beauregard and Henry, 2009, p.9).

The practical effect of the decline of unions in the workplace has meant that employees are increasingly dependent on the magnanimity of managers to resolve issues affecting their work-life balance (Travaglione et al., 2017). The end result of these changes has been increased responsibility for managers who must now deal with issues that that are outside the traditional

scope of work. This means managers must now take cognizance of personal issues which may affect performance. It goes without saying that there must be reasonable limits on the extension of this responsibility. As suggested by social exchange theory, effective managerial support will require managers to build trust by ascertaining the needs of employees and responding to them. Research in the area of work-life conflict suggests that employee benefits, namely flexible working hours, the ability to work from home, family leave programs and the provision of dependent care may serve to reduce work-life conflict (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Travaglione et al., 2017; Umamaheswari and Krishnan, 2016).

Beauregard and Henry (2009) found that managerial support moderated the link between the provision of benefits that reduce work-life conflict and the use of those benefits. Managerial support also moderated the link between the provision of these benefits and the perception of organizational support. Similarly, Travaglione et al. (2017) found that employee perception of the work environment, which included control over working hours, influenced their perception of managerial support. Work-life balance was positively correlated with organizational commitment by Umamaheswari and Krishnan (2016). Managerial support for the work-life balance of employees was also connected to retention (Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al., 2018). The context chapter and the literature (Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al., 2018) generated the first research question:

Research Question 1:

What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

3.4.3 Managerial Support in the Hospitality Sector

Nasyira et al. (2014) highlighted the dearth of research between perceived supervisory support and intention to remain in the restaurant or the wider hospitality sector. Their research positively connected Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Perceived Supervisory Support (PSS) and Organizational Commitment (OC) to an intention to remain amongst restaurant workers in Malaysia. In keeping with the previously discussed models on turnover, OC was found to have the greatest influence of the three factors.

He et al. (2010) examined the connection between managerial support, employee commitment and customer service in a study of the hotel industry in mainland China. They were able to confirm that employee commitment mediated the relationship between managerial support and customer service.

The push to deliver such superior service is often the source of great stress as:

...frontline service industry employees are required to follow very strict organizational policies and regulations regarding how their emotions are expressed, even in situations involving customers whom are perceived to be acting in an uncivil manner (Han et al., 2016, p.97).

In their study on non-managerial restaurant employees in Florida, Han et al. (2016) found that employee burnout (emotional exhaustion, emotional depersonalization and reduced accomplishment) mediated the relationship between customer incivility and turnover intention. Additionally, organizational and supervisory support were identified as moderating the relationship between customer incivility and burnout.

Within quick service it has been suggested that crew members are more loyal to managers than to the organization (Kacmar et al., 2006). This suggestion underscores the important role of managers in the sector. Loyalty to managers will only occur if managers support their employees and this is a necessary precondition if those employees are to give their best and for the organization to achieve and surpass its goals. One area of support valued by hospitality workers is career development. Career development/career success has been identified as a motivational factor which influences retention (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2012; Zopiatis et al., 2018). Managerial support was previously found to have significant effects on perceived career success and retention (Tymon et al., 2011). Kang et al. (2015) provided additional confirmation in a study of frontline employees in the hospitality sector. They found that perceived supervisor support was positively related to career satisfaction in a relationship mediated by affective commitment. The literature (Tymon et al., 2011; Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2012; Kang et al., 2015; Zopiatis et al., 2018) generated the second research question:

Research Question 2:

How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

3.4.4 Customer Incivility

Customer incivility has been identified as an antecedent to turnover intention (Sliter et al., 2012). This type of incivility can be confused with occupational stigma. This section will provide details on customer incivility to ensure that the concepts are well differentiated.

Customer incivility is the “uncivil treatment of employees by customers” (Walker et al., 2014, p. 151). Walker et al. (2014) found that customer incivility is a stressor that can cause emotional exhaustion for employees and trigger employee incivility towards customers. Such employee incivility is likely to result in reduced service levels and reduced customer retention. Customer incivility itself “is still an emerging construct” (Sliter et al., 2012, p.122) and little work has been done to examine “join effects” (Sliter et al., 2012, p. 121) of workplace and customer incivility on withdrawal behavior (Sliter et al., 2012). Sliter et al. (2012) conducted research with bank employees which confirmed that:

...effects of incivility were compounded when both customer and coworker incivility were experienced (Sliter, 2012, p.133).

Sliter et al. (2012) also posited that:

...the relationship between customer incivility and its outcomes would be moderated by the amount of coworker incivility a person experiences. That is, experiencing incivility from customers in an unsupportive work environment would result in increased withdrawal behavior and reductions in performance compared with what would occur in the presence of customer incivility on its own (Sliter, 2012, p.124).

This section has briefly reviewed the theory on customer incivility. No labeling, stereotyping, separation or status loss is necessary for customer incivility, hence it is distinguishable from stigmatizing treatment. Han et al. (2016) had connected customer incivility to increased turnover intentions amongst frontline workers in the restaurant sector in a relationship mediated by burnout. They also highlighted the role of organization and supervisory support in mitigating the impact of customer incivility on burnout. Combining the work of Han et al. (2016) and Sliter et al. (2012), it can be theorized that managerial support is required to mitigate the effects of customer incivility. Second, Sliter et al. (2012) suggested the combined presence of customer incivility and workplace incivility would accelerate withdrawal behaviors. There is great likelihood of experiencing the two incivilities in service industries and, especially so, in the restaurant sector (Miner and Eischeid, 2012; Han et al., 2016). This makes effective managerial support important for reasons beyond the previously mentioned issues of work-life conflicts and career development in this sector. The literature (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016) in this section has generated the following research questions:

Research Question 3:

What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Research Question 4:

Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

3.4.5 Synopsis-Managerial Support

This section has highlighted the importance of managerial support to retention (Nasyira et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017), work-life conflicts (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Deery and Jago, 2015; Travaglione et al., 2017 Asghar et al., 2018), JS/OC (Emhan, 2012), career success/career satisfaction (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015), customer service (He et al., 2010) and customer incivility (Han et al., 2016). These connections are important since the primary goal of this study is to improve employee retention. Second, with a high number of single parents in its employ, work-life conflicts at CRI are bound to proliferate. Third, managerial support has been shown to have a strong influence on the career satisfaction of frontline workers in the hospitality sector and these are the exact workers who are the focus of this study (Kang et al., 2015). Fourth, managerial support is positively connected with customer service and mitigates the effects of customer incivility. Effective managerial support, then, has the potential to minimize work-life conflicts, assist career development and to improve employee retention and firm performance.

The context chapter and the literature in this sub-section (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Tymon et al., 2011; Alias et al., 2014; Nasyira et al., 2014; Deery and Jago, 2015; Kang et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Travaglione et al., 2017; Asghar et al., 2018) have generated the fifth research question:

Research Question 5:

Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?

3.5 Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility has been identified as an antecedent to turnover intention. However, incivility can often be confused with discrimination, which is, for some scholars, an essential element of stigma (Link and Phelan, 2001). This section will provide brief details on workplace incivility to ensure clarity in the analysis of the findings of the study. Clarity to ensure there is no conflating of workplace incivility with intra-group stigma. Workplace incivility can often serve as a cover for discrimination against minorities and women, especially where laws and policies seek to prevent this. However, this study will focus on general incivility where the observed:

...uncivil behaviors have no overt reference to gender, race, or other social category (Cortina, 2008, p.55).

Workplace incivility was defined by Andersson and Pearson (1999) cited in Miner and Eischeid (2012) as:

...subtle behavioral slights (e.g., condescension, discourteousness) that violate conventional workplace norms for mutual respect and display a lack of regard for others (Miner and Eischeid, 2012, p.492).

Workplace incivility is separated between co-worker and supervisor incivility. However, both Lim et al. (2008) and Ghosh et al. (2013) found no direct effect of co-worker incivility on turnover intentions. Spence Laschinger et al. (2009) confirmed, in a study of nurses, that perception of supervisor incivility was “strongly related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and turnover intentions” (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009, p. 302). This impact of supervisor incivility will not be limited to the targets of incivility since co-workers observing the incivility are also impacted negatively. This was a point previously identified by Pearson and Porath (2005), who also connected incivility directly to employee turnover:

Because of their experiences of workplace incivility, employees decrease work effort, time on the job, productivity, and performance. Where incivility is not curtailed, job satisfaction and organizational loyalty diminish as well. Some employees leave their jobs solely because of the impact of this subtle form of deviance (Pearson and Porath, 2005, pp.7).

Workplace incivility also affects mood, creates stress, affects physical and psychological health, undermines teamwork, reduces employee commitment and lowers job satisfaction, all of which lead to turnover intentions (Cortina, 2008; Miner and Eischeid, 2012).

Miner and Eischeid (2012) studied workers in the restaurant sector in the Midwestern region of the United States as “interpersonal workplace mistreatment is common” in this sector (Miner and Eischeid, 2012, p. 495). They concluded that both male and female co-workers experienced “anger, fear and anxious-arousal” when exposed to incivility.

The fact that workers in the restaurant sectors are often subject to workplace incivility underscores the importance of this theory to the study. First, supervisor incivility is the polar opposite of managerial support. Second, it is within the realm of possibility that this study might encounter either workplace incivility or intra-group stigma or both. The majority of the research on workplace incivility has taken place in North America and the UK (Sharma and Singh, 2016). Research on the impact of the phenomenon in services industries is limited (Hashim et al., 2019). This study presents an opportunity to examine the pervasiveness of the issue internationally and in a service industry. The possibility of encountering workplace incivility presents us with our sixth research question:

Research Question 6:

What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

3.6 Occupational Stigma

This study seeks to interrogate, inter alia, the role of occupational stigma in the turnover of non-managerial workers in the quick service sector in Guyana. In the preface of his book, Saunders (1981) touched on stigmatized work, employee turnover and the lack of research on non-managerial workers, which are all key aspects of this study. This chapter will discuss the literature on stigma, occupational stigma and the connection to employee turnover in the restaurant sector. The discussion is somewhat exhaustive, as research on the nexus between occupational stigma and employee turnover is limited.

3.6.1 Definition of Stigma

A ground breaking definition of stigma was that of Goffman (1963) who described stigma as an “attribute that is deeply discrediting” that causes the stigmatized person to be seen as “tainted and discredited” (cited by Link and Phelan, 2001, p. 364). Link and Phelan (2001) advanced previous theory by acknowledging the co-occurrence of labeling, stereotyping, separation, status loss and discrimination was also essential to stigma (Link and Phelan, 2001; Hipes et al., 2016). For the purposes of this study of a specific occupation, stigma will be defined as follows:

The co-occurrence of labeling, stereotyping, separation and status loss accorded to an individual as a result of their job [author's italics].

The author has omitted to delete discrimination from the definition as it is the author's belief that a job can be stigmatized without negative treatment of the worker.

3.6.2 Consequences of Stigma

The consequences of stigma can be quite severe and involve "substantial negative social, economic, political, and psychological" effects (Crocker and Major, 1989, p. 609). Members of stigmatized groups have been known to suffer from mental and physical illnesses, lack of confidence, poor motivation and performance. Examples of such groups are African Americans (Cortland et al., 2017), pregnant women (Jones et al., 2016), homeless people and people with felony convictions (Flores et al., 2018). Stigma can have

...a dramatic bearing on the distribution of life chances in such areas as earnings, housing, criminal involvement, health, and life itself (Link and Phelan, 2001, p.363).

These inequities of life, which flow from stigma make it imperative for frequent research in this area. The social, economic and psychological effects of stigma are of particular importance when we attempt to connect stigma to employment. Political effects may also exist but those are not the focus of this study. The social effects may include status loss; economic stigmatization may involve reduced wages and denied promotional opportunities; and psychological effects could involve temporary loss of self-esteem.

3.6.3 Stigma Consciousness

Stigma is not uniform in its impact on individuals (Harris et al., 2011; Major and O'Brien, 2005). Consequently, whilst a job or occupation might be stigmatized, its impact will not be the same on all employees (Shantz and Booth, 2014). **Stigma consciousness** measures the extent to which individuals expect to be stereotyped (Pinel, 1999, p.115). **Stigma consciousness** might be confused with **stereotype threat**. The difference between these two concepts is:

Stereotype threat refers to a concern about one's own behavior (e.g., "Am I going to confirm the stereotype?"); high levels of stigma consciousness reflect an expectation that one will be stereotyped, irrespective of one's actual behavior (Pinel, 1999, p.115).

The role of stigma consciousness in occupational research was extended by Shantz and Booth (2014) with their work on **occupational stigma consciousness**, which they defined as:

...the extent to which employees are aware of the stigmatized nature of their job and believe that others treat them negatively because of it (Shantz and Booth, 2014, p.7).

It is precisely occupational stigma consciousness that this study seeks to connect to employee turnover.

3.6.4 Stigma in the Workplace

Saunders (1981) in the preface to his book *Social Stigma of Occupations: The Lower Grade Worker in Service Organisations* tells the following story:

When, as a boy in Vienna I kicked a ball around in the local park in preference to getting on with homework, my mother threatened I would end up as a sewage worker – the one occupation symbolizing, in most European countries, the definition of a less successful life (Saunders, 1981, p. vii).

This story, by no means unique to Saunders, is important since it drives home the fact that we are socialized from childhood to view certain occupations negatively. Saunders defined occupational stigma as:

Occupational stigma is a discrediting attribute accorded to individuals or groups who are performing certain occupationally identifiable roles (in the service of their hirers), by other individuals or groups within a community, representing an active threat to full social acceptance for the socially disgraced (by reason of their work function) who are perceived as negatively departing from the work norm of those engaged in ‘respectable’ occupational activities (Saunders, 1981, p.43).

Of particular importance in small societies would be the fact that:

...the closer the “social distance” between the individual and the people in his living environment, the higher is his utility from occupational honor (Fan and Stark, 2011, p.562).

The stigmatized nature of occupations may vary from country to country (Saunders, 1981; Ashforth and Kreiner, 2014). Saunders (1981) illustrated this with the example of the respected status of Israeli bus drivers during the rebirth of that country. Since many journeys were dangerous, drivers were specially recruited young people who were capable of protecting the passengers and cargo, resulting in the highest occupational honour. Similar high status was accorded to carpenters, whilst immigrant doctors and engineers were diverted to farming and other labour intensive activity.

3.6.5 Dirty Work

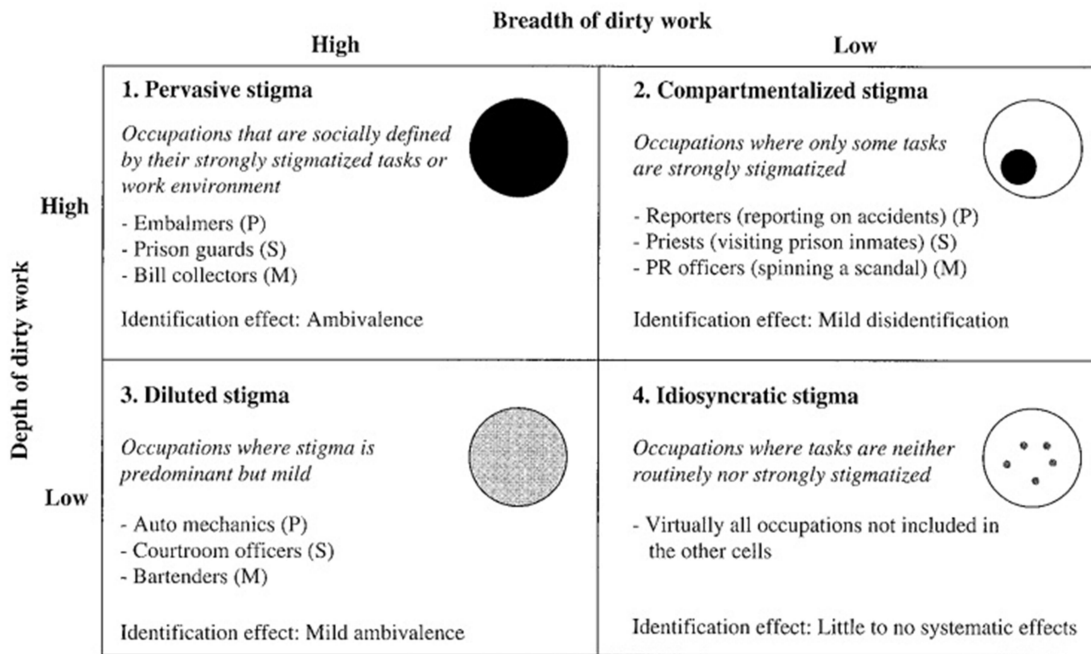
McMurray and Ward (2014) identified work such as that performed by “road sweepers, meat cutters, care home attendants, morticians, abortion nurses, shoeshines and sex shop workers” as dirty work (McMurray and Ward, 2014, p. 1124). The classic definition of dirty work was that of Hughes (1958) who linked dirty work with jobs that were tainted “physically, socially or morally” (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 149). McMurray and Ward (2014) connected physical taint to the meat cutter, servitude to the shoeshine and immorality to the sex workers thus providing examples of how these jobs fell into each category of Hughes’ definition. Some jobs can be tainted in more than one way. The sex worker is an example of this with the possibility of physical contamination, moral failure and subservient conduct all in one job.

Dirty work is stigmatized work. First, there is the labeling of such workers as “dirty, lousy or unscrupulous,”(Hughes 1962 cited in McMurray and Ward, 2014, p. 1125) leading to a distancing (separation) from and devaluation of individuals involved in such work. Dirty workers suffer “risk adverse psychosocial consequences, including status loss, discrimination, and disclosure difficulties” (Harris et al., 2011, p.1063). For many, these workers are inextricably linked to the nature of their jobs. There is evidence that such workers reframe, recalibrate and refocus the nature of their work as a coping mechanism for the stigma. Reframing imbues the job with positive values and elevates these over the negative values, recalibrating increases the value of stigmatized tasks and refocusing moves attention to the non-stigmatized aspects of a job experienced (Ashforth et al., 2007; Lopina et al., 2012; Shantz and Booth, 2014).

Dealing with the taint of dirty work is important for managers as the stigma attached to such work has been connected to disidentification and employee turnover (Kreiner et al., 2006; Wildes 2005). Lopina et al. (2012) utilized social identity theory to research the nexus between “pre-entry individual characteristics” and employee turnover (Lopina et al., 2012, p. 396). Social identity theory suggests that individuals derive their social identities from their membership in social groups. Therefore, a case can be made that new entrants into dirty work occupations will experience dissonance, leading to turnover, if unprepared for this devalued status. Based on their findings it seems:

...the more an individual knows prior to entering a dirty work occupation, the less likely they will experience the entry shock of a negative social backlash; therefore, the identity threat is less salient to them. Similarly, the more an individual knows prior to entering a dirty occupation, the better they are able to evaluate their personal fit with the new workgroup and identify positively with this new group (Lopina et al., 2012, p. 404-405).

Kreiner et al. (2006) established a framework for assessing dirty work based on breadth and depth of the dirty work (see Figure 3.7 below). **Breadth** is a measure of the “proportion of work that is dirty or to the centrality of the dirt to the occupational identity” whilst **depth** reflects the “intensity of dirtiness and the extent to which the worker is directly involved in the dirt” (Kreiner et al., 2006,



Note. Primary source of stigmas: (P) = physical taint; (S) = social taint; (M) = moral taint. Darker shading represents stronger taint
^aOccupations are provided as examples.
 p.621).

Figure 3.7: A Typology of Occupational Dirty Work (Kreiner et al., 2006, p.622)

Quickservice workers are likely tainted physically (cleaning, cooking, handling raw meat, etc.) and socially ('stigma of servility'). The breadth of such work encompasses 100% of the worker's daily activity at low intensity. This assignment of low intensity results from the fact that most humans execute activities similar to those of the quickservice worker on a daily basis. Consequently, based on the typology of Kreiner et al. (2006) we can describe quick service work as work with diluted stigma. In other words, the stigma is not particularly salient.

3.6.6 Stigma in the Restaurant Sector

Very limited research has been found on the connection between stigma and employee turnover amongst restaurant workers and, especially, those in the quick service sector. Wildes (2005) undertook a study into the effects of stigma consciousness on the turnover intention of restaurant workers and their likelihood to recommend their job to outsiders. For Wildes (2005), restaurant work is physically demanding, with low pay, long hours and limited or no benefits. Restaurant workers are also seen as uneducated (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Additionally, restaurant work is not viewed as a career and suffers from a 'servitude perception' (Wildes, 2005; Ellingson et

al., 2016). Notwithstanding all of the above, restaurant workers are expected to satisfy the often high expectation of guests. Wildes (2005) observed a negative correlation between employees high in stigma consciousness, on the one hand, and an intention to remain or likelihood to recommend the job to friends or family members, on the other. Stigma was also found to be important for employees between the ages of 18 to 35 and also for those over age 45. The finding of Wildes (2005) that employees high in stigma consciousness will not recommend their job to a friend or family member generates the seventh research question:

Research Question 7: Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?

3.6.7 Intragroup Stigma and the Restaurant Sector

One of the coping mechanisms identified amongst stigmatized persons is that of comparing achievements with members of one's in-group rather than comparing with members of an out-group. This practice is often the source of additional stigma called intra-group stigma. Goffman himself noted:

...the stigmatized individual exhibits a tendency to stratify his 'own' according to the degree to which their stigma is apparent or visible. He can then take up in regard to those who are more evidently stigmatized than him the attitudes that the normal take toward him (Goffman, 1963, p.107 cited in Gunn and Canada, 2015, p.5).

This intra-group stigma bears much similarity with defensive othering (Schwalbe et al., (2000); Pyke, 2010; Kettrey, 2016). Kettrey (2016) defined defensive othering as:

...defensive othering involves identifying with the dominant group and accepting their devaluation of the subordinate group as legitimate (Kettrey, 2016, p.3).

It is clear that intra-group comparison can be the source of additional stigma, domination and oppression. Pyke (2010) in a study on "internalized racial oppression" (Pyke, 2010, p. 551) examined how "oppression is internalized and reproduced" (Pyke, 2010, p. 552) and determined that this oppression is "an inevitable condition of all structures of oppression" (Pyke, 2010, p. 553).

Saunders (1981) may have been alluding to intragroup stigma when he noted that:

Chefs, restaurant managers and head waiters have, in the past, been blamed for their stigmatizing and inhuman treatment, particularly during pressure periods. Instead, genuine interest in the man and his background, a caretaker role and psychological support, perhaps even sincere paternalism, together with a tangible recognition of his contribution, would, we feel, go some way towards achieving a hoped-for stability in this grade (Saunders, 1981, p.208).

It would not be unfair to question the description of 'stigmatizing and inhuman treatment' by Saunders (1981). It is entirely possible that the conduct described might be a case of supervisor incivility. The fact that this behavior is most notable during pressure periods suggests that the conduct is not systemic. It would also be remiss not to note that the observations of Saunders (1981) may be a, not so politically correct, call for managerial support in the request for "genuine interest in the man and his background" (Saunders, 1981, p.208).

The literature of Saunders (1981) and Gunn and Canada (2015) generate the eighth research question:

Research Question 8:

Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?

3.6.8 Servitude Perception and Guyana

Hinds (2006) addressed the early development of tourism in Barbados in the eighteenth century and the resentment of the ex-slaves to serving the "rich, white foreigners" (Hinds, 2006, p. 565). Hinds suggested that those same feelings of resentment still linger today:

Today, centuries later, many people feel that the poor service levels experienced in Barbados are related to a vast majority of tourism workers feeling a sense of resentment towards the tourism and hospitality industry for the very reason surrounding the early tourism workers (Hinds, 2006, p.565)

Guyana shares psychic proximity with Barbados and this takes us to the possibility that a similar resentment to service jobs exists here. If so, this resentment probably deepens the servitude perceptions of restaurant work, and likely adds fuel for turnover.

3.6.9 Synopsis of the Literature on Occupational Stigma

This thesis is, in part, a study of the impact of occupational stigma on non-managerial workers in the quick service sector. This section established that stigma is a discrediting attribute which results in labeling, stereotyping, separation, status loss and discrimination (Link and Phelan, 2001) and that stigmatized persons and groups suffer several negative impacts (Major and O'Brien, 2005).

Saunders (1981) identified certain occupations as being stigmatized. An analysis of the work of McMurray and Ward (2014) and Kreiner et al. (2006) leads to the conclusion that quick service work is dirty work with diluted stigma. Wildes (2005) found that restaurant workers high in stigma consciousness are negatively associated with an intention to remain or a likelihood to recommend the job to friends or family members. The work of Wildes (2005) was in the wider restaurant sector, nevertheless a gap remains in the research on the impact of occupational stigma in quick

service. This gap highlights a potential contribution of this study which will attempt to extend the work of Wildes (2005) to the quick service sector.

Intra-group stigma (Gunn and Canada, 2015) and defensive othering (Schwalbe et al., 2000; Pyke, 2010; Kettrey, 2016) have been observed amongst stigmatized persons. Saunders (1981) pointed to “stigmatizing and inhuman treatment” (Saunders, 1981, p.208) meted out by restaurant management to their subordinates. This study previously discussed workplace incivility and its presence in the restaurant sector. This forces a probe of whether Saunders’ (1981) observations were the result of intra-group stigma or was it simply workplace incivility.

The context chapter and the literature (Pinel, 1999; Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Kreiner et al., 2006; and Lopina et al., 2012) generate the final research question:

Research Question 9:

Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?

3.7 Summary

This chapter initially examined the connection between the resource-based view of strategy (RBV) and human resource management before highlighting the key role retention plays in executing strategy (Porter, 1980; Porter, 1985; Barney, 1991; Barney, 1995; Bartlett and Ghosal, 2002; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010; Barney et al., 2011; Sirmon et al., 2011; Pesic et al., 2013; Barney and Mackey, 2016; Lin et al., 2017; Paauwe and Boon, 2018; Teece, 2018). RBV has provided a theoretical framework for analysing the human resource policies and practices of CRI. The literature on employee turnover was then reviewed, tracing its development from the early works of March and Simon (1958), Mobley (1977), Hom and Griffeth (1995) to the current focus on the antecedents to turnover. An international review of turnover demonstrated how the root causes can vary from job hopping to pay and to migration depending on the context (Khatri et al., 2001; Lansiquot et al., 2012; Muhoho, 2014). This, together with the recommendation of Allen and Bryant (2012), that organizations should study their turnover issues, further justifies the decision to undertake this study in a region where there is little published research on the subject. In addition to the geographical gap, research gaps in the literature were detected in the area of occupational stigma in quick service; and workplace incivility, both internationally and in the service sector (Sharma and Singh, 2016; Hashim et al., 2019).

Managerial support and occupational stigma were identified (Chapter 2) as the major themes for this study and the literature has now connected them to employee turnover (Wildes, 2005; Nasyira et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017). Within the managerial support theme, the literature identified work-life conflicts, career development and customer incivility as key issues relevant to quick service employee turnover (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Deery and Jago, 2015; Travaglione et al., 2017; Asghar et al., 2018; Emhan, 2012; Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015; Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). Workplace incivility (supervisor incivility in particular) was also identified as an antecedent to turnover in quick service (Pearson and Porath, 2005; Lim et al., 2008; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Ghosh et al., 2013). The issue of incivility is important as it provides an alternative lens to intragroup stigma (Saunders, 1981) when analyzing supervisor behavior in quick service. These two themes (managerial support and occupational stigma), and five sub-themes (work-life conflicts, career development, customer incivility, workplace incivility and intragroup stigma), now form the basis for an empirical investigation of the turnover issue at CRI. Figure 3.8 below, represents a conceptual model of how these seven variables might affect turnover intention.

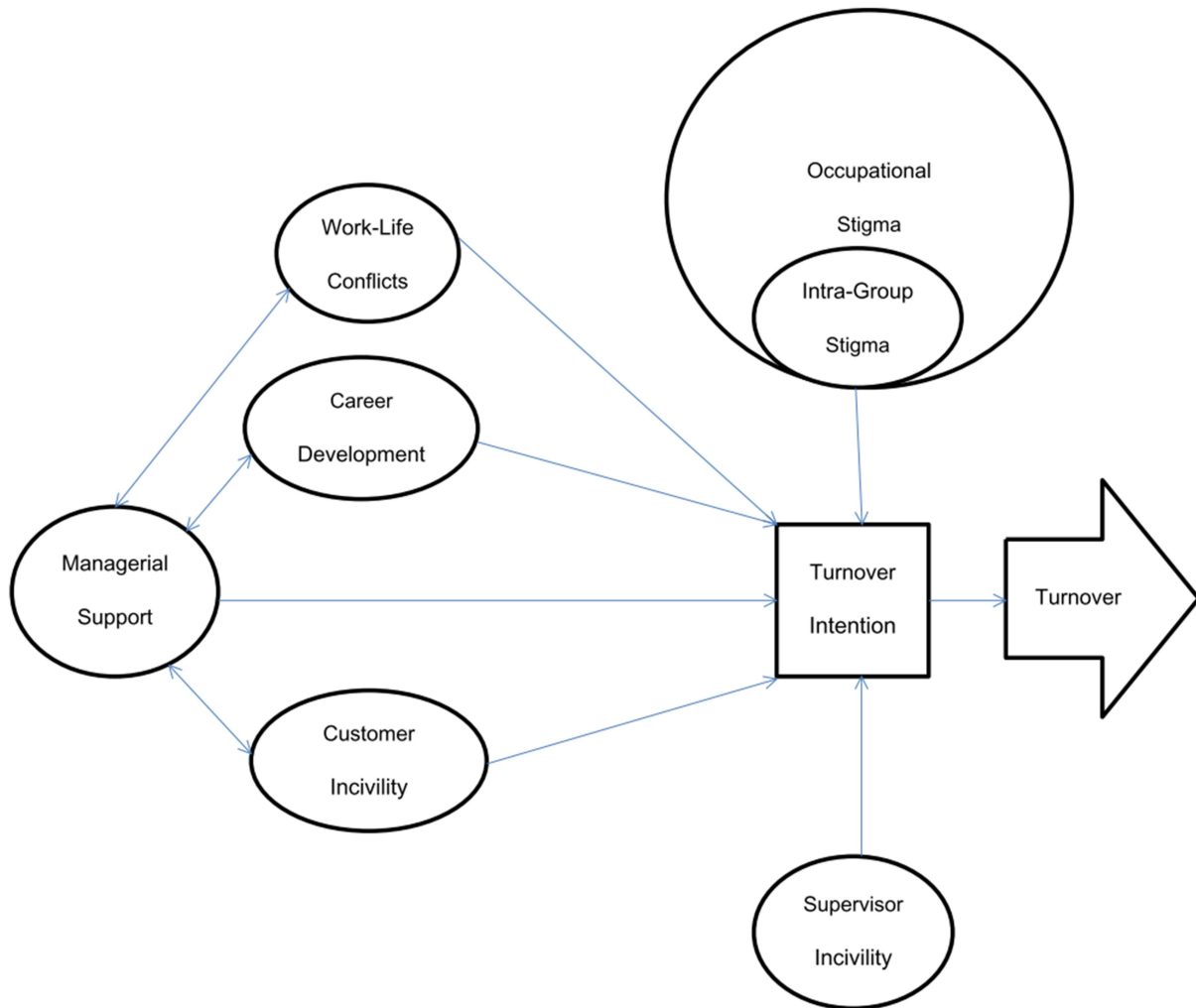


Figure 3.8: Conceptual Model of the Impact of Managerial Support, Work-Life Conflicts, Career Development, Customer Incivility, Workplace Incivility, Occupational Stigma and Intra-Group Stigma.

The conceptual model above (Figure 3.8) suggests pathways for the relationships between managerial support (Nasyira et al., 2014; Alias et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017), work-life conflicts (Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al., 2018), career development (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Tymon et al., 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2012; Zopiatis et al., 2018), customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al; 2016), workplace incivility (Pearson and Porath, 2005; Cortina, 2008; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Miner and Eischeid, 2012), occupational stigma (Saunders 1981; Wildes, 2005; Kreiner et al., 2006; Lopina et al., 2012) and intra-group stigma (Saunders, 1981) on the one hand, and turnover intention on the other. This model (and this study) is focused on moving beyond the traditional focus on job satisfaction and organizational commitment with attention being directed towards the less common antecedents to turnover. The model proposes that low levels of managerial support and concern for the career development of crew members are likely to increase turnover intentions. High levels of work-life conflicts, customer incivility, workplace

incivility, occupational stigma or intra-group stigma are also likely to increase turnover intentions. Managerial support is expected to assist crew members with issues relating to work-life conflicts, career development and customer incivility. Additionally, managerial support will also mitigate the effects of work-life conflicts, career development and customer incivility on turnover intention (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Deery and Jago, 2015; Travaglione et al., 2017 Asghar et al., 2018; Emhan, 2012; Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015; Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). Managerial support is the polar opposite of supervisor incivility. Consequently, supervisor incivility is shown as unconnected to managerial support in this conceptual model. Appendix F identifies the linkage between the aim of this study, the two themes, five sub-themes, the research questions generated in this chapter and the key literature.

The retention of efficient, high-performing employees has been connected to, inter alia, decreased training and recruitment expenses, higher customer service, higher sales, and improved firm performance (Kacmar et al., 2006; Hausknecht et al., 2009; Burch and Holtom, 2015). Managing turnover has to be a strategic goal for every human resource department. This focus on managing turnover is entirely consistent with, and demanded by, the resource-based view of corporate strategy (Barney; 1991; Barney, 1995; Hatch and Dyer, 2004; Kraaijenbrink et al., 2010; Barney et al., 2011; Sirmon et al., 2011; Pesic et al., 2013; Barney and Mackey, 2016; Paauwe and Boon, 2018; Teece, 2018). The following chapter (Chapter 4) will detail the philosophical approach and methodology used in this study.

Chapter 4: Philosophy and Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is, first, to explain and connect the philosophical approach utilized in the study to the choice of research design and methods. The philosophical approach utilized is that of critical pragmatism (Ulrich, 2007). Academics often critique the use of pragmatism, so a vigorous defense of the use of critical pragmatism was recognized as necessary (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Kadlec, 2006). Methodologically, this study has a sequential explanatory design, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods (Ivankova et al., 2006). Pragmatism is associated with mixed methods, thus methodological coherence was feasible (Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill, 2011).

This study encountered significant ethical challenges, as the author is the owner and CEO of CRI. This chapter explains the steps taken to address those challenges. Each step in the study was tested to ensure it satisfied the four principles of research merit and integrity; justice; beneficence; and respect advocated by Wallace and Sheldon (2015). This meant that, notwithstanding the author's position, permission was sought from the Director of Human Resources to conduct the study. The services of a third party were engaged to conduct the surveys and interviews and all informants were advised, *ex ante*, that their participation must be voluntary, anonymous and without burden. Several other ethical guardrails were set up and these are described fully in Section 4.4.

The chapter also explains the choice of mixed methods. This choice was underpinned by a desire for deeper insight into the employee turnover phenomena at CRI. This involved administering questionnaires to crew members and conducting structured interviews with the managers. This use of mixed methods with different respondents increased the likelihood of robust findings from a more holistic approach.

The chapter ends with details of the data collection and the pilot study along with the rationale for the sampling strategy and data analysis. All changes made to the main study as a result of the pilot study are fully explained.

4.2 Philosophical Considerations

Alexy (2008) defines philosophy as:

...general and systematic reflection about what there is, what ought to be done or is good, and how knowledge about both is possible (Alexy, 2008, p. 156).

This “general and systematic reflection” lead to assumptions, and it is these assumptions that are the determining factor for what will be accepted as knowledge (Bryman and Bell 2015; Burrell and Morgan 2014; Creswell 2014; Fleetwood, 2005). Fleetwood (2005) explained these ‘philosophical assumptions’ as follows:

The way we think the world is (ontology) influences what we think can be known about it (epistemology); how we think it can be investigated (methodology and research techniques); the kinds of theories we think can be constructed about it (Fleetwood, 2005, p.197).

The explanation by Fleetwood (2005) reflects the generally accepted view about the role of philosophical assumptions in social sciences. However, there are widely divergent positions amongst academics on ontology, epistemology, axiology and their role in research. While it is not the purpose of this study to explore these different views in their entirety, it is necessary to explain the philosophical position of the author so that the motivation, approach and values which underlie this study can be appreciated.

4.2.1 Ontology

Stanley and Wise (2002) define ontology as “a theory of ‘reality’ or being” (Stanley and Wise, 2002, p. 194). Ontological assumptions reflect the researcher’s view of reality. Is the reality to be investigated external to the researcher or a product of his/her cognition? To one extreme there are objectivists who believe that reality is external to the mind and that social phenomena can be researched in the same way as physical phenomena, that is, time and context free, and without researcher bias. They argue that the results of such inquiries are reliable, valid and can be generalized. On the other extreme, subjectivists posit that researchers are not unbiased; reality is constructed by individuals, results are constrained by time and context, and generalizations are “neither desirable nor possible” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14).

Applied to organizations, objectivists believe, inter alia, that organizations can be viewed as tangible objects with rules, regulations and standardized procedures. In this worldview, members of the organizations are appointed to positions in a hierarchical structure. They follow the rules and are terminated when they fail to do so (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p.32). Subjectivists, on the other hand, suggest that things are not so orderly. In their view, organizations are in a state of continuous change. Rules, regulations and hierarchies exist but are “far less extensive and less rigorously imposed” than envisaged in the objectivist framework (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p.33) It has been the author’s experience that rules, regulations and procedures are not adhered to in the same way globally.

Oftentimes the paucity of human capital makes termination an undesirable option. Hence, as with most things philosophical, this study sought the middle ground when applying ontology to organizations.

4.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is a second assumption and it is concerned with what acceptable knowledge is and how this is created. Stanley and Wise (2002) define epistemology as:

...a framework or theory for specifying the constitution and generation of knowledge about the social world; that is, it concerns how to understand the nature of 'reality' (Stanley and Wise, 2002, p.188).

What is considered acceptable will depend on the researcher's view of reality. Like ontology, viewpoints in epistemology are on a spectrum ranging from positivism to interpretivism/constructivism. If reality exists independent of the human mind (positivism) then social phenomena are similar to physical phenomena, research is value free and truth is identified:

...through the verification and replication of observable findings concerning directly perceivable entities or processes (Hasan, 2016, p.321)

If the researcher's view is that there is no mind/reality independence (interpretivism/constructivism) then social phenomena is dissimilar to physical phenomena; research isn't unbiased and:

Knowledge is thus seen to be comprised of multiple sets of interpretations that are part of the social and cultural context in which it occurs. Interpretive researchers hold, consequently, that there should be an openness to the understanding of people whom researchers study and tentativeness in the way researchers hold or apply their conceptions of those being studied (Kim, 2003, p.13).

Bryman and Bell (2015) see positivism as emphasizing the explanation of human behaviour whilst interpretivism/social constructivism focuses on understanding "human action rather than the forces that act on it" (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 28). Research methodology is closely connected to epistemology and they noted that quantitative research "has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism in particular" (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 38) whilst qualitative research dismisses positivism and the scientific model in favour of an interpretivist "emphasis on the ways in which individuals interpret their social world" (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 38).

One body of opinion suggests that ontological assumptions will limit the epistemological and methodological positions of researchers (Fleetwood, 2005). In other words, the acceptability of knowledge and its creation will depend on the researcher's view of reality. In support of this position, Grix (2004) claimed that researchers are unable to move between positivist and constructivist positions as:

...your research foundations are a skin, not a sweater to be changed every day (Grix, 2004, cited in Plowright, 2013, p.67 and Plowright, 2011 p.179).

This is by no means a universally accepted position. For example, paradigm pluralism, which is central to mixed methods research, is the idea “that a variety of paradigms may serve as the underlying philosophy” (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010, p. 9). Also essential to mixed methods research is the “centrality of the research question” (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2010, p. 10). Plowright (2011) supports this idea and suggests that methodology “comes first, determined by the research question” (Plowright, 2011, p.182). He saw research paradigms, playing a secondary role, in providing:

... a theoretical structure or framework that enables us to offer a coherent and cohesive explanation for the decisions we have made (Plowright, 2011, p.182).

The author has spent his entire career in the world of business where some aspects, such as accounting, finance and operations management, are easier to research using quantitative methods whilst for many areas like human resources and marketing, qualitative methods provide great insight. However, many instances of business research require the use of both methods. This study supports the idea that the research question is central (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010; Plowright, 2011) and follows the lead of mixed methods practitioners who embrace methodological eclecticism. Methodological eclecticism means they:

...select and then synergistically integrate the most appropriate techniques from a myriad of QUAL, QUAN, and mixed strategies to thoroughly investigate a phenomenon of interest (Teddlie, and Tashakkori, 2010, p. 4).

Methodological eclecticism rejects the idea that quantitative and qualitative methods are incompatible and cannot be mixed because the epistemological paradigms supporting them are fundamentally different. Between the extreme positions of positivism and interpretivism/constructivism, a number of other paradigms exist. These intermediate paradigms include post-positivism, post-modernism, realism, critical realism and pragmatism. A couple of these paradigms support mix methods and, of these, pragmatism is the one most often deployed by practitioners of mix methods (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010). This study utilizes pragmatism as its “theoretical structure” (Plowright, 2011, p.182).

Pragmatic research is concerned with process and does not prioritize the need for methodological congruity with any view of reality. Pragmatism “tries to stand clear of ontology” (Powell, 2003, p. 290) and this is similar to mixed methods where “ontological considerations do not feature as prominently” in the literature (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010, p. 4). Under pragmatism, the choice of quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods research will depend on the research problem, what we perceive will work and whether our choices will be seen as acceptable academic research by our peers.

4.3 Philosophical Approaches

PRAGMATISM

Pragmatism and other paradigms were advanced to address the shortcomings of the spectral extremes of positivism and constructivism. In recent times, several academics (Ormerod, 2006; Fendt et al., 2008) have pushed for a “re-turn to pragmatism” (Fendt et al., 2008, p.471) since a significant degree of management research “takes place in splendid isolation to practice” (Fendt et al., 2008, p.471). Academic research in business is often irrelevant, many managers look on academics with disdain and most business research is only reproducible under very limited conditions because there is little absolute truth in business. Pragmatism bridges the gap by producing research focused on improving management performance without neglecting scientific rigor. It is the considered opinion of the author that pragmatism is about finding effective solutions to problems and it:

...invites you to carry out research that has a purpose, that is aimed at informing decisions and activities that impact on the world or that solve problems (Plowright, 2011, p.185).

The idea of pragmatism was developed by several thinkers such as Kant, Holmes, Peirce, James and Dewey. Pragmatists rejected the notions of truth and objective reality (Pleasants, 2003; Ormerod, 2006). Ormerod (2006) argues that pragmatism “supports a theory of learning based on experience, experimentation and action” (Ormerod, 2006, p.906)

This author’s adoption of pragmatism is based largely on Dewey (1937). Dewey’s theory of inquiry was not aimed at abstract research but at “successful science” and the problems of “ordinary daily life” (Ormerod, 2006, p.900); providing outcomes that would be “satisfying” and meet “some hope, desire, or need” (Morgan, 2014, p.1047). In a similar vein, Pleasants (2003) citing Rorty (1999) assigned the role of pragmatic inquiry to the alleviation of “human suffering” or increasing happiness; inquiry that leads to a “better fit between human beings and their environment” (Rorty, 1999, p. 79).

Morgan (2014) lists five steps necessary for successful research in the pragmatic tradition:

- 1) Recognize a situation as problematic;
- 2) Considering the difference it makes to define the problem one way rather than another;
- 3) Developing a possible line of action as a response to the problem;
- 4) Evaluating potential actions in terms of their likely consequences;
- 5) Taking actions that are felt to be likely to address the problematic situation (Morgan, 2014, p.1047).

CRITICISMS OF PRAGMATISM-ONTOLOGY AND EPISTEMOLOGY

The dismissal of ontology by pragmatism is frowned upon in some academic quarters. Horkheimer (1947) cited in Kadlec (2006) questioned the “philosophical pedigree” of pragmatism (Kadlec, 2006, p. 528). Lincoln (2010) cited in Morgan (2014) is concerned that “the mixed-methods pragmatists tell us nothing about their ontology or epistemology” (Morgan, 2014, p.1049). Ormerod counters Horkheimer by pointing to:

...academic sceptics of classical antiquity who denied the possibility of achieving authentic knowledge regarding the real truth and taught that we must make do with plausible information adequate to the needs of practice (Ormerod, 2006, p. 892).

Management and organizational research (the focus of this study) is different from the natural sciences. Fendt et al. (2008), advancing a pragmatic view, posited that organizations are “social systems” where problems are “open-ended”, “constantly expanding” and “inherently interdisciplinary” (Fendt et al., 2008, p. 475).

The ability to generalize and/or replicate the results of management and organizational research is limited, even where such results were derived from large-scale quantitative studies. The addition of international dimensions, with differing languages, culture, laws and economic development complicates and further reduces the replicability of results. This provides extra support for the pragmatist position that the results of inquiry are contextual and must be constantly updated. It also underscores the importance of this study for providing clarity on the drivers of employee turnover in Guyana.

It is the opinion of author that the pragmatist approach of defining the problem and choosing the appropriate methods, without regard to ontology, approximates actual business practice. Most managers will accept that there is a hard external reality and a subjective world that is the product of the individual’s cognition. Pragmatism facilitates the use, if necessary, of multiple academically rigorous methods capable of capturing both realities to produce knowledge and inform actions. Even though the replicability of the results of pragmatic inquiry will be limited by context, actual knowledge is created by both the processes adopted for problem solving and the results generated.

CRITICAL PRAGMATISM

Citing Mertens (2003), Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) noted the concerns of researchers that pragmatism promoted incremental rather than revolutionary, fundamental, structural or emancipatory change. Kadlec (2006) cites White (Cambridge Companion to Critical Theory) and Rorty (1979) as critics who point to pragmatism being “unsuspicious” about structures and issues of power (Kadlec, 2006, p.521). She also notes that Gramsci (Prison Notebooks) saw pragmatism as philosophy for Rotarians, philosophy unable to identify dominant forces at work. Ulrich (2007) believes that:

...this low esteem may be due to a trivial misunderstanding, in that pragmatist philosophy is still widely (but inadequately) equated with a kind of theory-free common-sense pragmatism in an everyday sense of the word (Ulrich, 2007, p.1109).

Going back to the work of Dewey, we find that he saw the Ancients as separating “Truth-yielding Reason” (attributable to Philosophers) from ordinary experience (attributable to lower classes and slaves) (Kadlec, 2006, p.530). The Philosophers positioned their ideas as “ultimate truths,” (Kadlec, 2006, p.530) whilst experience was regarded as incapable of providing a basis for critical reflection. This, to Dewey’s mind, led to the subjugation of the lower classes by the Philosophers. Dewey’s pragmatism attacked this bifurcation and attempted to emancipate “the power of lived experience” releasing its potential “as a social and dynamic medium for critical reflection” (Kadlec, 2006, p.523). It is submitted that the current criticisms of pragmatism as a philosophy have their basis in, and are, an attempt to maintain the bifurcation and subjugation.

Critical pragmatism builds on the history of pragmatism as a tool for emancipation. Deegan (1988) cited in Ulrich (2007) defines critical pragmatism as:

A theory of science that emphasizes the need to apply knowledge to everyday problems based on radical interpretations of liberal and progressive values (Ulrich, 2007, p.1112).

The critical pragmatist:

...will attend not only to the consequences of framing a problem in a certain way, but to the contingencies of the relations of power and authority that can make alternative frames and knowledge claims less plausible in the first place’ (Forrester, 2013, p.10).

This study aims to uncover the drivers of employee turnover amongst non-managerial workers in the quick service sector in Guyana. By taking a critical pragmatist approach, attention will be given in structured interviews to the stories of managers in order to recognize power plays and inequalities in the process of finding solutions to organizational problems. However, critical pragmatism goes further than diagnosis, in that it seeks to identify what needs to be done and how it is to be addressed.

AXIOLOGY

Hogue (2011) defines axiology as “the study of values (or of one’s values)” (Hogue, 2011 accessed on January 15, 2010 at <http://rjh.goingeast.ca/2011/11/17/axiology-what-do-you-value-in-research/>). The author takes a managerialist approach to research with the:

...imposition of managerial techniques which are associated with the private business sector (Lee, 2017, p.202).

This means the outcome of the research must always add value. With this study, there is a primary objective and a primary consideration that provide overarching guidance to the research process. The objective is to produce knowledge that will help to solve or reduce the problem of employee turnover

in the target organization. The main consideration is that the approach and methods must be respectful of the study subjects whilst seeking to identify any evidence of oppression or power plays. This consideration is evidenced in the steps taken to protect the study subjects from harm which are detailed in the next section on ethics.

4.4 Ethical Approach

ETHICS

An ethical approach to all research is critical as:

...no research is entirely value free or exists in a completely risk-free context" (Wallace and Sheldon, 2015, p.267).

This study follows the clear guidance on ethical research provided by Wallace and Sheldon (2015) who identified four principles namely:

- (i) research merit and integrity,
- (ii) justice,
- (iii) beneficence and
- (iv) respect.

But ethical research goes beyond these four principles. Ethical research should also ensure "conclusion validity in quantitative research and confirmability in qualitative research", must be free from plagiarism and provide appropriate credit to all who made contributions (Wester, 2011, p. 301). These additional issues will be addressed elsewhere in this thesis.

Research merit and integrity - This study has the potential to create knowledge about the connection between managerial support, occupational stigma and incivility on the one hand, and employee turnover amongst non-managerial employees in the quick service sector on the other. It is likely to shed light on the turnover phenomenon amongst non-managerial workers in the quick service sector in Guyana and, perhaps, the wider English-speaking Caribbean with whom we share psychic proximity in culture, language and laws. Some of the findings may also be transferable to other non-managerial employees such as security guards and call center employees. The knowledge created will serve as a guide to human resource practitioners seeking to lower employee turnover, increase employee engagement, develop human capacity, lower operational costs and increase customer satisfaction. Research in human resource management is rarely focused on shop floor workers and, in this regard, this study adds value by its focus on an under-researched area.

Permission was sought from the Human Resource Director of CRI to administer the questionnaires and to conduct the interviews as all informants were employees of CRI. A copy of this letter is in the Appendix A. The Business School Research Integrity Approval Form, questionnaires, structured

interviews and the consent forms were reviewed and approved by the Research Integrity Committee of the Edinburgh Napier University.

Justice - Since the author is the owner and CEO of CRI, all effort was taken to ensure that the purpose of the questionnaires and structured interviews were communicated clearly, and that participation was voluntary, anonymous and without burden. It was emphasized that no negative consequences would result from refusing to participate. Participants were required to sign the consent form prior to completing the questionnaires and structured interviews. For the pilot and main study questionnaires, the entire population of the chosen branches was asked to participate. For the structured interviews of the main study, all participants, other than the Human Resource managers, were chosen at random from the ranks of middle and senior management.

The author engaged and trained a third party (Research Assistant) to administer the questionnaires and structured interviews to the participants who were all employees of CRI. This had the advantage of increasing anonymity and reducing fear from reprisals. It was also likely that informants would be more honest and forthcoming with their responses. One disadvantage was that it added a layer of interpretation as the author was unable to listen to the audio transcripts of the interviews (Bailey, 2008).

Beneficence - The design of this research is focused on ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. Questionnaires were completely anonymized. Audio transcripts of the structured interviews were kept by the Research Assistant. These will be stored for a minimum of one year after submission and acceptance of the thesis. At the expiration of this one-year period, these audio transcripts will be destroyed by the Research Assistant. Further, the hard copies of the structured interviews will be kept in a locked filing cabinet whilst the electronic copies of the transcript will be stored on a password-protected computer. Both hard and soft copies of the interviews will be destroyed one year after the submission and acceptance of the thesis. Possible benefits of this study include lower employee turnover and improved management-worker relations. These benefits were clearly explained to participants. Based on the rigorous safeguards that were employed to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, it is submitted that the benefits of this study clearly exceeded any potential risk. A summary of the safeguards utilized is as follows:

1. Use of a research assistant.
2. The retention of the consent forms by the research assistant.
3. Withholding of audio transcripts by the research assistant.
4. No destruction of the audio recordings by the research assistant until one year after submission and acceptance of the thesis.
5. No request for the gender of the managers during structured interviews to avoid the possibility of identification since there were only two male managers amongst the informants.

6. The use of ranges for duration of service during structured interviews again to accomplish de-identification.

Respect - Participation in the study was voluntary. The questionnaires and structured interviews were completed away from the offices/restaurants of CRI to ensure that participants were relaxed and comfortable. Questions for the informants were not provided in advance as it was felt discussions might take place amongst the identified participants leading to commonality in responses. For the structured interviews, the research assistant was requested to ask the submitted questions only, no probing or follow-up questions were permitted. This limitation would have prevented the research assistant from giving detailed explanations or from probing emerging themes. Use of a research assistant also introduced the possibility of social desirability bias (Kim and Kim, 2016). However, the responses suggest that informants relished the opportunity to speak their minds freely, thus providing much useful data. The author did not directly ask anyone employed by CRI to participate. All requests were made through the Human Resource Director. All responses were treated as confidential.

No issues of cultural, religious, ethnic or other sensitivities were encountered. A plan was in place for the Human Resource Director to address this if any such issue did arise post-survey. The author also committed to simultaneously notify the Edinburgh Napier supervisory team of the emergence of any such issue to ensure a prompt and objective response.

4.5 Methodology

This section will provide details on the methods (mixed methods), design (sequential explanatory mixed methods) and the triangulation utilized to offset procedural bias in this study.

MIXED METHODS

Mixed methods research is defined as research

...that combines qualitative data collection and/or analysis with quantitative data collection and/or analysis in a single study (Hurmerinta-Peltomaki and Nummela, 2006, p. 441).

Mixed methods research is seen as providing the means to gain deeper insight into organizational, business and social phenomena (Hurmerinta-Peltomaki and Nummela, 2006; Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill, 2011; Cameron and Molina-Azorin, 2011; McKim, 2017) and

...is most strongly underpinned by the philosophical approach known as pragmatism which advocates a practical and outcome-oriented method of inquiry and a need-based approach to research methods and concept selection (Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill, 2011, p.290).

Whilst there has been growing acceptance for this approach in business research (Cameron and Molina-Azorin, 2011; Popescul and Jitaru, 2017), some researchers have suggested that mixed methods research should be grounded in a paradigm (Johnson; 2011; Shannon-Baker; 2016). The author has utilized critical pragmatism as the philosophical approach for this study and pragmatism supports and is frequently deployed to provide theoretical structure for mixed methods (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010).

RESEARCH DESIGN

A sequential explanatory mixed methods design was utilized for the purposes of the main study. This design allows researchers to leverage the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Ivankova et al., 2006). In this format, quantitative data is first collected and analyzed, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The qualitative phase

...builds on the first, quantitative, phase, and the two phases are connected in the intermediate stage in the study. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem. The qualitative data and their analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants' views in more depth (Ivankova et al., 2006, p.5).

MODEL OF SEQUENTIAL EXPLANATORY DESIGN PROCEDURES IN THIS STUDY

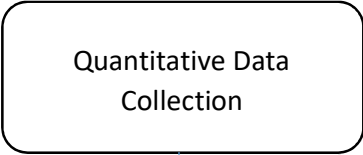
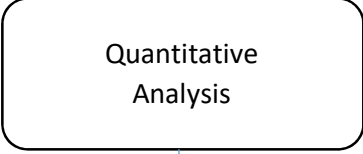
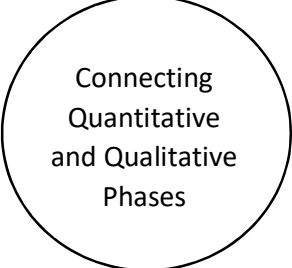
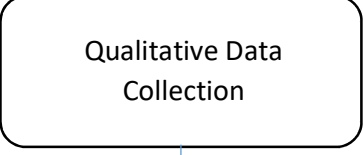
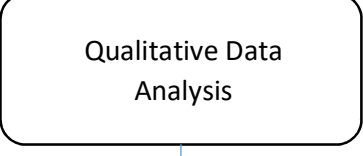
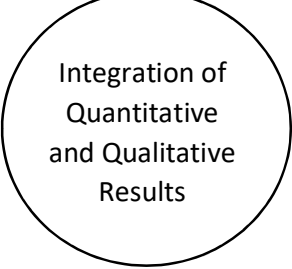
Phase	Procedure	Product
 <p>Quantitative Data Collection</p>	Questionnaires	Numeric data
 <p>Quantitative Analysis</p>	Correlation analysis	Descriptive statistics Spearman's rho
 <p>Connecting Quantitative and Qualitative Phases</p>	Development of interview questions	Cases (n=15) Interview protocol
 <p>Qualitative Data Collection</p>	Structured interviews of fifteen (15) managers	Transcripts
 <p>Qualitative Data Analysis</p>	Coding within and across transcripts	Codes and themes
 <p>Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Results</p>	Interpretation and explanation of quantitative and qualitative findings	Discussion Implications Future research

Figure 4.1: Flow Chart of Main Study-Sequential Explanatory Design (adapted from Ivankova et al., 2006, p. 16).

TRIANGULATION

The concept of triangulation is not without controversy (Denzin, 2010; Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2013). Denzin (2010) highlighted the following:

Over the past four decades, each decade has taken up triangulation and redefined it to meet perceived needs. And so it is with the current generation. But the very term triangulation is unsettling, and unruly. It disrupts and threatens the belief that reality in its complexities can never be fully captured (Denzin, 2010, p.423).

In its simplest form, triangulation:

...refers to using multiple, different approaches to generate better understanding of a given theory or phenomenon (Turner et al., 2017, p. 243).

This suggests, prima facie, that mixed methods research is a form of triangulation. However, Torrance (2012) added complexity to the requirements for triangulation by calling for different respondents:

Triangulation has its origins in attempts to validate research findings by generating and comparing different sorts of data, and different respondents' perspectives, on the topic under investigation (Torrance, 2012, pp.111).

This study takes the position that triangulation may be used in purely quantitative, purely qualitative or mixed method studies. This is a mixed-method study involving quantitative and qualitative analyses of data collected from company records, survey questionnaires (non-managerial workers) and structured interviews (middle and senior managers). This means that the basic requirements for triangulation have been met, as it involved mixed methods with different respondents to provide a more holistic picture, thus meeting the additional requirements imposed by Torrance (2012).

4.5.1 Pilot Study

A pilot study has numerous purposes such as developing and testing the adequacy of research instruments, assessing the feasibility of a full study, designing and testing protocols for the larger study, establishing and testing the sampling and recruitment strategies, collecting preliminary data, obtaining effect size information and training research assistants (Connelly, 2008, p. 411)

The following items were identified as objectives for the pilot:

- To determine the resources, human and otherwise, that would be necessary to successfully complete the main study.
- To provide experiential learning for the research assistant in the administration of the research instrument (questionnaire).

- To test the research instrument for clarity and reliability.
- To assess the willingness of the targets (employees of Camex Restaurants Inc.) to voluntarily participate in the study.

Data was collected from non-managerial employees at five remote (rural) branches of Camex Restaurants Inc., between April 7, 2017 and April 13, 2017. Twenty-nine (29) employees, out of a total population of two hundred and fifty four (254) non-managerial employees, were identified to participate in the pilot. Twenty-eight (28) participated voluntarily. The lone employee who did not participate had been suspended at the time the survey was conducted. On average, the informants took thirty-four minutes to complete the questionnaires.

The approach to sampling in the pilot study was non-probabilistic. In fact, it was a combination of judgment and quota sampling. The author chose rural branches as there was less likelihood of contaminating the main study. Second, the rural branches identified for the pilot study were chosen so that the total of their non-managerial employees would be at least ten per cent (10%) of the population for the main study (Hill, 1998; Connelly, 2008).

The questionnaires were completed at facilities separate from the restaurants and participants were briefed on the purpose of the study and advised that their participation must be voluntary and anonymous. Participants had difficulty answering Stigma Consciousness questions A and B. They sought clarification on the meaning of the words “general image” in question A and “typical fast food worker” in question B. They also seemed to have difficulty with questions with the reverse-scored questions and in converting their answers to a number.

A review of the measures of central tendency showed that the mean age of the employees was twenty-six (26) years with a median age of twenty-four and a half (24.5) years and a mode of twenty-two (22) years. The ages of these employees ranged from twenty (20) years to forty-two (42) years old. Their mean length of employment was twenty-seven (27) months, the median length of service was twenty-one and a half (21.5) months and their duration of service ranged from one month to six years. All of the employees surveyed were female.

Notwithstanding the sample size, correlation analysis was executed on the data and this indicated an insignificant negative relationship between job tenure, on one hand, and intention to remain and likelihood to recommend the job, on the other. This resulted in a decision to probe the reason for the negative relationship. Consequently, a few questions were added to the main study questionnaire.

4.5.2 Quantitative Data Collection

As of January 2018, there were one hundred and ninety-three (193) non-managerial employees employed by CRI, operating out of eleven different locations, who did not contribute to the pilot study and were, thus, available to participate in the main study. A questionnaire which solicited responses on issues, ranging from stigma consciousness to turnover intention, was administered to the participants between January 25th and February 12th, 2018. Questions for all of the

examined issues, except turnover intention, utilized a five-point Likert scale where the available responses were “strongly disagree,” “neither agree nor disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”. One hundred and fifty-seven (157) responses were collected from this sample pool representing a response rate of 81.3%. Of the 157 responses collected, 153 were deemed usable. Three questionnaires were spoiled, and one participant left without completing the questionnaire. Of the thirty-six (36) employees who did not participate, there were twelve (12) refusals, twelve (12) whom had voluntarily terminated their services and twelve (12) who were not present at the time the research assistant visited their locations to administer the questionnaire.

The survey sessions, which generally lasted between 20-30 minutes, were conducted away from the work site to ensure participant ease and snacks were provided to the participants at the end of each session. Having given consideration to the literacy levels of the participants, it was agreed that the questions would be read aloud by the research assistant and brief explanations were given where necessary. Words like “interact” and “prospects” proved to be a challenge to some participants. It is believed that the clarifications provided by the research assistant were of great assistance to the participants in completing the questionnaires.

A Stigma Consciousness and Turnover Intent Questionnaire (SCTIQ) and Stigma Consciousness, Managerial Support and Turnover Intent Questionnaire (SMTQ) were developed for use in this study. These questionnaires were administered to the non-managerial employees of CRI. The Stigma Consciousness and Turnover Intent Questionnaire (SCTIQ) used in the pilot study was a combination of the Stigma Consciousness Questionnaire (SCQ) used in several studies (Pinel, 1999; Wildes, 2005; Pinel and Paulin, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Mosley and Rosenberg, 2007), seven items used to measure turnover intent (Grandey et al, 2002; Pinel and Paulin, 2005) and an additional question relating to whether workers would be willing to recommend the job to family or friends (Wildes, 2005).

The development of the SCQ was detailed in Pinel’s (1999) work. This tool was tested and validated on female psychology students, women, men, Whites, Blacks, Asians, Hispanics, gay men and lesbians. The SCQ and turnover intent questions were modified for use in the quickservice category. The language was also simplified since the participants in the study included many secondary school dropouts incapable of understanding words like “stereotype”. Pinel (1999) used the numbers 0-6 for her scale. However, this was not done in the SCTIQ as it was felt the number zero might be confusing.

Consequent to the experience gained during the pilot, a number of modifications were made to the SCTIQ and this resulted in the SMTQ questionnaire, which was used in the main study as many of the informants had never completed a questionnaire before. These modifications were as follows:

1. Two dummy questions/statements were used to familiarize participants with the process of completing a questionnaire and answering normal and reverse scored questions. These questions/statements were as follows:

- I like pineapples
- I dislike pineapples

2. A five-point Likert scale was used so as to minimize the difficulty participants had with the range of possible responses. The available literature suggests that this change was unlikely to impact reliability as noted by Hinkin (1998):

Coefficient alpha reliability with Likert scales has been shown to increase up to the use of five points, but then it levels off (Hinkin, 1998, p.9).

3. The pilot study suggested a negative relationship between tenure and intent to remain. This prompted the addition of four questions/statements to interrogate manager/crew member relations. These four questions were, in part, a modification of questions (a) and (b) below which were taken from the UK Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS) 2011 and questions (c) and (d) which were taken from Gunn and Canada (2015). The lens of the critical pragmatist suggested exploring for the presence intra-group stigma and this led to the adoption of questions from Gunn and Canada (2015). The WERS and Gunn and Canada (2015) questions were designed for different purposes than this study and for an audience that was likely better educated and more familiar with questionnaires than the crew members of CRI. Modifications were, therefore, required as the informants had already demonstrated difficulty with simple words in the pilot:

- a) Overall how good are managers at seeking the views of employees/employee reps?
- b) In general, how would you describe relations between managers and employees?
- c) In what ways did you feel or not feel supported by family, partners and peers within treatment?
- d) How do you believe others (society, family, friends, etc.,) view your experiences with addiction?

The modified questions/statements now added to the questionnaire were:

- Do your supervisors seek your views on how best to do your work?
- I have a good relationship with my supervisor
- Do you feel supported by your supervisors in doing your work?
- My supervisors make me feel proud to be a fast food worker

5. The negative relationship between tenure and an intention to remain also led to an inference that the non-managerial employees were probably upset about their lack of promotion. Consequently, two final statements, which sought to elicit the views of the

employees regarding their prospects for advancement in the company, were added. These two statements were:

- I am satisfied with my prospects for promotion.
- The system for determining promotions is fair.

Table 4.1 below establishes the linkages between the research variables and the survey questions in the quantitative phase of this study.

Table 4.1: Linkage Between Research Variables and Questions on Main Study Questionnaire

Variables	Questions
Managerial Support	a) I have a good relationship with my supervisor. b) My supervisors make me feel proud to be a fast food worker c) Do you feel supported by your supervisors in doing your work? d) Do your supervisors seek your views on how best to do your work? e) I am satisfied with my prospects for promotion f) The system for determining promotions is fair.
Occupational Stigma	a) The general image of the fast food worker has not affected me. b) I never worry that my actions will be seen as those of the typical fast food worker. c) Most people do not judge me based on the job I do. d) My being a fast food worker does not affect how the public acts with me. e) I never think about the fact that I am a fast food worker when I interact with the public. f) My being a fast food worker does not affect how my friends act with me. g) When interacting with the public, I feel they view all of my actions in terms of the fact that I am a fast food worker. h) Most members of the public have bad images about fast food work that they don't express. g) I think the public has a problem viewing fast food workers as their equal. h) Would you recommend that a family member or friend seek employment in the fast food sector?
Turnover Intent	a) I intend to leave the fast food sector tomorrow if I could. b) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three to six months. c) I intend to leave the fast food sector in one year. d) I intend to leave the fast food sector in two years. e) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three years. f) I intend to leave the fast food sector in four years. g) I intend to remain in the fast food sector forever.

4.5.3 Qualitative Data Collection

Structured interviews were conducted with fifteen (15) managers of CRI in May 2019. A random sample of nineteen (19) informants was chosen from a population of one hundred and thirty-one managers comprised twenty-six (26) senior managers and one hundred and five middle (105) middle managers. Excel's randbetween function was utilized to ensure the sample was non-biased. This sample of nineteen managers was made up of five senior managers and fourteen middle managers. The two human resource managers were added to this sample of nineteen managers to produce a pool of informants totaling twenty-one managers. It was felt that the human resource managers would have detailed knowledge of the reasons for turnover and this factor led to their automatic (non-random) inclusion. The pool of twenty-one (21) managers was reduced to fifteen (15), since two managers were on vacation/maternity leave, the research assistant was unable to contact two of the managers and another two were unable to participate due to unforeseen circumstances. With such a small sample and due to the fact that there are few male managers, demographic information on the interviewees was not collected to ensure anonymity.

All informants were briefed on the purpose of the study, advised that their participation must be voluntary, given information on how the data would be managed, and assured that their contribution would be treated as confidential. They all willingly agreed to participate.

Structured interviews of the ten middle managers (middle managers represent roughly 80% of the total population of managers) and five senior managers (senior managers represent roughly 20% of the total population of managers) were carried out between May 27th to May 29th, 2019 to unearth themes and narratives to provide insight into the operation of managerial support and stigma in the turnover process. The narratives collected were rich and it was clear that the interviewees were satisfied with the procedures for de-identification as they spoke freely about their concerns.

These fifteen interviews were undertaken in an attempt to ensure data saturation which was achieved by the twelfth interview. Nevertheless, the three additional interviews were included in the analysis for completeness. The interviews ranged from fifteen (15) minutes to thirty-eight (38) minutes with an average duration of twenty-four (24) minutes (See Table 4.2 below).

Table 4.2: Timeline - Qualitative Data Collection

INTERVIEWEE	DATE	TIME OF INTERVIEW	DURATION OF INTERVIEW (MINS:SECS)
MM1	27 th May, 2019	6:45 PM	32:04
MM2	27 th May, 2019	3:02 PM	21:08
MM3	29 th May, 2019	2:23 PM	15:17
MM4	29 th May, 2019	1:07 PM	17:58
MM5	29 th May, 2019	1:56 PM	26:25
MM6	29 th May, 2019	4:42 PM	15:06
MM7	28 th May, 2019	1:39 PM	27:28
MM8	28 th May, 2019	2:22 PM	21:42
MM9	29 th May, 2019	9:53 AM	23:57
MM10	28 th May, 2019	4:28 PM	29:14
SM1	28 th May, 2019	10:52 AM	20:08
SM2	28 th May, 2019	2:22 PM	18:49
SM3	29 th May, 2019	11:51 AM	37:57
SM4	28 th May, 2019	10:19 AM	17:46
SM5	28 th May, 2019	11:46 AM	36:08

Originally, the author contemplated the use of semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data as this would have facilitated greater probing of emerging themes. However, the fact these interviews were administered by a research assistant unconnected to the university increased the possibility of harm to the research subjects. Consequently, the use of semi-structured interviews was ruled out and structured interviews were executed to unearth themes and narratives to provide insight into operation of managerial support and stigma in the turnover process.

A total of nineteen (19) questions (see Appendix D) were used for the structured interviews. The first eight of these questions were adapted from the work of Ashforth et al. (2007). Research by Ashforth et al. (2007) on occupational stigma was published in the highly ranked Academy of Management Journal and has been cited on 300+ occasions. Questions 9-14 were modifications of the following six question/statements, which were asked on the SMTQ questionnaire which was administered to one hundred and fifty-three crew members:

1. I have a good relationship with my supervisor.
2. My supervisors make me feel proud to be a fast food worker.
3. Do you feel supported by your supervisors in doing your work?
4. Do your supervisors seek your views on how best to do your work?
5. I am satisfied with my prospects for promotion.
6. The system for determining promotions is fair.

Five questions (#15, #16, #17, #18 and #9) were added to further interrogate stigma, turnover intentions prior to recruitment, customer service demands and finally, current turnover intentions.

4.5.4 Sampling-Quantitative Surveys

The questionnaire in the main study was administered to the entire population of non-managerial workers at CRI. This population comprised 193 people at the time the surveys were carried out. Choi et al. (2010) recommends a minimum sample size of 10 for analysis utilizing Spearman's rho. Well in excess of 100 employees participated, so the minimum threshold was exceeded. Since the sole focus of the study was employees of CRI, it might be considered convenience sampling and this will limit generalizability of the results. Justification for the sampling method only applied to the pilot, since all eligible employees were asked to participate in the main quantitative survey. In the pilot, the SCTIQ was tested on employees at remote branches of CRI. With this approach, there was less likelihood of the pool of employees for the main study being prejudiced based on feedback from the pilot study.

4.5.5 Sampling-Qualitative Structured Interviews

The issue of sample size is also important in qualitative studies...

...because the use of samples that are larger than needed is an ethical issue (because they waste research funds and participant time) and the use of samples that are smaller than needed is both an ethical and a scientific issue (because it may not be informative to use samples so small that results reflect idiosyncratic data and are thus not transferable, and may therefore be a waste of research funds and participant time) (Francis et al., 2010, p. 1230).

The ideal in qualitative research is to conduct interviews until data saturation is reached. That is until no "new themes, findings, concepts or problems" emerge (Francis et al., 2010, p. 1230). How many interviews are necessary for data saturation? Francis et al. (2010) cited the work of Guest et al. (2006) who concluded that twelve (12) is a sufficient sample size to identify emerging themes in studies which are not theory-based. For theory-based studies, Francis et al. (2010) prescribed:

...a minimum of 10 interviews, three further consecutive interviews with no new themes (Francis et al., 2010, p. 1241).

Since this study is a mixed methods theory-based study, it is submitted that twelve structured interviews would have been satisfactory to unearth all the narratives on managerial support and stigma.

4.5.6 Analytical Methods-Quantitative Surveys

Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were used to analyze the questionnaires. Some studies have suggested that it is not inappropriate to use the Pearson's correlation coefficient to analyze non-parametric data (Norman, 2010; Murray, 2013). This study has adopted the conventional route of using Spearman's rho. However, Hauke and Kossowski (2011) warn

...not to overinterpret Spearman's rank correlation coefficient as a significant measure of the strength of the associations between two variables (Hauke and Kossowski, 2011, p.93).

The results produced by the correlation analysis will be used in conjunction with the qualitative data to ensure that there is little chance of over interpreting the quantitative results.

Managerial support and stigma consciousness were the independent variables with *likelihood to recommend the job* and *turnover intent* as the dependent variables. For the sake of consistency, five-point Likert scales were used for all variables, except turnover intention, in the main study. Turnover intention was measured via a seven-point scale. Three of the seven points were offered as options to those intending to quit in one year or less to surface the immediacy of the turnover threat. This decision then led to the use of the larger scale for this variable. Bivariate correlations with 2-tailed tests for significance were utilized in the analysis of the results of the main study.

4.5.7 Analytical Methods-Structured Interviews

The Constant Comparative Method (CCM) was used pragmatically to identify whether themes in the interviews were connected to turnover intent, managerial support and stigma. This was pragmatic since CCM has historically been connected to Grounded Theory. This approach was not without precedent as Ashforth et al. (2007) used CCM for the analysis of semi-structured interviews on occupational stigma. This approach was also utilized by Fram (2013) who stated:

My use of a theoretical framework—it's connected concepts and theories—was developed after a review of the literature. The elements of the framework were used to identify the essential elements of a socialization process that were ever-changing and evolving. My use of CCA was explicitly pragmatic in nature (Fram, 2013, p.11).

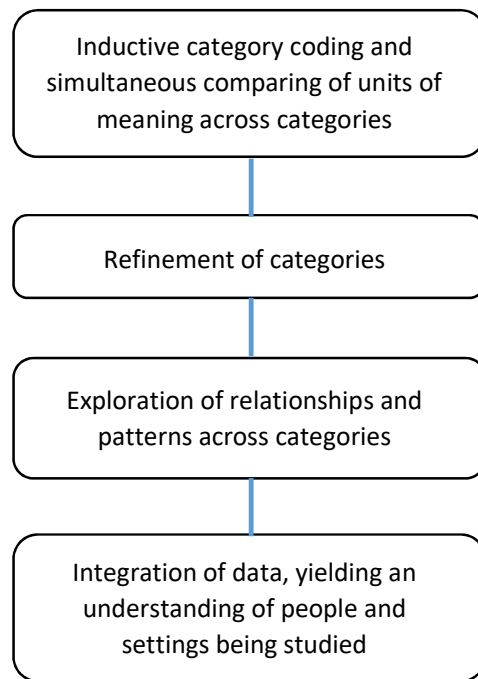


Figure 4.2: Steps in the Constant Comparative Method (Brescia et al, 2004, p. 5)

The illustration above (Figure 4.2) details the steps for analysis of data when using the CCM. The qualitative aspect of this study involves interviews. CCM was recommended for use with, inter alia, interviews and assists:

...in generating a theory which is integrated, consistent, plausible, close to the data, and in a form which is clear enough to be readily, if only partially, operationalized for testing in quantitative research (Glaser, 1965, p. 437).

There is no clearly defined method for the process of analysis utilizing the CCM (Boeije, 2002; Fram, 2013). A clear description of how this method was applied in this study is therefore necessary. Additionally, it must be noted that, within this process, coding was guided by epistemology. The author utilized the lens of a critical pragmatist to review the transcripts carefully for evidence of oppression or power plays. In contrast to the first stage of analysis using CCM in Figure 4.2, the first step in analysing the data in this thesis was deductive coding guided by some initial constructs from the literature. It is difficult to classify research as purely deductive or inductive since many studies, including this one, use both forms of analyses (Hyde, 2000; Thomas, 2006). Some scholars argue that mixed methods research take place on a continuum with induction at one end and deduction at the other extreme. Whilst the idea of the continuum fits neatly with epistemology, this is not necessarily the case with methodology (Denton, 2019). This study favours the contention of Hyde (2000) “that most research endeavours proceed by an iterative alternation of induction and deduction” (Hyde, 2000, p. 83). This iterative cycle is a characteristic of mixed methods research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2010; Denton, 2019).

Some of the a priori categories and sub-categories used to guide this deductive coding were Turnover Intent (wage adequacy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, working conditions), Managerial Support (work-life conflict, career development), Stigma (discrimination, occupational taint, status loss, servitude), Intra-group Stigma (defensive othering, supervisory abuse), Normalizing (reframing, recalibrating, refocusing), Workplace Incivility and Customer Incivility. The second stage of analysis involved eliminating categories for which there was no evidence and the addition of categories to cover emerging themes that did not fit with the a priori categories and sub-categories. This process continued to theoretical saturation, that is, until all the important data was covered by some exclusive category (Glaser, 1965). In the third stage of analysis, the process was identical to that of Figure 4.2. Comparisons of the coded data were made in a “step by step” approach (Boeije, 2002, p. 394) within the same interview, within the same group (middle managers or senior managers) and across the groups in a search for patterns. The final stage involved mapping the relationships between the categories, then examining and comparing them iteratively with the extant theory to develop a clear understanding of the operation of managerial support and stigma in the turnover process and to generate new theory (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ravenswood, 2011).

4.5.8 Reliability, Validity, Trustworthiness and Transferability of the Study

The focus on the reliability and validity of research was traditionally associated with positivistic research (Aastrup and Halldorsson, 2003). These measures were seen as inappropriate for qualitative research which moved towards an emphasis on credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1982). The new criteria for qualitative research were later considered to be constituent parts of a single criteria, trustworthiness (Aastrup and Halldorsson, 2003). Morse et al. (2002) challenged this diversion to trustworthiness as useful in evaluating but not ensuring rigor and called for a renewed focus on reliability and validity stating:

We argue that strategies for ensuring rigor must be built into the qualitative research process per se. These strategies include investigator responsiveness, methodological coherence, theoretical sampling and sampling adequacy, an active analytic stance, and saturation. These strategies, when used appropriately, force the researcher to correct both the direction of the analysis and the development of the study as necessary, thus ensuring the reliability and validity of the completed project (Morse et al., 2002, p.17).

It is submitted that the use of mixed methods is in consonance with the philosophical framework of critical pragmatism. The data collection and analytical methods have been justified for both the qualitative and the quantitative aspects of this study. The number of informants for the correlation analysis exceeded 100 (the author’s position in the industry was an obstacle to widening the number of informants in the study). Qualitative data analysis, utilizing the CCM, was executed to saturation and beyond, thus satisfying the objective criteria of Morse et al. (2002).

Notwithstanding the methodological strengths of this study, the informants all worked for a single company, so it is possible that the issues identified and addressed are peculiar to CRI and this would limit transferability. However, the extent of this limitation is unclear, as most of the findings were supported by the extant literature. It is submitted that the findings of this study would hold interest for quick service operators generally and for hospitality operators in Guyana and the wider Caribbean. Fusch et al. (2018) cite the assertion of Marshall and Rossman (2016) that issue of transferability should be left to the “reader and future researchers”. The author is of the same opinion.

4.5.9 Reflections on the Methods, Design and Conduct of the Study.

This sub-section will detail some of the key decisions made by the author concerning the methods, design and conduct of this study. This study was a mixed methods study which utilized questionnaires and structured interviews. Correlation analysis was used to analyse the questionnaire data and the CCM was used to code and interpret the qualitative data. The research problem required an investigation of the employee turnover behaviour of close to two hundred crew members. The author’s experience in business suggested the use of questionnaires with Likert scales to explain the relationships between the independent (managerial support and occupational stigma) and dependent variables (turnover intention and likelihood to recommend the job). This decision was supported by similar studies such as Wildes (2005). Reducing responses to simple numbers likely aided comprehension for informants with just a basic level of education.

A sequential explanatory design combined the quantitative and qualitative elements of the study. This design was purposefully chosen. First, the quantitative aspect tested whether relationships existed between managerial support and occupational stigma as independent variables on the one hand and turnover intention and likelihood to recommend, the dependent variables, on the other. The qualitative aspect that followed would explain the data (Creswell, 2014). This decision to utilize the sequential explanatory mixed methods design was made based on the idea that the independent variables were fairly well understood. The actual findings of the study refute this idea and suggest that a sequential exploratory mixed methods design would have been a better option.

The author attempted to use exploratory factor analysis to identify underlying relationships between the variables but this attempt failed to obtain a satisfactory score for Cronbach’s alpha. This was probably the result of a small sample size as the guidance from the literature “advocate for large samples (say, a sample size of at least 200) to obtain high-quality factor analysis solutions” (Jung and Lee, 2011, p.701). It was then decided to undertake correlation analysis utilizing Spearman’s rho. The data resulting from the use of the Likert scale was ordinal and the conventional approach, suggested by Jamieson (2004), was to utilize non-parametric tests such as Spearman’s for such analysis.

Ethical concerns regarding probing of informants by a third party forced the choice of structured interviews over semi-structured interviews. Whilst it was felt that the independent variables were well understood, CCM was used to ensure rigor in the qualitative data analysis. CCM has been associated with grounded theory and the generation of new theory. Its use in this study was likely to serve a similar purpose (Glaser, 1965; Fram, 2013).

Administering questionnaires and conducting interviews are essential aspects of any researcher's apprenticeship. The ethical guidelines (Section 4.4) in this study prevented the author from personally undertaking these tasks. The author contacted the local Chamber of Commerce and a number of marketing executives for recommendations of a professional research firm capable of undertaking these tasks. Project Development Consultancy or PDC was the only firm recommended. This firm had undertaken, inter alia, data collection, transcription, and data analysis for a number of businesses and non-governmental organizations plus academic and research institutions, both locally and internationally (See Appendix H for resume of the research assistant and Appendix I for the company profile for PDC Research).

Following an interview with the Founder/Director of PDC, the author was satisfied that PDC possessed the capacity and experience to administer the questionnaires in addition to conducting and transcribing the interviews. The author retained overall responsibility for the process and remained in regular contact with PDC during the fieldwork.

4.6 Summary

This is a mixed methods study aimed at illuminating and fixing a problem with employee turnover and this goal guided the decision regarding methodology. A sequential explanatory mixed methods design was chosen for this study as it was felt that the operation of managerial support and occupational stigma was well understood and did not require much exploration. A questionnaire was determined to be the best, and most cost-effective, tool for gathering information from 100+ non-managerial employees who are the focus of this study. This quantitative phase was then followed by a qualitative phase, where interviews were conducted with managers for confirmation and deeper insight into a problem than would be possible with the use of questionnaires only.

There is a potential for bias in every study and its identification is key. The chapter explained the study's adoption of critical pragmatism as its philosophical approach. Pragmatism is an approach that aims to solve problems utilizing rigorous scientific tools. There was also methodological congruity between mixed methods and pragmatism. Critical realism was rejected as an alternative approach since it required an ontological stance as its starting point. For this study, the research question was the beginning and guided the decision as to what tools would be used.

Ethical compliance was a key goal and whilst voluntary participation and informed consent were considered important, anonymity took precedence. No research is risk-free and the author's role as researcher and CEO of CRI meant several safeguards, described in the chapter, were necessary to maintain distance between the author and the research subjects. This limited the ability of the author to fully utilize the lens of critical pragmatism.

Justification for both the quantitative and qualitative samples has also been provided. A decision was made to utilize correlation analysis in the quantitative phase to decipher the quantitative data. Analysis in the qualitative phase used the Constant Comparative Method of thematic analysis on structured interviews.

A pilot study was conducted, and the objectives of the pilot study were largely met. No communication or operational issues were encountered with the engagement and use of a research assistant. There was full, voluntary participation by the crew members. Participants completing the questionnaire encountered some difficulties with the wording, the conversion of answers to numbers and the reverse-scored questions. This experience, together with some preliminary analysis, informed changes that were made to the questionnaire and interviews of the main study.

The philosophical approach, ethical guardrails and methods of sampling, data collection and analysis were all fully explained in this chapter since research outputs must not only follow ethical guidelines but must also have rigor, reliability and validity. The next chapter will record the analysis and findings of this study. Each research question will be answered utilizing information from the context chapter, the literature review and the data analysis. What this chapter has made

clear is that the analysis will be rigorous, and that critical pragmatism is the appropriate lens for this study.

Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into four sections, inclusive of this introduction (Section 5.1) which provides information on the structure and goals of the chapter. The chapter is organized around the two major themes of the study: managerial support and occupational stigma. However, a number of sub-themes are developed within each one of the major themes. These themes and sub-themes are all examined throughout the chapter for connections to employee turnover.

The second section (Section 5.2) provides details on the characteristics of the respondents to the questionnaire, followed by the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis of the questionnaire responses. The section ends with an analysis of the quantitative data.

The third section (Section 5.3) provides details on the characteristics of the respondents to the interviews and the coding of the data. Each research question and its origin, whether in context or theory or both, is discussed. The quantitative and qualitative data collected is then integrated for iterative comparisons with the extant theory in order to produce and explain the significance of each finding (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ravenswood, 2011).

It would be impossible for a single theme to explain a concept as complex as employee turnover, a theme which has been continuously researched for more than five decades. Consequently, a few significant issues that were not the subject of this study, were identified and these were all reported as emergent themes in this section. The section ends with an analysis of the qualitative data.

Section (5.4) of the chapter answers each research question in order to achieve the aims of the study and presents the findings and key findings. The section explains how the study has expanded the theory of employee turnover and how those findings are likely to impact the practice of human resource management within the hospitality sector.

Finally, the context chapter highlighted the recruitment challenges of CRI and the fact that less than half of the employees met the minimum educational standard for employment, and many of these employees make it into the management ranks of the company. This fact affected the structured interviews as many of the informants spoke in the local vernacular. Honan and Bright (2016) recommend that a thesis:

...would perhaps engage with all modes of language, including the vehicular, the vernacular, the referential and the mythic (Honan and Bright, 2016, p.737).

In this study, the responses of the informants are reported directly for four reasons. First, the local vernacular may be distant from the Queen's English but no so distant that it cannot be understood. Second, it adds rich texture to the interviews. Third, it enhances the credibility of the

study to readers by eliminating possible biased interpretations of the author. Fourth, this approach is supported by the literature (Honan and Bright, 2016).

5.2 Quantitative Findings

This section will provide details on the characteristics of the respondents to the questionnaire in addition to the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis of the questionnaire data.

5.2.1 Sample Characteristics: Survey respondents

Of the 153 responses deemed usable, 3 respondents did not state their gender. Of the 150 respondents that did state their gender, 14 (9.3%) were male and 136 (90.7%) were female. The ages of the employees surveyed ranged from 18 to 46, with a mean age of 24.3. One hundred and forty five (145) respondents provided details on their length of service with the company. Their service ranged from a minimum of one (1) month to a maximum of eight years. The mean length of service was 21.1 months (or 1.76 years) with a standard deviation of 21.7 months (or 1.8 years).

5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics

The reporting in this section has aggregated the results for agree/strongly agree and disagree/strongly disagree to enhance presentation and understanding. The disaggregated results are shown in Tables 5.1 to 5.8 below.

MANAGERIAL SUPPORT

There was agreement with the idea that employees had a good relationship with their supervisors (MS1 – 59.8% agreed and 27.5% disagreed); that their supervisors made them feel proud of their role as fast food workers (MS2 – 47.7% agreed, 37.1% disagreed); that they feel supported by their supervisors in doing their work (MS3 – 58.4% agreed and 26.2% disagreed); and that they were satisfied with their prospects for promotion (MS5 – 55.9% agreed and 28.2% disagreed). The results were inconclusive as to whether supervisors solicited their views on how best to get the job done, where 43.8% disagreed whilst 44.5% agreed (MS4 – 43.8% disagreed and 44.5% agreed). Finally, a small majority of employees disagreed that the system for determining promotions was fair (MS6 – 50.3% disagreed and 32.4% agreed).

Table 5.1: Frequency Results – Managerial Support

Frequency Results - Managerial Support					
Questions	1 Strongly Disagree (%)	2 Disagree (%)	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	4 Agree (%)	5 Strongly Agree (%)
I have a good relationship with my supervisor.	18.1	9.4	12.7	28.9	30.9
My supervisors make me feel proud to be a fast food worker	21.9	15.2	15.2	27.2	20.5
Do you feel supported by your supervisors in doing your work?	16.1	10.1	15.4	29.5	28.9
Do your supervisors seek your views on how best to do your work?	20.9	22.9	11.7	28.8	15.7
I am satisfied with my prospects for promotion?	16.4	11.8	15.9	30.9	25
The system for determining promotions is fair.	36.4	13.9	17.3	22.5	9.9

STIGMA CONSCIOUSNESS

A review of responses to the questions on stigma consciousness shows (Table 5.2) that there was agreement (SC1 – 66.5% agreed and 25% disagreed) that the general image of the fast food worker did not affect the workers; that they never worry (SC2 – 58.9% agreed and 33.1% disagreed strongly) that their actions are seen as those of a typical fast food worker; that they were not judged based on their jobs (SC3 – 67.3% agreed and 30.1% disagreed); that being a fast food worker did not affect the way the public dealt with them (SC4 – 67.6% agreed and 26.4% disagreed); that they never considered their job when interacting with the public (SC5 – 64.7% agreed and 32.7% disagreed); and that their jobs as fast food workers did not affect the way their friends interacted with them (SC6 – 81.7% agreed and 15.0% disagreed).

There was disagreement with the suggestion that the public views all of their actions in terms of the fact that they are fast food workers (SC7 – 53.4% disagreed and 39.4% agreed). They also felt that the public had negative images about fast food work that they do not express (SC8 – 65.1% agreed and 26.4% disagreed) and that the public had difficulty seeing fast food workers as their equal (SC9 – 59.6% agreed and 33.1% disagreed).

Table 5.2: Frequency Results – Stigma Consciousness

Frequency Results: Stigma Consciousness					
Questions	1 Strongly Disagree (%)	2 Disagree (%)	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	4 Agree (%)	5 Strongly Agree (%)
The general image of the fast food worker has not affected me.	15.1	9.9	8.6	39.5	27
I never worry that my actions will be seen as those of the typical fast food worker.	8.6	24.5	7.9	29.8	29.1
Most people do not judge me based on the job I do.	9.8	20.3	2.6	36.6	30.7
My being a fast food worker does not affect how the public interacts with me.	7.9	18.5	6	39.1	28.5
I never think about the fact that I am a fast food worker when I interact with the public.	13.1	19.6	2.6	33.3	31.4
My being a fast food worker does not affect how my friends interact with me.	8.5	6.5	3.3	36.6	45.1
When interacting with the public, I feel they view all of my actions in terms of the fact that I am a fast food worker.	20.7	32.7	7.2	24.7	14.7
Most members of the public have negative images of fast food work that they do not express.	8.6	17.8	8.5	32.9	32.2
I think the public has a problem viewing fast food workers as their equal.	13.2	19.9	7.3	31.8	27.8

LIKELIHOOD TO RECOMMEND

The basis for examining this variable was the work of Wildes (2005). In this study it was demonstrated that employees who were high in stigma consciousness were unlikely to recommend the job to a friend or family member. The question posed on the questionnaire was as follows: Would you recommend that a family member or friend seek employment in the fast food sector?

Table 5.3: Frequency Results – Likelihood to Recommend Job

Frequency Results: Likelihood to Recommend Job					
Questions	1 Strongly Disagree (%)	2 Disagree (%)	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	4 Agree (%)	5 Strongly Agree (%)
Would you recommend that a family member or friend seek employment in the fast food sector?	18.3	17.0	12.4	30.1	22.2

N	Valid	153
	Missing	0
Mean		3.21
Std Deviation		1.436

Whilst a number of questions addressed the issues of stigma consciousness and conditions of work, the likelihood of employees recommending the job to family or friends was explored by way of a single question. There was general agreement that they would recommend the job with 52.3% indicating agreement and 35.3% disagreeing.

TURNOVER INTENTION

The basis for examining this variable was the work of Wildes (2005). In this study it was demonstrated that employees high in stigma consciousness were likely to leave the job. Participants were asked to indicate their turnover intentions by choosing from the following seven (7) options:

- 1) I intend to leave the fast food sector tomorrow if I could.
- 2) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three to six months.
- 3) I intend to leave the fast food sector in one year.
- 4) I intend to leave the fast food sector in two years.
- 5) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three years.
- 6) I intend to leave the fast food sector in four years.

7) I intend to remain in the fast food sector forever.

Table 5.4: Frequency Results – Turnover Intention

Frequency Results: Turnover Intention							
Questions	1 Leave tomorrow?	2 Leave in three to six months?	3 Leave in one year?	4 Leave in two years?	5 Leave in three years?	6 Leave in four years?	7 Stay forever?
Results (%)	13.8	9.0	10.3	6.9	11.7	19.3	29

N	Valid	145
	Missing	8
Mean		4.68
Std Deviation		2.185

A review of the statistics on turnover intention shows that 40% of the employees completing the questionnaire planned to leave in two (2) years or less. 13.8% wanted to leave immediately, 9% planned to do so in 3-6 months, 10.3% would leave in one (1) year and 6.9% would leave in two (2) years. Sixty percent (60%) of the employees planned on giving three or more years of service to the company. Of this group, 11.7% planned on leaving in three (3) years, 19.3% in four (4) years and 29% planned to remain forever.

5.2.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlations (Spearman two-tailed) were calculated between six dimensions of managerial support (MS) and the three dependent variables of length of job tenure (JT), likelihood to recommend the job (LR) and an intention to remain (IR). JT had a negative relationship (Spearman's rho) $\sigma = -.284$, $p < .01$ with supervisors making the crew members feel proud as fast food workers, $\sigma = -.214$, $p < .05$ with supervisor support and $\sigma = -.256$, $p < .01$, with the fairness of the system for promotion. All three of these relationships can be classified as statistically weak as σ was less than $\sigma < 0.4$. Coefficients less than 0.4 are classified as weak and coefficients between 0.4 and 0.7 are classified as moderate (Akoglu, 2018). LR had a positive relationship with all dimensions of managerial support. Whilst the relationships in four dimensions were statistically weak, in two dimensions supervisors made the crew members feel proud as fast food workers ($\sigma = .437$, $p < .01$) and with supervisor support ($\sigma = .456$, $p < .01$), the relationship was moderate. IR also had a positive relationship with all aspects of managerial support and, again, in two dimensions, supervisors made the crew members feel proud as fast food workers ($\sigma = .429$, $p < .01$) and the fairness of the system for promotion ($\sigma = .400$, $p < .01$), the relationship was moderate (Akoglu, 2018).

Table 5.5: Managerial Support (MS) Correlations

Managerial Support (MS) Correlations				
	Spearman's rho	Job Tenure (JT)	Likelihood to Recommend Job (LR)	Intention to Remain (IR)
Managerial Support 1	Correlation Coefficient	-.088	.362**	.295**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.300	.000	.000
	N	141	149	143
Managerial Support 2	Correlation Coefficient	-.284**	.437**	.429**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000
	N	143	151	143
Managerial Support 3	Correlation Coefficient	-.214*	.456**	.306**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000	.000
	N	141	149	142
Managerial Support 4	Correlation Coefficient	-.060	.270**	.222**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.474	.001	.007
	N	145	153	145
Managerial Support 5	Correlation Coefficient	-.151	.354**	.192*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.072	.000	.021
	N	144	152	144
Managerial Support 6	Correlation Coefficient	-.256**	.385**	.400**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000
	N	143	151	144

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

The results suggest that, generally, the higher the level of managerial support was, then it was more likely that crew members would remain in the job and recommend it to family members and friends. It is surprising that, to a certain degree, crew members with longer tenure feel less supported and, are concerned that the system for promotions is unfair.

Correlations were calculated between JT on the one hand, and LR and IR on the other. Correlations were also calculated between nine dimensions of stigma consciousness (SC) and the two dependent variables of LR and IR. JT had a weak negative relationship with LR ($r_s = -.236$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed) and IR ($r_s = -.324$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed). Two (out of nine) dimensions (SC3 and SC4) of SC had weak positive relationships with LR. These two dimensions were related to the perception that the public does not judge crew members based on their jobs ($r_s = .159$, $p < .05$, 2-tailed) and being a crew member does not affect how the public interacts with them ($r_s = .211$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed). The inference here is that those who believe that the public does not have a negative view of quick service work are likely to recommend the job. This perhaps supports the negative relationship identified between SC8, a belief that the public has negative images of fast food work that they do not express, and LR ($r_s = -.257$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed). Those in agreement with this belief would be unwilling to recommend the job. SC8 ($r_s = -.294$, $p < .01$, 2-tailed) and SC9 ($r_s = -.196$, $p < .05$, 2-tailed) reflect a belief that the public does not view fast food workers as their equal, both had weak negative relationships with an intention to remain.

Table 5.6: Stigma Consciousness (SC) Correlations

Stigma Consciousness (SC) Correlations			
Job Tenure (JT)	Spearman's rho	Likelihood to Recommend Job (LR)	Intention to remain (IR)
	Correlation Coefficient	-.236**	-.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000
	N	145	138
Stigma Consciousness 3	Correlation Coefficient	.159*	.145
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.082
	N	153	145
Stigma Consciousness 4	Correlation Coefficient	.211**	.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.075
	N	151	143
Stigma Consciousness 8	Correlation Coefficient	-.257**	-.294**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000
	N	152	144
Stigma Consciousness 9	Correlation Coefficient	-.075	-.196*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.363	.018
	N	151	144

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

In the pilot study, a statistically insignificant negative relationship was observed between JT and LR/IR. With the larger numbers in the main study, this relationship is now obvious even though the coefficient is categorized as weak. Only four out of nine dimensions of OS had statistically significant relationships, with LR and IR and all of the relationships identified as statistically significant, being weak.

Crew member responses suggest general agreement with all but two of the questions on management support. The responses were almost even (43.8% disagreed whilst 44.5% agreed) on the issue of whether supervisors sought their views on how best to do their work. There was disagreement (50.3% disagreed and 32.4% agreed) that the system for promotions was fair. All dimensions of managerial support that were probed correlated positively with both LR and IR with weak to moderate relationships. Taking the descriptive statistics and correlation analysis together, it can be inferred that retention should increase with effective managerial support. Addressing partiality in the system for promotion and engaging crew members to obtain their views on organizing their work might be two ways of increasing support.

The descriptive statistics suggested that crew members felt the public saw their jobs as stigmatized even though their own personal (self-view) views seemed to differ. For example, 66.5% agreed (25% disagreed) that the image of fast food workers did not affect them. In the correlation analysis three out of nine dimensions demonstrated weak relationships with LR and two out of nine dimensions again demonstrated weak relationships with IR. All of these relationships were centered on the

public view. The relationships were so weak that no inference could be made about a relationship/s with LR and IR. Stigma concerns, if they exist, are centered on the public perception of fast food work. In other words, crew members themselves, may have little worry about the nature of their jobs.

Having regard for the admonition of Hauke and Kossowski (2011) about overreliance on results of correlation analysis utilizing Spearman's rho, the next section will probe managerial support and occupational stigma in structured interviews to ascertain whether there is any validity in the preliminary findings of this chapter. The lens of the critical pragmatist will be engaged to detect power plays and other emerging themes.

5.3 Qualitative Findings

This section will provide details on the characteristics of the respondents to the interviews and the coding of the data. Research questions will be answered and their origins in context or literature, or both, will be discussed. The quantitative and qualitative data will be integrated for iterative comparisons with the literature to produce the findings (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ravenswood, 2011). Several emergent issues connected to employee turnover, but outside of the ambit of managerial support or occupational stigma, are identified. The section ends with an analysis of the qualitative data.

5.3.1 Sample Characteristics: Interview respondents

This section will provide a numerical summary of the themes identified in the structured interviews, which was the qualitative part of the study. It will also provide information on ancillary matters. For example, the study focused on the reasons crew members leave but information was also obtained on the reasons people stay. The numerical summary for the themes and ancillary subjects now follows.

REASONS FOR REMAINING IN THE JOB

Fourteen (14) out of the fifteen (15) or 93% of the informants identified "responsibilities" as one of the reasons crew members remain in the job.

Table 5.7: Reasons for remaining in the job

	Responsibilities	Pay	Love of Job	Recognition	Job Availability
MM1	√				
MM2	√				
MM3	√				
MM4	√				
MM5	√				
MM6	√		√		
MM7	√				
MM8	√		√		√
MM9	√				
MM10	√		√		
SM1	√			√	
SM2	√		√		
SM3	√				
SM4	√		√		
SM5		√			

Of the fourteen staff included in the study (14), eight suggested that responsibility was the only reason they remained on the job. Five (5) out of fifteen (15) or 33% also proffered “love of job” as a reason for remaining. One informant suggested “salary and rewards”, another suggested “recognition”, and a final one suggested job availability as additional reasons for remaining.

MANAGERIAL SUPPORT AND CAREER SUCCESS

Managerial support has been linked to retention through its effect on career success (Tymon et al. 2011). Questions on the prospects for promotion and the fairness of the system for promotion sought to explore the route to enhancing one’s career within the organization. The question on prospects for promotion was ignored and the responses in most cases focused on the issue of fairness.

Table 5.8: System for Promotions of Crew Members

	Fair	Unfair	Partially Fair	Favoritism
MM1		√		√
MM2			√	√
MM3	√			
MM4	√			
MM5			√	√
MM6	√			
MM7			√	√
MM8	√			
MM9		√		
MM10		√		√
SM1	√			
SM2	√			
SM3		√		√
SM4		√		√
SM5		√		

Six (6) out of fifteen (15) responses to the question on fairness stated that the system for promotion was unfair and six (6) respondents believed it was fair. Three (3) of the fifteen (15) suggested the system was partially fair. Seven (7) of the fifteen respondents gave favoritism as the reason why the system was unfair.

REASONS FOR QUITTING

Managerial support requires managers to build trust by ascertaining the needs of employees and responding to them by utilizing tools such as flexibility with working hours and leave programs to facilitate career development and dependent care. In some cases, in accordance with the size of the organization, this may even involve the provision of dependent care (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Travaglione et al., 2017; Umamaheswari and Krishnan, 2016). In analyzing the responses, issues such as favoritism, discipline, hours of work, workload, holiday work, staff shortages, stress, communication, confidentiality and supervisory attitudes were all considered to fall within the domain of managerial support. Twelve (12) of the fifteen (15) responses, or 80%, listed issues connected to managerial support as the main reason the non-managerial employees quit.

TURNOVER INTENTION

Six (6) of the (15) interviewees or 40% planned to leave the company at some point whilst eight (8) planned to remain. One (1) interviewee indicated uncertainty about their future plans.

Stigma

Public View

- i) Four (4) out of thirteen (13) informants believed that the public saw the quick service employees as lacking education. One of the four also suggested that the public saw the job as degrading whilst a second said the public saw males working in quick service as being gay.
- ii) Three (3) informants, additional to one (1), mentioned above (i) also believed that the public saw their jobs as degrading. Hence, a total of four (4) informants believed that the public perceived the job as degrading.

Table 5.9: Dimensions of Stigma

Dimensions of Stigma				
	Public perception that job is degrading	Public perception that crew members are uneducated	Public perception of the job as slavery	Public perception of male employees as homosexuals
MM1				
MM2			√	
MM3				
MM4	√			
MM5			√	
MM6			√	
MM7	√			
MM8	√	√		
MM9	√			
MM10		√		
SM1				
SM2		√		√
SM3				
SM4		√		
SM5				√

- iii) Three (3) informants mentioned that the public saw them as slaves or the work as a slave camp.
- iv) One (1) informant, additional to the one (1) mentioned at (i) above, suggested that the public saw males in quick service as gay. A total of two (2) informants suggested that males in quick service were labeled as homosexual.

To sum up, a total of eleven (11) out of (13) or 85% of the informants, therefore, believed that the public saw their jobs as stigmatized in some form or fashion.

Self-View

The interviewees were asked whether they saw themselves as the typical fast food worker. The aim of the question was to elicit their view on whether they saw fast food work as ‘beneath’ them or whether they were comfortable in this role. This question did not produce any usable data. The fact that this was a structured interview did not help, as probing was not possible.

Intra-Group Stigma

The issue of intra-group stigma was explored via two questions. In the first question, the managers were asked to compare their jobs with those of others in the company. Seven (7) of the twelve (12) respondents to this question felt the jobs were all the same whilst two (2) respondents who were middle managers felt their jobs were harder or worse.

The second question on intra-group stigma sought to examine the degree to which managers socialized outside of work with subordinates. Eight (8) out of (15) respondents did not socialize

with subordinates outside of work, six (6) respondents did so on a limited basis and one (1) respondent confirmed that they did socialize with subordinates.

No inferences could be drawn from the narrative to suggest the presence of intra-group stigma. The lack of socialization seemed totally innocuous and no manager considered their job to be better.

LIKELIHOOD TO RECOMMEND THE JOB TO A FAMILY MEMBER

The research by Wildes (2005) confirmed that workers high in stigma consciousness will not only increase turnover but were also unlikely to recommend the job to friends and family.

Table 5.10: Likelihood of Recommending Job to a Family Member

	Will recommend	Will not recommend	Would prefer if family member did something better	Open to the idea of family member working in quick service
MM1		√		
MM2			√	
MM3		√		
MM4			√	
MM5		√		
MM6	√			
MM7				
MM8			√	
MM9			√	
MM10			√	
SM1				√
SM2				√
SM3				√
SM4		√		
SM5				

The informants were asked about the likelihood of recommending the job to a family member and four (4) out of thirteen (13) responded negatively. Five (5) others stated a preference for their family members to do “something better”. Three (3) informants, senior managers, were open to their family members working in quick service and one (1) informant, a middle manager, would definitely recommend the job.

SEEKING THE VIEWS OF CREW MEMBERS ON BEST WAY OF GETTING THE JOB DONE

Six (6) out of thirteen (13) managers responding to the question on the subject suggested that the managers currently seek the views of crew members on how best to get their work done. Four (4) of the thirteen (13) did not agree that managers solicited the views of the crew in this regard. Two (2) managers felt the views of the crew were sought “sometimes” and a final manager felt that middle managers would seek the views of the crew members whilst senior managers did not.

This section has quantified the responses in the structured interviews. It demonstrates that personal responsibilities were the main reason crew members remained with the company. This was followed by 'love of job' at a distant second place. Several shortcomings were also identified. Nine out of the fifteen managers responding had problems with the system for promotions. This is important as the correlation analysis had suggested the system for promotions was indeed an issue. Of the fifteen reasons given to explaining why crew members quit, twelve of them claimed they could benefit from improved managerial support (MS). Additionally, at least half of the managers felt that not enough was being done to consult with the crew members on their work. The shortcomings identified in this section draw attention to the important role MS can potentially play in improving employee retention.

The narratives, like the quantitative data, indicated that the public is likely to view quick service work as stigmatized in four ways. There was evidence to show that, to varying degrees, the public saw quick service work as degrading, with quick service workers viewed as uneducated and as slaves. There was also a suggestion that males in quick service are stigmatized as homosexuals.

Workers high in stigma consciousness (SC) are unlikely to recommend the job to friends or family (Wildes, 2005). The correlation analysis did not suggest that the crew members were high in SC. However, nine (9) out of thirteen (13) managers did not wish to recommend the job to their offspring, thus suggesting that occupational stigma (OS) may still be a factor affecting the behavior of employees at CRI.

The findings, so far, have connected MS to employee retention and have detected the presence of stigma in four different ways, though no evidence has connected this stigma to turnover. The next section will utilize thematic analysis, illuminated by the findings, to probe the role of MS and OS in the turnover process at CRI.

5.3.2 Thematic Coding

Thematic analysis utilizing the Constant Comparative Method was used to review the data (Brescia et al., 2004). The transcripts, which were prepared by the research assistant, were read twice to gain a certain level of familiarity with possible themes. On the third read, codes were assigned to the data based on a priori themes and sub-themes which had been identified in the literature. This initial approach was deductive and involved matching the codes to the data. The a priori themes were Turnover Intent, Managerial Support, Occupational Stigma, Intra-Group Stigma, Normalizing, Workplace Incivility and Customer Incivility. Once the deductive phase was complete, an inductive phase commenced. This involved another read where themes were cross-matched to gain deeper insight. For example, informants responding to the question about their willingness to recommend were cross matched with those who felt that the public saw their jobs as stigmatized in order to determine whether stigma was indeed the cause for their recommendation (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ravenswood, 2011). Finally, the lens of the critical pragmatist was used to identify emergent themes and underlying power plays.

Fifteen (15) interviews were executed with the managers at CRI. The intention was to use the first twelve (12) interviews. The final three (3) transcripts would only be used if new themes were still emerging at the twelfth transcript. Even though saturation was reached by the twelfth interview, the author decided to proceed with reading, analyzing and incorporating the last three (3) transcripts into the study for the sake of completeness. Table 5.11 below lists the final codes used for the ‘a priori’ codes and the emergent themes.

Table 5.11: Thematic Coding

CODE	MANAGERIAL SUPPORT
1	Work-life Conflict
2	Supervisor Incivility
3	Communication
4	Career Development
5	Customer Incivility
6	Supportive Managers
	OCCUPATIONAL STIGMA
7	Public View
8	Intra-group Stigma
9	Willingness to Recommend Job
10	Normalizing
	EMERGING THEMES
11	Impulsive Quits
12	Workload
13	Working Conditions
14	Stress
15	Homophobia

5.4 Research Questions and Discussion

This section will discuss the research questions generated by this study. Each question will first be connected to its origins in the context and/or literature and this will be followed by the statistical and narrative evidence collected during the fieldwork. Very often the managers used the interview questions as an opportunity to share their personal experiences instead of their views on the impact of the subject on crew members. Structured interviews prevented a redirection of their focus. Nevertheless, these personal anecdotes again added texture to the narratives.

The evidence collected was compared and contrasted with the extant literature in order to produce the findings of the study. This synthesis of the quantitative and qualitative evidence is an essential aspect of the sequential explanatory mixed methods framework (Ivankova et al., 2006). Each section ends with a discussion of the significance of the findings for each question.

The following sections will, inter alia, explore the sub-themes of work-life conflicts, career development and customer incivility to assess the performance of the managers in these critical dimensions of managerial support in the quick service sector.

5.4.1 Work-Life Conflict

It was previously established (Chapter 2) that almost fifty percent (50%) of the restaurant employees of CRI were single parents who had difficulty balancing the competing demands of work with household chores and the challenges of child care. For non-managerial workers earning minimum wages, engaging a babysitter or helper is out of the question. The literature identifies the role of work-life conflicts in creating turnover intentions (Deery, 2008; Suifan et al., 2016) and the ability of a supportive supervisor to buffer the impact of work-life conflicts on turnover intention (Asghar et al., 2018). This combination of context and theory provided the foundation for the following research question.

Research Question 1:

What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

A review of the transcripts suggests the employees of CRI were experiencing conflicts between family commitments and work. Of the fifteen interviews, five middle managers and three senior managers mentioned these conflicts in their interviews. This meant that this issue was a concern for more than half of the informants. These conflicts included the inability to spend quality time with family members and to take care of their children. It also seems that management was unaware of the challenges or simply did not care. Speaking about his or her personal situation, Middle Manager 1 (MM1), had this to say about the senior managers:

I'm sure if you ask any one of them if I have a child they mightn't be able to say or they might hear it by the way....So sometimes we don't even get--- we --- we under no circumstance we don't get weekends or holidays, right.....but so where is the time for

your children? You can't...you mean fuh tell me that you business so um dehumanizing [sic].

This issue of holiday work and lack of quality time for family was mentioned again by MM 2 speaking about the crew members:

They does be saying....they don't get holidays off.....they got children, they got to carry the children out [sic].

MM 5, speaking in the first person, highlighted the fact that personal relationships were also casualties of the work schedule and directly connected this conflict to turnover:

...even if is one holiday, because everybody got family so that is something that even if you're in a relationship people would tend to start complaining...some of us would be forced to leave our jobs. Some of us have children and we're not finding time to do studies with them...you're forced to leave so you can have that time to spend with our family [sic].

It was made pellucid by MM 10 that only personal responsibilities kept him/her in the job:

...cause I would tell you if me ain't get bills to pay at the end of the month, I ain't got a child to send to school, I din working at this company [sic].

The narratives highlight the fact that the hours of work and work on holidays are negatively impacting the parental responsibilities and personal relationships of the employees. In a study of the Kenyan hotel industry Kuria et al. (2012) pointed to, inter alia, long working hours and cruel supervisors as reasons for employee turnover. Whilst there was no evidence of cruelty, the conditions seem ripe for the creation of turnover intent. Put another way, the hours of work and work on holidays were acting as push factors (Budwhar et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010). MM 5 hinted at actual turnover by saying “*some of us would be forced to leave our jobs*”. MM 1 drew attention to the fact that the senior managers were unaware of his/her personal circumstances. Read collectively, the narratives call for both manager and organizational support to facilitate employees spending more time with their families, and such support has been shown to enhance retention (Tymon et al., 2011; Nasyira et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016; Asghar et al., 2018).

This section has confirmed the presence of work-life conflicts at CRI leading to the creation of turnover intent and actual turnover as a consequence of these conflicts. The narratives also point to a role for managerial support. This finding is supported by the extant literature and it is significant as it extends the previous work of Kuria et al. (2012), Nasyira et al. (2014), Kang et al. (2015) and Han et al. (2016) in a different segment of the hospitality sector in an entirely different international context. It also provides partial guidance to the management of CRI as to the cause of employee turnover in the organization.

5.4.2 Career Development

The hospitality sector is typically not seen as a sector for advancing one's career (Iverson and Deery, 1997; Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2018). Wildes (2005) suggested this negative image results from the view of jobs in the restaurant sector as a "stopover" (Wildes, 2005, p. 214) to what Shigihara (2018) calls "esteemed and lifelong" professions (Shigihara, 2018, p. 384). It is likely that employee turnover will reduce if efforts are made to overcome this negative perception of restaurant jobs. This contention is supported by existing literature which suggests the importance of providing opportunities for growth and training, or put another way, opportunities for career development, to reduce turnover (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018). Leaning on social exchange theory, managers who support the career development efforts of their employees are likely to be rewarded with gratitude and commitment (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2017). This points to a role for managerial support in facilitating the career development of employees, a role confirmed by Tymon et al. (2011) and Kang et al. (2015). This issue of career development generated the next research question:

Research Question 2:

How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Previous narrative has illuminated the difficulty of combining studies with the work schedule. This was, prima facie, an impediment to career development within the company. A second source of frustration that surfaced during the interviews was the system for promotion at CRI. The quantitative data analysis had indicated tenure was negatively correlated with LR ($r_s = -.236$, $p < 0.01$, 2-tailed) and an intention to remain ($r_s = -.324$, $p < 0.01$, 2-tailed). This suggested that long-standing crew members were, possibly, quite frustrated about their lack of promotion and wanted to leave.

Seven interviewees (three senior managers and four middle managers) felt the system for promotion was unfair and two interviewees (both middle managers) felt it was partially fair. This meant a total of nine interviewees had issues with the system whilst the remaining six interviewees felt the system was fair. The descriptive statistics emanating from the questionnaire had also shown that only 32.4% of respondents felt the system was fair whilst 50.3% felt it was unfair. Seven of the nine interviewees who had issues with the system identified favoritism as the main problem. MM 10 gave a personal perspective on the system for promotion:

...sometimes it's basically on favoritism, so if upper management has an issue with me, I ain't getting promote I could wuk as hard as I wan wuk or as hard as the other person is working, I'm not gonna get promoted and that's the simple fact. [sic]

However, this view was by no means universal. MM 6 felt the system was not only fair but the process was also fast for crew members who performed:

With our system you can come in here and join the crew like this month and by next month you get a promotion because we see you, you work hard, you dedicate yourself to the work and you get a promotion early, but some people mightn't see what we see in you and they might see this person just come and we deh hay long enough [sic].

It is entirely conceivable that the swift promotion of new crew members for valid reasons, as described by MM 6, may give rise to concerns about favoritism. SM 3 indicated that the system is not “100%” but the fact that promotions now go through a committee was an improvement on the “craziness” of the past. Nevertheless, there is need for additional improvements since, as MM 2 says, it “is another thing that does mek the staff leave the job” [sic].

The narrative evidence in this section, point to favoritism as the main culprit undermining the fairness of the promotion process. From the previous section, we know that the hours of work and work on holidays leave the employees little time for any studies. We also know (Chapter 2) that many of these employees failed to meet the minimum academic standards for the job. The literature has tied the provision of opportunities for career advancement to reducing turnover (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018). Therefore, it is no surprise that the inadequacies in the system for promotion make “the staff leave the job” (MM2).

This study has now identified shortcomings in the support necessary to deal with work-life conflicts and career development. Both issues can benefit from effective managerial support (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015; Asghar et al., 2018). Prima facie, this inadequacy in the managerial support was not reflected in the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire responses from the crew members. Those statistics suggested general agreement with the proposition that there is a good relationship (59.8% agreed or agreed strongly) with supervisors and that they felt supported (58.4% agreed or agreed strongly). However, 40% did not agree and this is a substantial percentage. It may not be a matter of coincidence that 40% of the crew members indicated a desire to leave in two years.

This section has additional significance as it has also connected weakness in the career development practices to turnover and, in the process, confirmed that career development is important to the non-managerial employees at CRI. This study is also concerned with the role of managerial support in moderating the relationship between customer incivility and withdrawal behaviors. This relationship will now be explored in the next section.

5.4.3 Customer Incivility

In restaurants, like most service industries, the customer is the boss and employees are expected to provide excellent service to this boss who is often guilty of rude behaviour (Han et al., 2016). This customer incivility is quite common in the restaurant sector and has been tied to the creation of turnover intention (Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017). This literature on customer incivility and its ability to create turnover intention in the restaurant sector has led to the next two research questions:

Research question 3:

What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Six of the ten middle managers cited issues with customer incivility. Han et al. (2016) posited that customers often take advantage of the knowledge that employees in quick service are subject to strict organizational policies which forces them to endure abuse from customers. MM 2 highlighted similar practices by Guyanese customers by saying:

And they does tek advantage of the, cause they know if they tell you something and you ansa them back, you could be dismissed [sic].

It was clear that interviewees dealt with the incivility in different ways. Some managers apparently converted abusive customers into “good friends”. MM 7 gave his or her own experience in his/her interview:

Because I get accustom to customer who just say negative comments. You don't gotta do them anything they would come and throw negative comments at you...the same set of customers that would come and throw negative comments at you is the same set of customers that you and them today, good friends....It does build you up in front too so I don't really take them on [sic].

MM 2 also drew upon a personal experience with a rude customer:

When I was a crew member a East Venezuelan used to come and this man used to come and just used to dash he money on the counter..... I seh "not because you're a foreigner or you don't live here, you don't have the right to just dash the money to me." He told me "customer has right" I said" yes customer has right but people need to give crew members respect and in order for you to get respect, you need to give me respect" He said "um but I just want a cone." So I said "and I just want respect" He said "okay" and after that, he used to come, he never used to want nobody else sell he but me [sic].

The narratives confirm the presence of customer incivility in the quick service sector in Guyana and this supports and extends the previous findings of Han et al. (2016) and McWilliams (2017). Customers in Guyana also seem aware of the strict guidance to crew members on the appropriate responses in the face of customer abuse, as was noted by Han et al. (2016). Sliter et al. (2012) suggested that withdrawal behaviors would increase in workplaces where there was little support. This was reinforced by Han et al. (2016) who confirmed the impact of organizational and supervisory support in reducing the effect of customer incivility on employee burnout. The second research question on customer incivility was generated from the work of Han et al. (2016) and Sliter et al. (2016):

Research question 4:

Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

There was evidence in the responses of the interviewees that managers acted to mitigate the impact of the customer incivility on the crew members, especially when turnover is being considered. MM 2 addressed this directly:

But sometimes customer might come and speak to staff anyhow and then the staff might seh I ain't accustom to this and I ain't coming back tomorrow, but then you as a supervisor, you got to tell yuh staff, look this ain't going to happen every day, you just got to know how to deal with the customer [sic].

SM 3 also turned to personal experience to present a vivid picture of the effect of customer incivility and the role of managerial support as a mitigating factor between this incivility and burnout (emotional exhaustion) or turnover intention:

I remember I had a terrible experience one day with a customer, I felt so bad I think I cried and the manager that was there; she's no longer there, she came and she said to me all of these things you does go through in life man be strong... that's all... and that's what I wanted [sic].

The ability of managers to be supportive to employees in the face of abuse surfaced in the narratives and thus reinforced the work of Sliter et al. (2012) and Han et al. (2016). Specifically, managerial support was observed being used to reduce turnover intention and emotional exhaustion.

The significance of this section is that customer incivility has been shown to create turnover intention and cause emotional exhaustion, which is a facet of employee burnout (Han et al., 2016). Second, the section has demonstrated the ability of managerial support to reduce the effects of customer incivility on both turnover intention and emotional exhaustion. Previous sections highlighted the positive role that managerial support is also likely to play in addressing issues of work-life conflicts and career development. The next section will explore the connection between managerial support and employee retention.

5.4.4 Managerial Support

This study explores employee turnover in the quick service sector under two major themes, managerial support and occupational stigma. The aim is to understand the role of these two variables in the process. Information in the context chapter (Chapter 2) pointed to work-life conflicts affecting the non-managerial employees and the need for supportive managers (O'Neill et al., 2009; Lewis, 2010; Deery and Jago, 2015; Asghar et al., 2018). Supportive managers help their employees to do the job well and are good at developing their employees (Tyman et al., 2011). The literature identifies career development and customer incivility as areas in the quick service sector where

managerial support plays a key role (Nasyira et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016). The information from the context chapter and the literature has generated the following research question:

Research Question 5:

Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?

Managerial support was first explored via quantitative analysis in this study. The results of that analysis demonstrated managerial support was positively related to employee retention in all dimensions probed. The qualitative data provided evidence to support the quantitative finding of a positive relationship between managerial support and employee retention. Four middle managers and one senior manager specifically mentioned support they received or gave and its impact. These narratives are important since they highlight the difference a supportive manager can make.

Support is the reason MM3 remained with the company:

I stayed because of the encouragement I've been getting from my previous manager. She sees things in me that I didn't even see in myself. Although she's not at our branch anymore she encourages me a lot to stay focused.

MM 1 is obviously unhappy with the state of play and wants to leave the organization. Nevertheless he/she still took the time to highlight the efforts of a new customer service representative:

...one customer service rep that they took on like lately and she does try to encourage me personally, she does try, so I will give her the A for that because a lot of times she would encourage me [sic].

There was also recognition by the managers that the encouragement and support they give to crew members helps with retention. This was a fact noted by MM 8:

I'm always the person to be encouraging my staff. I don't like to have people leaving the job and we're always short. I've never had a huge turnover in the six years.

The importance of this section is that it has replicated previous findings that there is a significant positive relationship between managerial support and an intention to remain (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al; 2017). This replication of the findings is particularly robust as the evidence adduced was derived from both quantitative and qualitative data.

The next section will examine workplace incivility, which is not an aspect of managerial support; in fact, it is the antithesis of managerial support. However, numerous narratives point to the presence of this phenomenon and a review is likely to shed light on failures to support.

5.4.5 Workplace Incivility

The restaurant sector has been identified as one where “interpersonal workplace mistreatment is common” (Miner and Eischeid, 2012, p. 4). Spence Laschinger et al. (2009) confirmed the relationship between supervisor incivility and JS, OC and turnover intention whilst Rahim and Cosby (2016) confirmed the relationship between the wider concept of workplace incivility and turnover intention in a relationship mediated by burnout. This incivility is the polar opposite of managerial support. Managerial support is developed through mutually rewarding exchanges that build trust (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano et al; 2017) and communication is well-established as an antecedent to trust (Silva et al., 2012; Khalid and Ali, 2017). Therefore, honest, clear and respectful communication with subordinates is necessary in any workplace and is critical to the supportive manager. Workplace incivility involves condescension, discourtesy, disrespect and disregard in the workplace (Miner and Eischeid, 2012). Communication that is condescending, discourteous or disrespectful amounts to incivility, violates workplace norms and undermines any attempt at supportive management. It is from this theoretical background that the next research question is formed:

Research Question 6:

What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Three senior and three middle managers raised issues related to communication among all levels at CRI. The first issue was incivility in the communication between senior managers and middle managers. This issue was raised by MM 3, who recommended change:

...I've had a few incidents as an assistant supervisor concerning the ones they are above us- the way how they speak to you, I think they need to change that because we're all humans. We do err and we do make mistakes...I think they have this way a bit controlling, their tone of voice. I think they need to change that [sic].

SM 3, on the other hand, suggested the problem affected all levels of management. MM 10 agreed with SM 3 that the problem was not limited to upper management. According to MM 10:

You gonna come in contact with supervisors that are like pigs and you're gonna come into upper management people who are worse than them....The first day a manager spoke to me and I'm trying to figure out this is the way you speak to people, like I was stunned because that's not what I expected [sic].

MM 10 also felt the crew members were “fearful, intimidated by some of the upper level management person”. MM 5 directly connected this communication issue to crew member turnover:

And sometimes the staff would feel like they're taken advantage of. Sometimes by the ones that are higher... some of us to be honest, I don't know but, we working under

different level of management and sometimes the ones that are higher.... maybe the way that they would speak to people would cause them to feel disrespected so that would cause them to leave the job as well [sic].

The turnover which results from workplace incivility ranged from a thoughtful process involving job search to impulsive quits by crew members. MM 1 attempted to describe this situation:

Some of them do quit impulsively while some of them do look for next job before they quit. Is a lot of them girls does walk away and even lef their money [sic].

This view was also supported by MM 10:

I think most of them quit impulsively... I'm not gonna tolerate somebody hollering on me or somebody talking to me anyhow... so in the moment of a situation sometimes I think that is what drives people- not to say that other persons don't think about it before but sometimes it's a build up as well [sic].

SM 3 suggested the impulsive quits are phenomena seen mainly at the lower levels of the organization.

The inference is that impulsive quits is an issue with crew members and not with management:

You come to work, I telling you this, this, this, you don't like it, you just leave...I think the part whereby people take the time, look for a job and then left is the higher level, not the lower level...You buse me out, you cuss out then you just left [sic].

One probable cause for the apparent deficiency in the communication skills could be due to promotions being made for knowledge and proficiency in restaurant operations without concern for leadership skills or ability. This was a matter of great concern to SM 5:

The persons in the restaurant they're promoting are persons who know the restaurant so we gonna always have that issue because they know the restaurant but they can't lead, so we still at the same level...But for me coaching and some training can help them to be good leaders so they could understand [sic].

This section has confirmed presence of supervisor incivility and supports the literature regarding its role in generating turnover (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Rahim and Cosby, 2016). Interestingly, the managers acknowledged their own incivility, of which all levels of management were guilty, and that such conduct led to actual turnover. There were no narratives alluding to co-worker incivility. SM 5 pointed to a deficit in leadership as part of the reason for the incivility, a deficit that was noted in Chapter 2. This section has special significance as it has confirmed the relationship between supervisor incivility and actual turnover and demonstrated the capacity of this supervisor incivility to cause impulsive resignations amongst crew members.

5.4.6 Synopsis of Findings on Managerial Support

The section replicated the previous findings that managerial support is positively related to employee retention (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). The replication was robust as it was supported by both quantitative and qualitative evidence. The presence of issues with work-life conflicts, career development (the fairness of the system for promotion) and customer incivility was detected. In each case, the narratives connected these issues to turnover intention or actual turnover, and point to a role for managerial support in resolving them and increasing retention (Kuria et al., 2012; Sliter et al., 2012; Nasyira et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Tymon et al., 2015; Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018). The section also highlighted the presence of supervisor incivility and its ability to create actual turnover, thus supporting previous research on this subject (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Rahim and Cosby, 2016). All of the findings reported thus far are important as they are now extended into a different and under-researched context. In addition to this extension of knowledge, the section also revealed the prevalence of impulsive quits which was the result of supervisor incivility. The identification of supervisor incivility at all levels of management presents a conundrum as the managers who would typically address workplace incivility are now the cause of it.

The next section will examine the role of occupational stigma (OS) in employee turnover. OS is the other major theme of this study.

5.5 Occupational Stigma

It was suggested by Guyana's Minister of Finance that educated youths have no interest in restaurant jobs (Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment, Kaieteur News, 2016). It is also a fact that educated youths are not applying for jobs at CRI. This suggests that restaurant jobs in Guyana may be stigmatized. If so, this would not be unique to Guyana (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018).

High stigma consciousness correlated negatively with an intention to remain in a restaurant job or to recommend such a job to a family member or a friend (Wildes, 2005). The study will now explore the relationship between occupational stigma and the likelihood to recommend the job to family members or friends where the work of Wildes (2005) predicted a negative relationship. This prediction generates the following research question:

Research Question 7:

Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?

The question that was put to the managers was more nuanced in the structured interviews. With a structured interview there would be no probing so it was decided to ask the managers whether they would recommend the job to their offspring. It was believed that, structured this way, a

direct answer would be forthcoming. There was precedent for probing this connection with children in the work of Wildes (2005).

Three middle managers and one senior manager stated they would not recommend the job whilst another five middle managers preferred “something better” for their children. One middle manager would recommend the job and three senior managers were open to the idea of their children working in quick service. The negative responses ranged from MM 1’s “Hell NO! Heck No!” to MM 2’s request that they look for something better:

I would tell them they need to look for something better but when you don't get what you want, you have to take what you get. And you could work in a fast food restaurant and you can still further your studies and do something better.

Middle Manager 13 was the sole middle manager who would recommend the job to family members and this was probably because he or she loved the job:

I would ask them if they sure and I wouldn't discourage them cause I love my job...where I'm working you have to come with a mindset, you gotta get a open mind to anything....I would encourage them because it's paying more than a lot of people out there and just don't do it for the money anyway, do it for the love of it [laughter] [sic].

Three of five senior managers were willing to recommend the job, albeit in a cautious manner. As SM 3 put it:

...I don't think of the fact that I like it or it has been good to me make I would recommend it just like that to somebody. I will tell you what you have to be prepared for [sic].

Correlation analysis did indicate a relationship between a few of the dimensions of stigma consciousness that were probed and LR but the relationships were so weak no inferences could be drawn. Fifty two (52%) percent of the crew members agreed or strongly agreed to recommend the job to family members or friends. Nine out of thirteen managers responded that they were unwilling to recommend the job to their children. The sharp difference in responses may be the result of the difference in the phrasing of the question. What I may be willing to recommend to a friend, I may not be willing to recommend to my child. Prima facie, the responses of the managers would suggest that occupational stigma was the reason that nine out of thirteen were unwilling to recommend the job. However, cross-matching of answers demonstrated that only five of the nine saw quick service jobs as stigmatized (that the work was degrading, workers uneducated or workers seen as slaves). On the other hand, three out of the four who were open to, or agreed to, recommend the job, saw quick service work as stigmatized. There was, therefore, no discernible pattern between those who saw the job as stigmatized and likelihood to recommend the job to a child.

The significance of this section is that it was unable to completely demonstrate, either quantitatively or qualitatively, a connection between occupational stigma and likelihood to recommend a job in quick service to a child as suggested by Wildes (2005). The next section will examine the relationship between occupational stigma and intra-group stigma.

5.5.1 Intra-group Stigma

Chefs and other members of the restaurant management team have been accused of engaging in “stigmatizing and inhuman treatment” of their subordinates (Saunders, 1981, p.208). The stigmatization of members one’s own group is referred to as intra-group stigma. Defensive othering is a concept similar to intra-group stigma. In defensive othering, members of the in-group identify with the dominant out-group (Kettrey, 2016). The key difference is that intra-group stigma does not involve identification with the out-group. Intra-group threat has been connected to disengagement (Harris, 2015) so, theoretically, intra-group stigma will result in similar disengagement. The literature on intra-group stigma now leads to the following research question:

Research Question 8:

Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?

The qualitative data was reviewed for evidence of intra- group stigma or othering. Nothing of consequence was detected to suggest that intra-group stigma was a factor at CRI. There were also very limited narratives hinting to othering and, in any event, there was no unanimity on the subject. For example, MM 9 expressed similar feelings to MM 1 who, in an obvious reference to the relationship between senior managers and all other employees, had this to offer:

Them never really had much of a relationship, so there is nothing much of a description. Because is like they does make you know from the get go, they are here and you are there [sic].

But this position was in stark contrast to the view of SM 1 who felt:

Well to me we all working with the same company and it doesn't matter what position you're in you still have to help out to wherever, whether it be a crew member, staff, manager, director they just have to work together and get the job done [sic].

SM 1 went on to give a practical example of what he/she meant:

I assist them, cook, packing orders, cleaning tables, whatever I can, sweep, mop. Not because I'm in the position I could just sit in the office I walk around and past orders. I have to assist them because I see myself just like them.

This practice of management getting their hands dirty and working together with crew members was encountered in the narratives of both middle and senior management. Four of the nine middle managers and two of the five senior managers indicated that they assist the crew members on the frontline. Assuming that two of the senior managers came from HR, this means two of three of the senior managers were willing to get their hands dirty. For example, MM 7 had this to say:

...I would fall in and I would work along with them 'cause supervisors got their work that they got to finish but I does fall in and I would work with them [sic].

The significance of this section is that there was little in the narratives to infer the presence of intra-group stigma or defensive othering. Intra-group stigma was, a priori, one possible explanation for poor patterns of communication between management and subordinates which were richly described in the narratives. However, the available evidence does not point to the presence of intra-group stigma and this lends additional credence to the earlier diagnosis of supervisor incivility as the reason for poor communications. The next section explores the role of stigma consciousness on turnover intention.

5.5.2 Stigma Consciousness and Turnover Intention

The suggestion in the context chapter that educated youths would not seek a job in the restaurant sector (Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment, Kaieteur News, 2016) was supported by the literature (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Additionally, Wildes (2005) found that restaurant workers high in stigma consciousness are unlikely to remain on the job. This combination of the context chapter and the literature (Pinel, 1999; Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Kreiner et al., 2006; Lopina et al., 2012; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018) have generated the final research question:

Research Question 9:

Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?

The correlation analysis did indicate a weak relationship between a few of the dimensions of stigma consciousness that were probed and IR. These relationships were so weak that no inferences could be drawn. Descriptive statistics from the crew member questionnaires suggested that 65% felt the public had poor images of fast food work and that 60% had difficulty seeing fast food workers as their equal. The qualitative data did provide a rich discussion of many issues related to stigma surrounding quick service work. The discussion ranged from the denial by SM 3 that condescension for quick service workers was a factor in the “society at this time”, to narratives about homophobia. The fact that SM 3, by his/her own admission, was never a crew member may have clouded his/her perception.

MM 7, along with three other middle managers, claimed that the public saw crew member jobs as “degrading”. For MM 4, it was, perhaps, the nature of the tasks performed that nurtured this view:

Well some people, when they see you working in a fast food they feel like you can't do nothing better or is like why would you want to be cleaning washrooms or cleaning tables when you could be doing something better but they say no job is degrading [sic].

The second taint resulted from the notion that quick service employees were uneducated. This view was supported by two senior and two middle managers. This belief about the lack of education of the employees in quick service even impacted the personal relationships of the crew members. MM 8 noted the difficulties that were caused by this situation:

People are gonna say because you working...at a fast food restaurant, you don't have any educational background...I've have recent incidents where people, a male, was interested in a staff of mine...He was like...people working at that restaurant don't have an education...I know people that work that are qualified but it's job availability. You can't always sit back and wait on what you want, you have to work until you get there so [sic].

There is the suggestion, in the comments made by MM 8, that whilst there are qualified employees, their tenure is due to the lack of jobs and that once the opportunity arises they may leave. Indeed, MM 10 felt that the public view of quick service jobs could lead to turnover and connected this opinion with the story of a particular employee:

I could remember one time I had a staff came and even though she was working there she saw it as a low level job and she didn't wanna open the floors and do a lot of things that were required to do and she was thinking about how people looking at it and if one of her friends come in and see her cleaning this floor or wiping this table, how she would feel [sic].

Three middle managers felt that crew members were viewed as slaves or that their jobs were sometimes seen as slavery. MM 5 and MM 6 said that some members of the public saw quick service work as a “slave camp”. This view was also supported by MM 2, who shared this impression:

Some of them is see them as nice people but then some of them does see them as slaves...So most of them is see them like slaves, like alright I can talk to she as I like or I can talk to he as I like [sic].

The workforce at CRI is overwhelmingly female (Section 2.5.5). This means that female employees have to do more lifting of heavy loads than would be the case if there were more male employees. The narratives of two senior managers suggest that homophobia may be the reason for the paucity of males. There is still significant stigma attached to homosexuality, so this is likely to affect recruitment and retention of males. SM 1 said when “people see males working they say “oh God that’s a fish” [Fish is local slang for a gay person], the assumption being that only gay men will work in quick service. This view was confirmed by SM 5 who commented as follows:

We don't get males in the restaurant because males, they tend to think that only homosexuals would be in the restaurants and that is not so we have guys there and they never came out to say that or whatever [sic].

There was evidence of normalization in the narratives of four middle managers and two senior managers. The efforts to normalize were primarily a refocus on non-stigmatized aspects of the job such as benefits and the love of the job. For SM 2 it was the benefits as “*no work defiles and we have benefits there just like other public sectors*” whilst for MM 8 it was the love of the job:

I'm there because I love my job, I can have another option. I started as a crew member also but I love my job. It pays well. It's reasonable compared to a lot of other jobs. It's an honest living. Why would you want to look at somebody differently because they're working in a fast food environment?

The same sentiments were expressed less eloquently by MM 9:

Some people does seh you can't do better...If you love cooking you ga find yourself in a cooking area....that's where you will be comfortable cause that's what you love [sic].

MM 6 did recalibrate by highlighting the fact his or her job could be equated with the jobs of those who sit in an office:

I don't think people should criticize fast food restaurants. Not because you're not wearing a suit and tie but you still have responsibilities. You still gotta make sure the people cook food properly because I think we are important as everybody else [sic].

This section failed to replicate Wildes’ (2005) findings of a negative relationship between high stigma consciousness and an intention to remain. However, the qualitative data did suggest that the public viewed the jobs of crew members as degrading. The public also saw crew members as uneducated (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018) and tainted by a perception of servitude (Wildes, 2005; Ellingson et al., 2016). This servitude perception was extreme to the point of comparing quick service work to slavery. The work of Hinds (2006) had suggested that resentment to serving foreigners remained amongst the descendants of ex-slaves in Barbados. The foregoing narratives extend this resentment beyond serving foreigners to cover certain occupations. Finally, the finding that males working in quick service suffered from the stigma attached to homosexuality was totally unexpected and may partially explain the imbalance between males and females at CRI.

Several studies found that stigmatized employees will attempt to normalize their jobs through reframing, recalibrating and refocusing (Ashforth et al., 2007; Lopina et al., 2011; Shantz and Booth, 2014). Evidence was found of such attempts at normalization. The main efforts to normalize were a refocus on non-stigmatized aspects of the job such as benefits and the love of the job (Shigihara, 2018). These attempts at normalization support the view of quick service work as stigmatized.

The significance of this section is that it failed to replicate the findings of Wildes (2005) which identifies a relationship between high stigma consciousness and turnover intention in the restaurant sector in a different context. There was evidence in the qualitative data which was provided by the managers to show that members of the public saw the job as stigmatized even though this was never really connected to turnover or turnover intent. There was also weak statistical evidence to support the qualitative finding of the public view. This raises questions as to why there was no connection to turnover intent. It may be that, notwithstanding the rich narratives, the stigma surrounding quick service work is dilute (Kreiner et al., 2006). However, it is quite hard to equate accusations about slavery, lack of education, degrading work and homosexuality as diluted. A more plausible explanation might be that the job does not threaten the social identity of the crew members (Lopina et al., 2012). This suggests that some potential recruits, whose social identity will be threatened by a job in quick service, never apply.

The section had two unique contributions. One, it has provided evidence that resentment toward quick service work may be a residual effect of slavery, thus extending the work of Hinds (2006) and, second, it has unearthed a connection between the stigma of homosexuality and males employed in the quick service sector.

5.5.3 Synopsis of Findings on Occupational Stigma

Several aspects of stigma were uncovered in the narratives of the managers at CRI. This finding of stigma was an unsurprising result as crew member responses to the questionnaire and subsequent correlation analysis did point to a concern with the public view of quick service work. Narratives from the interviews suggested the public viewed the work as degrading, similar to slavery and that the crew members were uneducated. There was also a claim that the stigma of homosexuality was associated with male crew members. However, there was little to connect stigma to turnover. There was also little to connect stigma to any unwillingness to recommend the job to their children. The inability to connect stigma to turnover or a willingness to recommend the job meant this study was unable to reproduce the findings of Wildes (2005). Intra-group stigma had held some promise as a possible explanation for the rude behavior of the managers. The absence of evidence in this regard made the alternative explanation of supervisor incivility more plausible.

Apart from the failure to replicate the connection between high stigma consciousness and IR/LR (Wildes, 2005), the study did support previous literature findings which suggested that quick service work is degrading and that the workers are uneducated (Wildes 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Social identity theory holds promise as a possible explanation for the failure to connect occupational stigma to turnover in this study (Lopina et al., 2012). It may be that quick service work is not devaluing to the social identity of those who apply and are hired. The section also expands the literature on occupational stigma by identifying perceptions of slavery surrounding quick service work in Guyana. This finding goes deeper than the perception of servitude previously noted in the restaurant sector (Wildes, 2005; Nasyira, 2014). Additionally,

there were previously undocumented perceptions of homosexuality surrounding males employed in quick service. This finding may explain, in part, the scarcity of males in the employ of CRI.

The next section will discuss the emergent themes which were not the focus of this study but were detected in the qualitative analysis and hold promise as additional explanations for employee turnover at CRI.

5.6 Emergent Issues

The thematic analysis yielded themes that were not the focus of this study, but they were not beyond the realm of theoretical deduction. Workload, stress and working conditions were the three themes of consequence. In a study executed in the quick service sector, Moon and Song (2019) identified workload as a key antecedent of stress. This finding supported the results of a study of Japanese restaurants by Bakhtiar et al. (2016) that workload was a key component of stress, which was positively, but weakly, related to turnover intention. Working conditions is comprehensive term covering, inter alia, hours of work, staff shortages, workload and difficult customers (Poulston, 2009). All of these points are covered separately in this study. However, two specific issues emerged that were not previously addressed. These issues were the cook station and air conditioning. These two issues are addressed under the theme of working conditions. The three emergent themes are discussed together below:

5.6.1 Workload and Stress

Workload

Workload /Staff shortages were mentioned by five middle managers and one senior manager out of the fifteen managers interviewed. These shortages meant crew members had to engage in overtime work. MM 8 indicated that the staff shortages led to turnover:

Most times people quit cause sometimes it's the workload. Presently, most of our locations are short staffed. Well mine's being one of them so the workload is extra. Most people feel like they're being pressured and not being paid enough for the amount of extra work that they're doing so sometimes they quit [sic].

MM 6 shared a similar opinion:

...you know when you working you gotta work over time and they might come one day, two day, we gon flex but you can't do it every day...some of them does just quit... well if I can't get what I want it ain't mek no sense I stay [sic].

Whilst overtime meant a higher rate of pay, this would not be attractive to the single parent who did not have adequate arrangements in place for childcare. The demand for overtime work was such a source of tension that it was causing turnover.

The shortage of males in the workforce increased the workload, as this meant the women had to undertake much of the heavy lifting that would normally be assigned to the men. MM 6 saw this issue as the biggest problem:

...well we're all women there and in terms of the work and the station, the cook station... They have to be cooking and the freezer. A lot of them complain about that....the truck coming and you're not getting males to come and off load the chickens and them thing. That's the biggest problem that most of the staff face there [sic].

Stress

Three out of five senior managers and four out of ten middle managers felt the job was stressful. This meant a total of seven out of fifteen managers felt the job of the crew members was stressful. When asked about methods of assisting the crew members to cope with stress, the majority of responses centered on helping to make the job physically easier. A few interviewees, such as SM 3, also spoke about giving encouragement:

I give them my support.... in every way, physically, encouraging them, working along with them...it's our job to encourage them and make them more stronger... it's a damn stressful job; it's not easy.

SM 5 saw the middle managers as the primary source of stress and sought to reassure crew members that the policies of the company will protect them. SM 5 had previously (Workplace Incivility Section 5.4.5) alluded to a deficit in leadership skills. The comments below point to the middle managers as the source of stress. SM 5 developed a practice of visiting the supervisors to discuss the issues and, in so doing, reassured the crew members that they were not without representation:

What challenge they come to you with? Most times it's about the supervisor...we say look there is a reason you're here to do what you have to do, nobody can't remove you from your job, so you stand firm, follow the guidelines, the rules, the policies...So I reassure them by telling them I will meet with the supervisor....If they see me come to the supervisors they feel a bit more...somewhat because they feel like somebody is there for them [sic].

5.6.2 Working Conditions

Ryan et al. (2011) and Kuria et al. (2012) identified poor working conditions as an antecedent to turnover intentions. A comfortable room temperature has long been considered an important factor for employees to perform. Guyana is a tropical country thus proper air conditioning would be necessary in the restaurants since the fryers can produce overwhelming heat. Two middle managers and one senior manager felt air conditioning was a problem. MM 3 saw inadequate air conditioning as a challenge to crew members that resulted in resignations:

Maybe I think due to the heat because we have a AC but the AC is not pushing as much cold breeze as we expect it to. Because I've been promoted just a few months ago and due to the same heat that's what caused me to get the flu [sic].

This was a complaint repeated by MM 11 and SM 5, who said *“the AC's are not working, sometimes the staff is under strain to work under conditions like that” [sic].*

The cook station (chicken fryers) was a challenge mentioned by three middle managers. MM 3, linked turnover amongst new crew members partially to their difficulties in mastering the cook station:

I think the crew members would find it a bit difficult especially at the cook station, you would find that most of them find it a bit challenging and some of them wouldn't stay as long as we expect that they would.

The significance of this section (5.6) is, first, the connection of two related concepts, workload and stress, to actual turnover. Several studies previously connected stress to turnover intention (Budwhar et al., 2009; De Tienne et al., 2012; Bakhtiar et al., 2016). Bakhtiar et al. (2016) found a weak relationship between stress and turnover intention but this finding may be limited to the Japanese restaurant sector. Strong narratives indicate that workload creates turnover at CRI and workload is a known antecedent of stress (Bakhtiar et al., 2016; Moon and Song, 2019). The emergence of these two themes suggests that stress and its antecedents, including workload, may provide fertile ground for future turnover research in the quick service sector.

The section also unearthed two new challenges which negatively impact working conditions. Poor working conditions have been connected to creation of turnover intentions (Ryan et al., 2011; Kuria et al., 2012). These findings highlight the power of qualitative research to diagnose issues in the field of business. Addressing these two issues, one of which was connected to turnover in the narratives, will aid in improving working conditions for the crew members.

The next section will present the conclusions of the chapter.

5.7 Summary

This study has as its aim, an exploration into the role of managerial support and occupational stigma in the turnover process in the quick service sector. In order to provide clarity, a number of research questions, with origins in the context and literature, were generated. This section will present each research question then review the evidence from the literature and this study in order to provide answers to these questions. Those answers will provide the foundation for a model of the operation of the key themes of this study. The issues identified during the study will be the basis of the recommendations of the study which will be addressed in Chapter 6.

5.7.1 Research Question 2: What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Roughly fifty percent (50%) of the workforce of CRI were single parents with serious work-life conflicts. Work-life conflict has been identified as an antecedent to turnover intentions (Deery, 2008; Suifan et al., 2016). Numerous narratives confirmed the presence of work-life conflicts and that these conflicts led to the turnover. These narratives are the foundation for a finding that work-life conflicts impact the parental responsibilities and personal relationships of crew members negatively and lead to turnover, thus supporting the previous findings of Deery (2008) and Suifan et al. (2016).

5.7.2 Research Question 3: How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

The literature has suggested that work in the restaurant sector is viewed as a stopgap to better jobs (Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2018) and that providing opportunities for career development will increase retention (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018). However, the facts at CRI show that in excess of 50% of the non-managerial employees lack the minimum educational requirements for employment. The statistical analysis indicated that long tenure correlated negatively with likelihood to recommend the job and an intention to remain. This suggested that those employees were frustrated about their lack of promotion. The descriptive statistics pointed to issues with the system for promotion, as 32.4% of informants felt the system was fair and 50.3% disagreed with this view. The narratives of the managers confirmed crew members' concern and identified favoritism as the main issue. Combining the descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and narratives, it can be inferred from the concern with the system for promotions that career development is important for the non-managerial workers in quick service. This conclusion supports existing literature (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018).

5.7.3 Research Question 4: What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Incivility is common in restaurants and has been connected to the creation of turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion (Han et al, 2016., McWilliams, 2017). Strict rules govern how restaurant employees should deal with incivility and customers often take advantage of the restrictions imposed by these rules (Han et al., 2016). The narratives indicate similar understanding and behavior by CRI customers and demonstrated that this customer incivility causes emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions among staff. The findings of Han et al. (2016) and McWilliams (2017) were supported.

5.7.4 Research Question 5: Would effective managerial support mitigate the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

Supportive management can mitigate the effects of customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). The narratives revealed the presence of customer incivility and demonstrated that managerial support may mitigate the impact of customer incivility on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions. The findings of Sliter et al. (2012) and Han et al. (2016) were supported.

5.7.5 Research Question 1: Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?

It was established in the background to this study that CRI was experiencing high employee turnover. Whilst the rate of turnover for crew members had declined in recent years, it never fell below 64% and increased to 88% in 2019. The literature has established a significant positive relationship between managerial support and employee retention (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). This study found statistically significant relationships between all dimensions of managerial support that were probed and an intention to remain. The narratives from the interviews confirmed that managerial support aids in the retention of quick service employees. The literature and evidence support the finding of a positive association between managerial support and employee retention in the quick service sector, thus reinforcing the existing literature (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017).

5.7.6 Research Question 6: What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

The restaurant sector is one where workplace incivility is common (Miner and Eischeid, 2012). This workplace incivility has been connected to increased turnover intentions (Spence Laschinger, 2009; Rahim and Cosby, 2016). Numerous instances of workplace incivility emanating from all levels of management surfaced in the interviews. These narratives connected this supervisor incivility to turnover intention and impulsive resignations. The finding of this study support and extend the extant literature (Spence Laschinger, 2009; Rahim and Cosby, 2016).

5.7.7 Research Question 8: Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?

Wildes (2005) suggested that employees high in stigma consciousness will not recommend the job to a friend or family member. The descriptive statistics indicated that 52.3% of crew members would recommend the job to a friend or family member whilst 35.3% would not. Correlation analysis was executed between nine dimensions of stigma consciousness and LR. Two out of the nine dimensions correlated with weak coefficients. A review of the narratives revealed that stigma was a concern for five out of nine managers unwilling to recommend the job and it was a concern for three out of the four willing to recommend it. With no clear pattern, a relationship between high stigma consciousness and the likelihood to recommend the job to a family member could not be confirmed and the finding of Wildes (2005) was unsupported.

5.7.8 Research Question 9: Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?

The literature suggests that managers in restaurants engage in “stigmatizing” (Saunders, 1981, p. 208) treatment of subordinates and that such treatment may lead to disengagement (Saunders, 1981; Harris, 2015). The literature, therefore, generated the research question. Intra-group stigma was probed through two questions. The first question asked the managers whether they saw their jobs as better, or worse, than that of the crew members. The second question asked whether they socialized with their subordinates. There was nothing in their answers to suggest that managers differentiated or distanced themselves from subordinates. No finding of intra-group stigma could be inferred and the observations of Saunders (1981) could not be supported as essential aspects of stigma were missing.

5.7.9 Research Question 7: Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?

CRI is failing to attract educated youths. This has resulted in a situation where more than 50% of the non-managerial employees lack the minimum educational requirements for employment. One possible explanation for this is that quick service work in Guyana is stigmatized. The extant literature suggests that jobs in the restaurant sector are indeed stigmatized (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Wildes, 2007; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). The work of Wildes (2005) suggests that employees high in stigma consciousness will not only leave the job but will not recommend it. The research question was generated from this combination of context and literature. The descriptive statistics suggested the crew members had concerns with the way the public viewed quick service. Correlation analysis between stigma consciousness and LR/IR provided very limited support, as only a few dimensions of stigma consciousness correlated with weak coefficients. The narratives were rich and suggested that the public viewed quick service jobs as slavery and degrading whilst the workers were viewed as uneducated. Male employees were also affected by the stigma of homosexuality. Notwithstanding the rich descriptions of stigma, there was nothing

to connect stigma to turnover. Without quantitative or qualitative support, the findings of Wildes (2005) were again unsupported.

5.7.10 Role of Managerial Support

Table 5.12 below connects the study from context to literature to research question to research answers and then to key contributions. Managerial support is connected to all of the research questions in this table.

Table 5.12: Role of Managerial Support

Context	Literature		Research Question	Answers	Key Findings
Work-Life Conflict	Employee Turnover	Managerial Support	Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?	Managerial support is associated with an intention to remain.	
		Work-Life Conflicts	What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Work-life conflict is associated with employee turnover.	
		Career Development	How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Career development is associated with an intention to remain	
Customer Incivility		What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Customer incivility causes emotional exhaustion and creates turnover intention.		
		Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Managerial support may mitigate the effects of customer incivility on turnover intentions.		
Management Training	Workplace Incivility	What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Supervisor incivility is associated with employee turnover.	Supervisor incivility is associated with impulsive quits.	

Section 5.4.1 highlighted the role of managerial support in mitigating the effect of work-life conflicts (Asghar et al., 2018). Evidence from section 5.4.2 revealed that managerial support was important for the career development of employees (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015). In section 5.4.3 a mitigating role for managerial support on the effects of customer incivility was identified. This finding also supported the existing literature (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). This broad sweeping role of managerial support will therefore be incorporated into the theoretical model in chapter 6.

5.7.11 Role of Occupational Stigma

This study was unable to support the role of occupational stigma in the turnover process (Wildes, 2005; Harris, 2015). Table 5.13 below connects the theme of occupational stigma from context to literature to research question to research answers and then to key contributions.

Table 5.13 Role of Occupational Stigma.

Context	Literature		Research Question	Answers	Key Findings
Occupational Stigma	Employee Turnover	Occupational Stigma	Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?	The relationship between high stigma consciousness and turnover intention was not supported.	Quick service work in Guyana may be tainted by perceptions of slavery.
			Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?	The relationship between high stigma consciousness and a likelihood to recommend the job was not supported	Males working in the quick service sector in Guyana may be tainted by the stigma of homosexuality Supported the extant literature that quick service work is stigmatized and that there is a perception that the workers are uneducated (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018).
		Intra-group stigma	Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?	No differentiation based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs was observed between managers and crew members	

Notwithstanding the failure to connect occupational stigma to turnover intent, the study supported previous findings that restaurant work is stigmatized and, in so doing, expanded this theory to a new geographical context (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). The study identified a novel perception of slavery surrounding quick service work. This finding goes deeper than the perception of servitude previously noted in the restaurant sector (Wildes, 2005; Nasaira, 2014) and provides new ground for occupational research in countries with

a history of slavery. The study also recognized previously undocumented perceptions of homosexuality surrounding males employed in quick service.

This section has demonstrated how the study has thoroughly explored the roles of managerial support and occupational stigma in the turnover process. These roles were probed via a wide range of research questions, all of which have been answered. The next Chapter will detail how the study has achieved its aims and objectives; provide its contributions to theory and practice; identify limitations and suggest areas for future research.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the contributions of this study to the theory on employee turnover and to human resource management practice in the hospitality sector. These contributions are based on the findings and analysis detailed in the previous chapter.

In Section 6.2, the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1 are reviewed to determine the degree to which they have been achieved in this study. The contributions of this study to knowledge are itemized in Section 6.3. These contributions are twofold. Firstly, the study extends aspects of the extant theory on employee turnover to a new geographical context. Second, it highlighted the prevalence, in the quick service sector, of impulsive quits resulting from supervisor incivility. These impulsive quits often occur outside of the traditional path “of acquiring job offers before leaving” (Hom et al., 2017, p. 534). It has also identified perceptions of slavery surrounding quick service work and the stigma of homosexuality in relation to males in quick service. These three unique contributions offer fertile ground for future research. The study’s contributions to practice are offered in Section 6.4. The main contribution to practice is a retention toolkit. The retention toolkit is aimed at combining human resource systems/practices with the development, through training, of CRI’s human capital. This synergistic combination, based on RBV’s VRIO framework, is designed to improve customer service, enhance firm performance, achieve inimitability and deliver a SCA to CRI (Barney and Wright, 1998; Kacmar et al., 2006; Barney and Mackey, 2016; Delery and Roumpi, 2017; Paauwe and Boon, 2018). The Final Thoughts of Section 6.5 offer the author’s suggestions for future research, views on the transferability of the findings and reflections on the journey through this study.

The study is predicated upon the potential growth in Guyana’s new ‘oil’ economy because this will be the context within which CRI must find creative ways of addressing the twin challenges of recruitment and retention. Rapid macroeconomic growth, rising public sector wages and increased competition will have negative effects on retention. Turnover of non-managerial employees is already rising, and this turnover has been tied to declining customer service. (Kacmar et al., 2006; Hausknecht et al., 2009; Burch and Holtom, 2015). Developing a sustainable competitive advantage in this scenario requires a strategy and it is argued that such a strategy starts with human resources (Paauwe and Boon, 2018). The training of managers and other aspects of the retention toolkit have the potential to lower turnover at CRI, improve customer service and, therefore, enhance firm performance (Allen and Bryant, 2012).

6.2 Research Objectives

This section presents the three research objectives identified in Chapter 1 and traces the study's progress towards each objective from the context through the literature review to the data analysis and, finally, to contributions to knowledge/practice. Details of the research objectives and the achievements of this study now follow.

6.2.1 Research Objective 1: To Examine the Role of Managerial Support in the Employee Turnover Process

The first research objective was achieved and managerial support was found to have a strong association with retention. The context, literature and findings were all used as inputs for the creation of a Retention Toolkit that will be employed to improve human resource management systems/practises and to train the managers at CRI. The findings also confirmed and expanded the extant literature.

The context chapter highlighted the fact that almost 50% of the employees directly involved in the restaurants identified as single parents. Quick service work at CRI involves shift work with little flexibility. This suggested work-life conflicts needed to be addressed by supportive management. A review of the training offered to managers revealed that there was an operational focus to most of the programs. These programs were lacking in a soft skills component necessary to develop supportive managers (Chapter 2).

This information provided by the context chapter prompted searches on employee turnover, managerial support and work-life conflicts. The results of this search confirmed the role of work-life conflicts in turnover and surfaced other factors pertinent to the quick service sector. Work-life balance/conflicts (Deery, 2008; Deery and Jago, 2015), career development/career success (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018), customer incivility (Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017) and workplace incivility (Pearson and Porath, 2005; Spence Laschinger, 2009; Rahim and Cosby, 2016) were all identified as issues that create turnover intentions. Managerial support buffers the relationship between turnover intention and work-life conflicts (Suifan et al., 2016; Asghar et al., 2018), career development (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015) and customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). The context and literature then generated the following six research questions:

- What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?
- How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?
- What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?
- Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

- Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?
- What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?

The non-managerial employees of CRI responded to questionnaires whilst the managers shared their views via structured interviews. The resultant data was analyzed and each research question was answered. Work-life conflict, issues with career development, customer incivility and workplace incivility, namely supervisor incivility, were all identified as either causing turnover or creating turnover intentions.

6.2.2 Research Objective 2: To Examine the Role of Occupational Stigma in The Employee Turnover Process.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative responses to the three stigma-related questions was unable to support the findings of Wildes (2005) or Saunders (1981) and, thus, the study only partially achieved the second objective.

CRI is experiencing problems recruiting qualified candidates for its crew member positions. Information in the public domain suggests that educated youths are uninterested in restaurant work. ("Finance Minister touts innovative ideas to reduce youth unemployment", *Kaieteur News*, 2016). The stigmatization of restaurant work is established in the literature (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). Employees are seen as uneducated (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018) and there is a 'perception of servitude' surrounding restaurant work. Wildes (2005) found that workers high in stigma consciousness will leave the job and are unlikely to recommend the job to a family member or a friend. Saunders (1981) highlighted 'stigmatizing treatment' of frontline workers by managers in restaurants (Saunders, 1981; Holland, 2019). Saunders' (1981) finding suggests the operation of intra-group stigma (Gunn and Canada, 2015; Harris, 2015). The information from the context and the literature generated the following three research questions:

- Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?
- Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?
- Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?

The study did identify public perceptions that quick service work is degrading and that the workers are uneducated (Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018). The study also identified perceptions of slavery surrounding quick service work and the stigma of homosexuality in relation to males employed in the sector. In both cases, the body of knowledge was expanded. It is likely that the stigmas identified are impacting recruitment and this may be the reason CRI is unable to attract qualified applicants.

6.2.3 Research Objective 3: To Make Recommendations for Increasing Employee Retention.

The study identified the drivers of turnover and the skills gap of the managers and used these findings to develop a framework, the Retention Toolkit, designed to enhance the skillset of the managers at CRI. The third research objective was achieved with the development of the Retention Toolkit and recommendations for increasing employee retention.

The rate of employee turnover increased from 64% in 2018 to 88% in 2019. A stubbornly high rate of turnover with concomitant effects on customer service and firm performance were the prompts for this study. The quantitative and qualitative data analysis highlighted a positive role for managerial support in employee retention. This finding supported the existing literature (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al; 2017).

Analysis of the data on the sub-themes of work-life conflict, career development, customer incivility and workplace incivility highlighted, inter alia, conflicts between work on the one hand, and personal and parental responsibilities on the other. Favoritism with promotions and supervisor incivility were some of the other key factors driving turnover amongst non-managerial employees. However, the current curricula for manager training at CRI has failed to address any of these issues.

6.3 Contribution to knowledge

This section presents the contributions of this study to knowledge. In addition to its pragmatic focus on problem solving, this study is also important as there was no published research in Guyana on this topic.

6.3.1 Geographic Extension of Knowledge

The study contributed to the knowledge base on employee turnover by extending previously accepted theories to Guyana and the wider Caricom area with which we share physical proximity.

Previous research had connected managerial support to improved retention and also identified it as a mediator of the relationship between customer incivility and turnover intention. This study confirmed the relationship between managerial support and retention, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Many studies have demonstrated a correlation between incivility and withdrawal behaviors (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017). This study has, in a similar vein, also connected both customer incivility and supervisor incivility to turnover. The study identified elements of occupational stigma at work in the quick service sector in Guyana but was unable to connect stigma consciousness to an intention to leave. The geographic extensions, to the knowledge base, of this study are identified and enumerated below:

1. Managerial Support - Managerial support is positively associated with employee retention in the quick service sector (Tymon et al., 2012; Alias et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017).

2. Managerial Support - Support with career development is important for the retention of non-managerial workers in quick service (Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2018; Zopiatis et al., 2018).
3. Managerial Support - Managerial support may mitigate the impact of customer incivility on emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016).
4. Work-Life Conflicts - Work-life conflicts lead to turnover (Deery, 2008; Suifan et al., 2016).
5. Customer Incivility - Customer incivility causes emotional exhaustion and creates turnover intentions (Han et al., 2016; McWilliams, 2017).
6. Workplace Incivility - Supervisor incivility is associated with turnover intention (Spence Laschinger et al., 2009).
7. Occupational Stigma - Stigmatization of restaurant work (Saunders, 1981; Wildes, 2005; Shigihara, 2015; Shigihara, 2018).

6.3.2 Key Contributions

This study has expanded the knowledge base with three unique contributions. First, this study, of the quick service sector, detected several incidences of impulsive quits resulting from supervisor incivility. Whilst the literature addresses the phenomenon of impulsive quits (Maertz and Campion, 2004, Hom et al., 2012; Hom et al., 2017), the seemingly high frequency of such departures warrant further research into this phenomenon.

Second, the study utilized the previous work of Wildes (2005) and Hinds (2006) to demonstrate a lingering resentment toward restaurant work in countries with a history of slavery. Hinds (2006) had suggested that a resentment to serving foreigners remained amongst the descendants of ex-slaves in Barbados whilst Wildes (2005) had indicated that restaurant jobs are affected by a perception of servitude. The perceptions of slavery surrounding quick service work in Guyana runs deeper than the stigma identified by Wildes (2005). There is no known work on perceptions of slavery affecting quick service work. In fact, this perception of slavery is potentially a rich vein for occupational studies in countries with a history of slavery.

Third, the narratives also suggested that the stigma of homosexuality can be assigned to males working in quick service. The workforce at CRI is over ninety percent (90%) female. The presence of the stigma of homosexuality may explain, in part, the dearth of male employees. Here again, this study broke new ground as no articles connecting male quick service employees to homosexuality were found.

6.3.3 Development of Conceptual Model for Employee Turnover in Quick Service

Aspects of the geographic extensions to knowledge and the key contributions were combined to create a model of the employee turnover process shown in Figure 6.1 below:

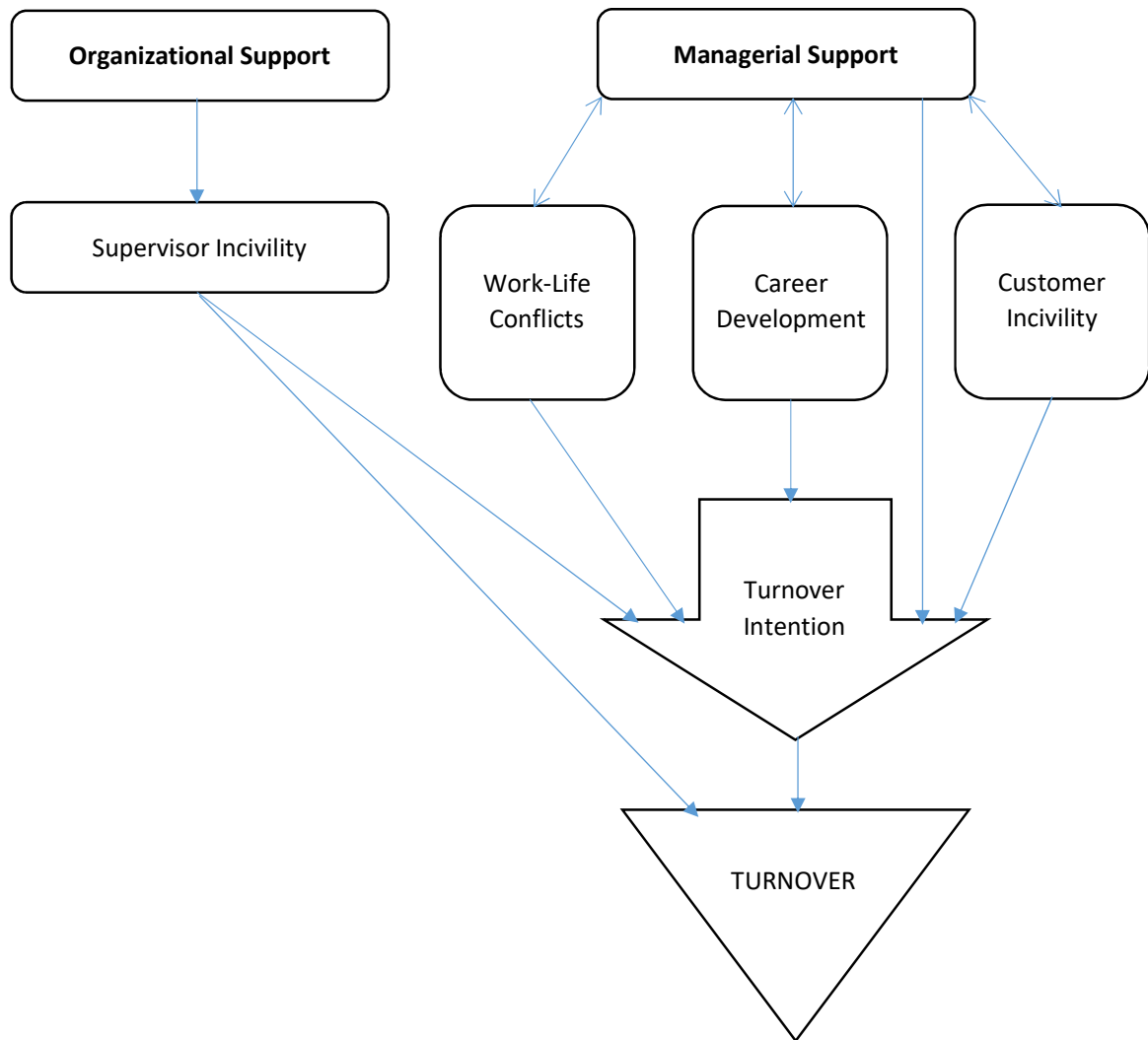


Figure 6.1: Model Of Employee Turnover In The Quick Service Sector In Guyana

In this model, Supervisor Incivility (SI), Work-Life Conflicts (WLC), Career Development (CD) and Customer Incivility (CI) are shown to be associated with Turnover Intention in accordance with the findings of this study. Managerial Support (MS) is shown as a mediating variable since, as described in the narratives, it can influence the relationship between WLC, CD and CI on one hand and TI on the other.

Theoretically, one would expect the managers to address incivility in the workplace. However, the narratives demonstrated that all levels of management are complicit in this pervasive and destructive behavior. The supervisor incivility described actually led, in some cases, to impulsive resignations, which violate the traditional cognitive pathway of turnover intentions then turnover. This incivility is a cultural and systemic issue for CRI that is now beyond the managers, and it demands an organizational response, as shown in the model.

6.3.4 Juxtaposing the Conceptual and final Model

The Conceptual Model (CM) is based on managerial support and occupational stigma, the two major themes of the study. Within that model, managerial support is able to reduce work-life conflicts (Travaglione et al., 2017) and customer incivility (Sliter et al., 2012; Han et al., 2016). Managerial support will also be able to assist in advancing career development (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015). Supervisor incivility is considered the polar opposite of managerial support since this suggests that incivility is emanating from sources expected to be supportive. The presence of work-life conflicts, customer incivility, supervisor incivility, occupational stigma and intra-group stigma are all likely to create turnover intention and turnover (Pearson and Porath, 2005; Wildes, 2005; Spence Laschinger et al., 2009; Sliter et al., 2012; Deery and Jago, 2015; Han et al., 2016; Asghar et al., 2018), whilst unsupportive managers and poor plans/policies for career development will also increase turnover intentions (Tymon et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015).

Having conducted both quantitative and qualitative analyses, the relationship between occupational and intra-group stigma, on the one hand, and turnover intention, on the other, could not be proven and these two variables have been eliminated from the final Model. The relationships between managerial support, work-life conflicts, career development, customer incivility and workplace incivility (i.e. supervisor incivility) on the one hand and turnover intention, on the other, were all confirmed. Additionally, numerous narratives suggest high incidences of impulsive quits and this led to the addition of a direct pathway between supervisor incivility and turnover (Maertz and Campion, 2004, Hom et al., 2012). This final Model includes organizational support as the required mechanism for addressing supervisor incivility.

6.4 Contributions to Practice

This study has made three contributions to practice. First, this section provides several recommendations (sub-section 6.4.1) to the management of CRI to increase retention.

Second, the study has developed a framework for lowering turnover, The Retention Toolkit, which has its origin in the information presented in Chapter 2. It was highlighted in that chapter that the current training of the managers at CRI omitted much of the soft skills training necessary to deal with a workforce for whom work-life conflicts were rife. The VRIO framework, the findings of this study that SI, WLC, CD and CI are impacting turnover negatively, and the recommendations of this study form the basis of the curricula for the Retention Toolkit.

Third, unique insights into the turnover process generated in this study may be applicable to other operators in the quick service sector. The rigorous analysis used may also be a template for these operators to utilize in diagnosing their own turnover problems. The findings of this study could also be applicable to other occupations such as cleaners, carers, higher end restaurant, security and call center staff. Future studies, using the findings of this study as a base, should target workers in the quick service, restaurant and hospitality sectors in Guyana and the wider English-speaking Caribbean, where the hospitality industry has a very significant role.

6.4.1 Recommendations for Practice

This study has demonstrated the usefulness of research on turnover intention. Literature supports its use as a measure of management practices (Hurley and Estelami, 2007; Khatri et al., 2001). The findings of this study identified a gap in the training of managers at CRI. This has led to a recommendation for a continuous training regime based heavily on soft skills training. The modules for this training program are identified in Figure 6.2. It is envisaged that this training program will be continuously updated based on feedback from the training program itself, confidential reports on supervisor incivility, exit interviews, the mentorship program, the measurement of withdrawal behaviors, the 360 degree appraisals and the annual employee surveys.

The presence of incivility, especially supervisor incivility, triggers visions of high absenteeism and tardiness. Therefore, management should measure and cost the entire range of withdrawal behaviors from turnover to absenteeism to tardiness on a regular basis, both cumulatively and by each manager. Managers who are able to achieve set retention targets should receive additional compensation.

CRI should, in keeping with the decent work agenda, develop systems that will give voice to the employees, crew members in particular, thus allowing them to participate in decision-making about matters regarding their work and its impact on their lives (Hirschman, 1970; Spencer, 1986; Lam et al., 2016). Systems that give voice to the employees should specifically facilitate, inter alia, the anonymous reporting of acts of incivility with some form of reprimand – e.g., formal disciplinary

action - being administered to offenders. Exit interviews conducted by independent third parties, may also provide useful feedback. Appraisals of 360 degrees, which require feedback from subordinates, will help to identify the weak managers. Finally, annual employee surveys will not only give voice to the employees but will assess their level of engagement and identify emerging areas of concern.

Consideration should be given to the introduction of Family-Friendly Work Practices (FFWPs). The provision of FFWPs, such as childcare and flexible work/leave arrangements, rests on social exchange theory. Employees availing themselves of such benefits are likely to reciprocate with increased commitment (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Ko et al., 2013).

CRI should consider providing reimbursement for employees participating in remedial education programs. Such a policy would likely improve normative commitment to the organization (Emhan, 2012) and reduce turnover intention. Such a policy also advances the decent work agenda by improving “prospects for personal development and social integration” (Decent Work, 2020, p. 1). A system for mentoring the non-managerial employees to set career goals, discuss issues and to provide feedback and guidance will also increase employee engagement and likely reduce turnover (Tymon et al., 2011; Allen and Bryant, 2012; Aguenza and Som, 2012; Kang et al., 2015; Zopiatis et al., 2018).

Fairness in the system for promotions is also an area of concern. There is an obvious need for increased transparency in the process. An internal job market, where promotional opportunities are advertised, with applicants interviewed and ranked by a panel, will help to reduce the accusations of favoritism.

The findings suggest that the public views quick service work as stigmatized. This demands public communications from CRI to highlight the positive contributions of quick service to the society and the potential for career advancement in the industry. This communication should also emphasize the positive benefits of working for the company to offset the attractiveness (pull factors) of other competitors in the labor market (Budwhar et al., 2009). Such an initiative should also help in CRI’s recruitment strategy. Video vignettes featuring employees’ positive experiences of working with CRI – especially those who have work-life balance conflicts and male employees – can be produced and placed on the company’s social media site and used for targeted recruitment campaigns.

The literature and this study highlight the role of managers in mitigating the impact of customer incivility. Since these incidents are common, operations managers, both middle and senior managers, should coordinate schedules to ensure a continuous presence on the frontline. This will enable them to quickly intercede in potentially volatile situations to reduce service issues and employee burnout (Sliter, 2012; Walker et al., 2014; Han et al., 2015). Management may wish to consider in-store messages to remind customers that the employees are there to serve them with warmth and respect and that they expect the same in return.

The Occupational Health and Safety Act 1997 (Chapter 99:06) requires the establishment of safety committees in all workplaces to ensure a safe working environment for all employees. The Decent Work and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2020) and the Guyana Decent Work Country Programme 2017 to 2021 (2017) have reiterated the importance of safe workplaces. CRI should move, post-haste, to establish the required safety committee to ensure that issues concerning employee safety are discussed and addressed.

Social identity theory suggests that employees will attach to organizations which improve their self-image. The target organization should, therefore, strategically plan a number of community development projects as part of its corporate social responsibility efforts (Shantz and Booth, 2014). These efforts will improve the corporate image and, in the process, employee pride.

6.4.2 Retention Toolkit

Figure 6.2 below is the author’s depiction of the employee turnover ecosystem prior to implementation of the toolkit. The ecosystem is divided between retention and turnover.

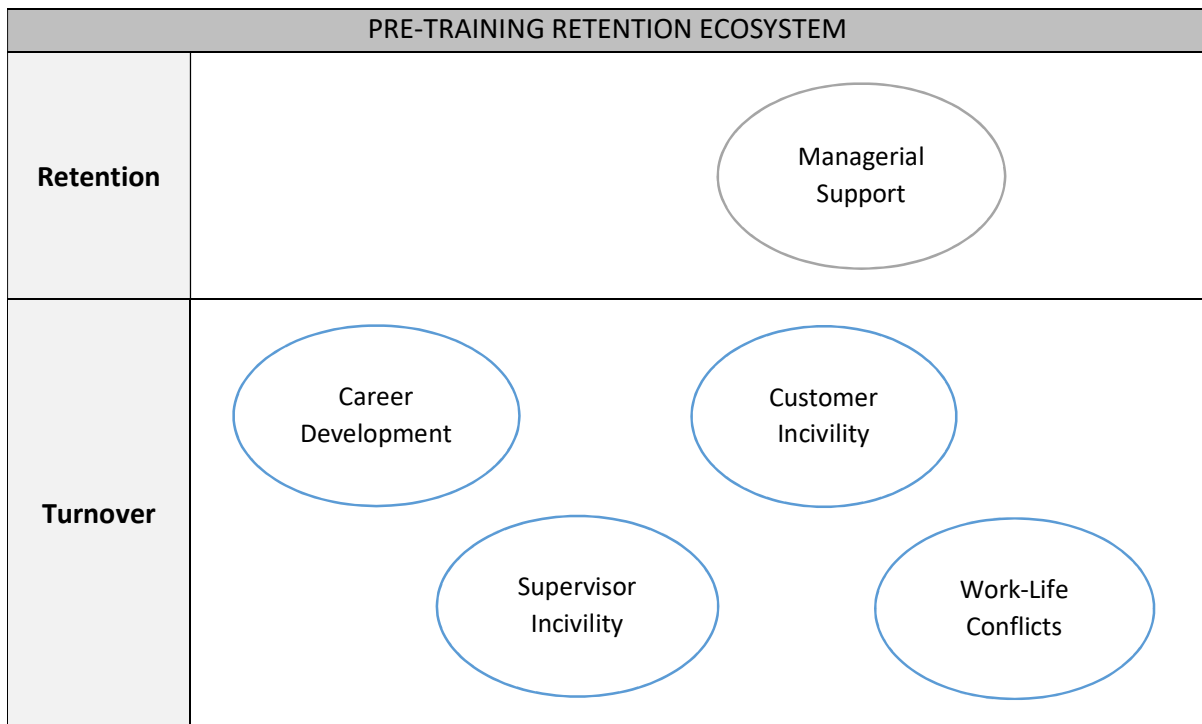


Figure 6.2: Pre-Implementation Retention Ecosystem

In the pre-implementation ecosystem SI, WLC, CD and CI have migrated and are driving employee turnover at CRI. Managerial support, which should be mitigating the ability of these variables to impact turnover, is not effective. This study’s response to the situation is to deploy the Retention Toolkit to train the managers and to improve human resource systems/practices (see Figures 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 below).

RETENTION TOOLKIT –TRAINING COMPONENT		
Turnover Factors	Training	Outcomes
Work-life conflicts	Emotional Support Practical Support Servant Leadership	Reduces stress Schedule flexibility Employee Engagement
Supervisor Incivility	Conflict Resolution Communications	Resolves issues amicably Reduced rudeness
Customer Incivility	Burnout Customer Service	Reduces stress Sees abuse as an organizational and not personal issue More empathy for the customer
Workload	Prioritization Scheduling Flexibility	Reduces stress Improves productivity
Career Development	Mentorship Feedback/Appraisal Recognition Fairness	Sets goals for employees Honest assessment of progress towards goals Rewards achievement Employee inclusion and engagement
Employee Turnover		
		Employee Retention

Figure 6.3: Soft Skills, Operations and Customer Service Training

The Retention Toolkit is intended to address key aspects of the areas of weakness identified in the study. A fully developed toolkit covering every aspect of the training and systems to be implemented would, perhaps, exceed this study in length. Consequently, only the essential elements of the toolkit are sketched here. With the exception of, one, Prioritization and Scheduling and, two, Customer Service, every aspect of the training provided in the toolkit covers the soft skills so badly lacking in the managers and their training (Figure 6.3). The Toolkit combines this training synergistically with human resource systems/practices and organizational support to increase employee retention, improve customer service and, ultimately, achieve a SCA. What is rare in one industry may just be valuable in another. Similarly, what is valuable in one country may be rare in another. The VRIO classifications represent the author’s understanding of the quick service sector in Guyana. The training aspect of the toolkit is shown as critical to inimitability. The training recommendations which emerged from this study are aligned with the strategy of the firm of achieving a SCA. Measurable goals will be established and the training curricula will be updated annually based on the achievement of the retention goals and feedback from confidential reports of

customer incivility, the training program itself, the exit interviews, mentorship program, 360 degree appraisals and annual employee surveys. This feedback will be used to update the training curricula as shown in the flowchart in Figure 6.5. Figure 6.4 below demonstrates how the training aspect of the toolkit combines with the other recommendations of the study within the VRIO framework.

RETENTION TOOLKIT - RECOMMENDATIONS				
	V Valuable	R Rare	I Inimitable	O Organized to Exploit
Middle Managers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuous presence on the frontline 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Soft skills, operations and customer service training 	
Senior Managers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Frequent presence on the frontline • Occupational health and safety committee 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In store messaging imploring customers to treat crew members with respect and dignity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Soft skills, operations and customer service training 	
Human Resource Managers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruitment campaigns • Effective job previews and onboarding • Family Friendly Work Practices • Fairness and transparency in promotions • 360 degree appraisals • Exit interviews 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentorship for all crew members • Company sponsored remedial education for crew members • Measurement and costing of all withdrawal behaviors 		
Board of Directors				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Annual employee surveys • Facilitate anonymous reporting of acts of incivility • Bonuses for achieving retention targets • Improved visibility through CSR projects

Figure 6.4: Retention Toolkit Recommendations – VRIO Framework

Figure 6.5 below is a flow chart of the sequencing of activities required for implementation of the toolkit. Managerial actions, from the Board of Directors/CEO, HR and operational managers (senior and middle management) are clearly identified. It is proposed that these actions will be implemented in four phases over the course of one year. Whilst specific timelines are not provided, the majority of the activities take place in Phase 1 and this phase is, therefore, expected to be longer than the remaining phases. The training aspect of the toolkit, which has numerous modules, is expected to be continuous and this is clearly stated on the flow chart. Feedback from the training, the confidential reports of supervisor incivility, the exit interviews, the mentorship program, the measurement and costing of withdrawal behaviours, performance appraisals and the annual employee survey will be analysed by the Board and used to provide guidance to management and the trainers. The guidance to the trainers will likely include information to improve the training curricula. Most of this feedback will come from the crew members and should serve to enhance employee voice in the organization. This feedback process will likely ensure relevance and continuous improvement of the toolkit. Finally the data provided will help inform the Board decisions on bonuses to incentivize managers who achieve and/or exceed their retention targets.

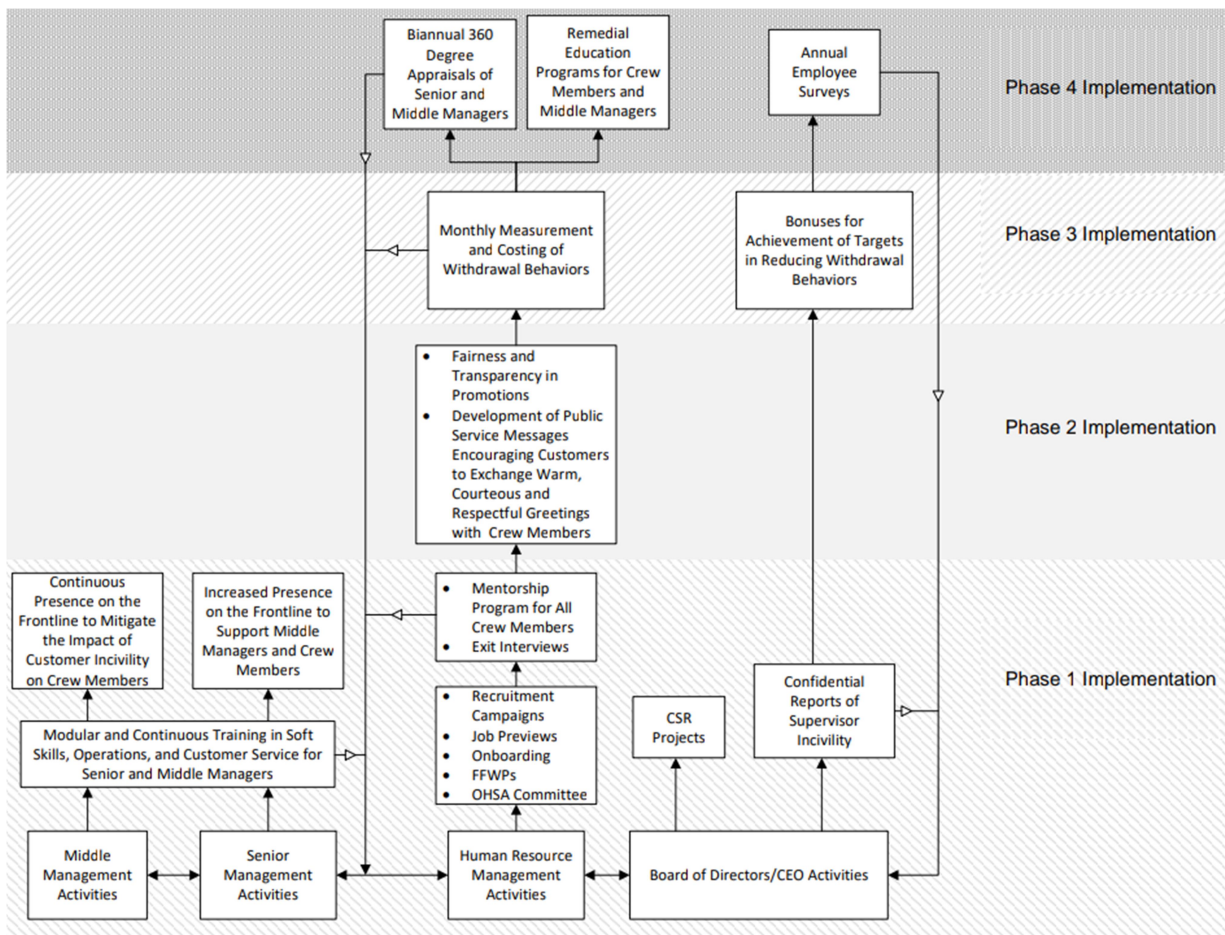


Figure 6.5: Flow Chart for Phased Implementation of Retention Toolkit

The flow chart demonstrates the application of the pragmatic cycle of knowledge, action, experience and knowledge (Ormerod, 2006, Morgan 2014). Second, the organization (CEO/Board of Directors) is directly involved in monitoring the supervisor incivility which permeates all levels of management. Finally, the organization has established a reporting structure and compensation arrangements in accordance with its role in the VRIO framework. Figure 6.6 below visualizes the intended changes to the Retention Ecosystem when all aspects of the Retention Toolkit are fully implemented.

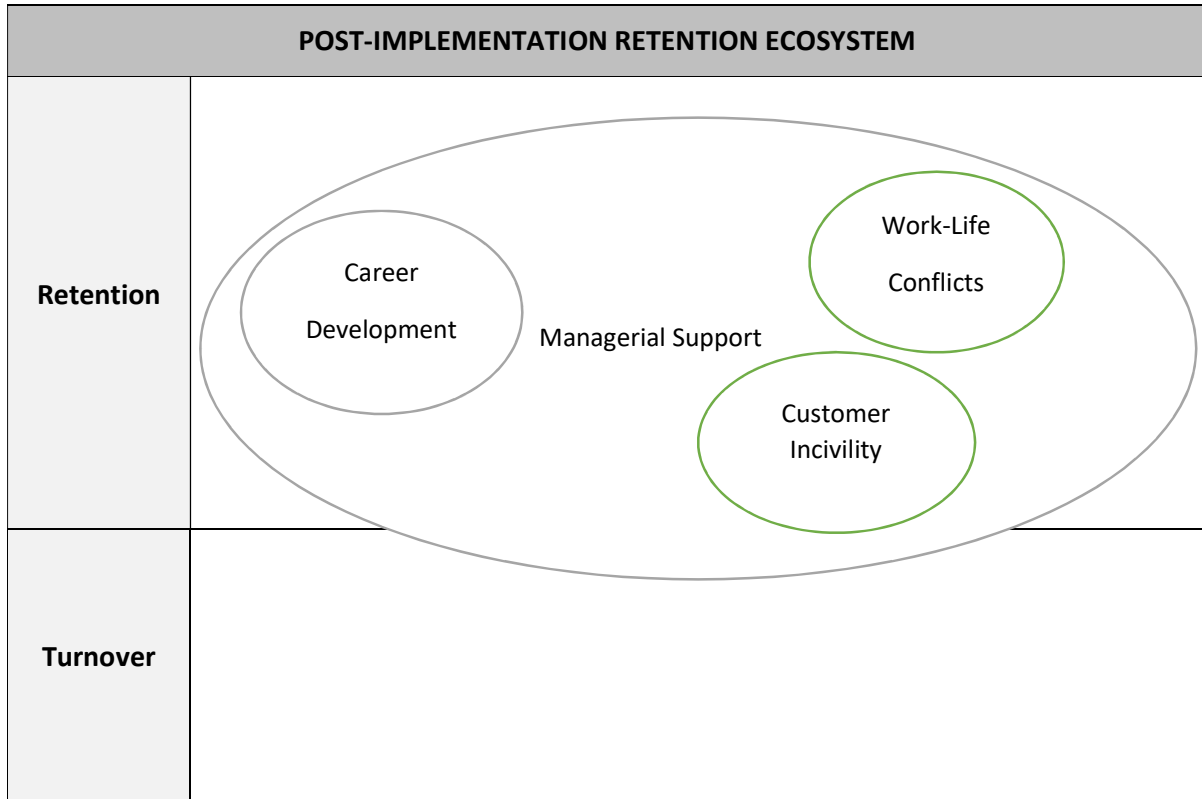


Figure 6.6: Post-Implementation Retention Ecosystem

In the post-implementation retention ecosystem, turnover still exists but supervisor incivility has been eradicated and managerial support is optimal. In this metamorphosis, managerial support has captured and contained the WLC and CI, whilst simultaneously encouraging CD. The model is a reflection of the author’s pragmatic belief that CI and WLC will always be present, but SI has no place in the organization.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

CRI has been experiencing great difficulty in recruiting new employees. It could be that stigma may be impacting recruitment to a much greater degree than its effect on turnover. In other words, applicants are reluctant to consider jobs in the quick service sector because of the threat to their social identity. This, if true, would severely impact the ability of the organization to hire high caliber employees. In addition to assessing the impact of stigma on recruitment, future research in the quick service sector should examine the recruitment and onboarding process (Earnest, Allen and Landis, 2011) and the reasons why employees stay on the job (Chamberlain, 2017).

The study identified the stigmas of slavery and homosexuality in the quick service sector. Future research should investigate whether males in the wider quick service and restaurant sector are also surrounded by this stigma. Future studies should also seek to identify whether other occupations are affected by perceptions of slavery in countries with a history of slavery.

The issue of incivility was not a focal point of this study, but it requires further examination quantitatively, and qualitatively. Such research should not only be limited to supervisor and customer incivility, it should also be extended to detect the possible operation of co-worker incivility as well. Second, incivility has been shown to have impacts on health (Cortina, 2008), productivity (Pearson and Porath, 2005) and burnout (Han et al., 2015). Incivility is likely to increase turnover, as well as absenteeism and tardiness, all of which result in increased costs for the organization. Consequently, the impact of incivility on the whole range of physical withdrawal behaviors should be studied.

6.6 Final Thoughts

As the study draws to a close, reflections are inevitable. What went well and what could have been done better?

The study utilized a sequential explanatory mixed methods design. The stigma of homosexuality and comparisons to slavery which emerged were totally unexpected and this suggests that a sequential exploratory mixed methods design would have generated improved results. Using qualitative research first would have identified the exact nature of stigma at CRI and this would have better informed the choice and development of the questionnaires.

The use of a research assistant ruled out the use of semi-structured interviews which would have facilitated probing of important issues and emerging themes. The author was forced to rely on the research assistant to capture, correctly, all the narratives in the transcription process. This also meant the author was unable to make 'field notes' for use in the analysis of the transcripts (Eisenhardt, 1989). The inadequacy of this approach was minimized by the selection of a professional research firm with an established track record of undertaking such research for international organizations.

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Appendix A: Permission to Conduct Interviews

APPENDIX 1

Ms. Simone December
Director, Human Resources
Camex Restaurants Inc
231 Camp Street
Georgetown
Guyana.

Dear Ms. December,

Re: Permission to conduct structured interviews with members of the management team of Camex Restaurants Inc.

I am in the final stages of a study which is part of the requirements for a Doctorate in Business Administration from the Edinburgh Napier University. My thesis is titled 'Managerial support, occupational stigma and employee turnover: The case of entry level quickservice workers in Guyana'. As a part of the study, I would like to have your permission to conduct twelve (12) structured interviews with members of the management team inclusive of the two Human Resource managers. Of the other ten (10) managers, eight (8) should be chosen at random from the ranks of your Asst. Supervisors, Supervisors and Senior Supervisors. The final two (2) should again be chosen at random from the ranks of your Asst. Managers, Managers, Snr. Managers and Directors.

The purpose of this survey is to assess managers' perceptions of managerial support, stigma, intra-group stigma and employee turnover amongst the crew members of Camex Restaurants. Participation in the survey is voluntary and must not be forced upon any manager. The anonymity of each informant will be protected as no names will appear on the transcripts (see Appendix 3). To safeguard confidentiality, PDC-Research has been hired to conduct and transcribe the structured interviews. All audio recordings will be kept, by PDC-Research, on a password protected computer for a period of one year after my thesis has been submitted and accepted. At the expiration of this one year period it will be destroyed. Under no circumstances will I have access to the audio recordings. Only electronic copies of the transcripts will be handed over to me and these will also be destroyed one year after thesis submission and acceptance. I haven't been able to determine any harm or risk from participation in this study. All informants will be asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix 2) allowing the information to be collected, documented and analyzed for use in this research study ONLY. The data collected (transcripts only) will be stored in a secure location and on a password protected computer. The information obtained will be treated in the strictest confidence and the thesis, when completed, will be shared with your organization. There is also a possibility that the results may be published, thus allowing dissemination to Human Resources Managers internationally.

Details about the schedule for administering the structured interviews, which will take about forty-five (45) minutes each, will be discussed once we have your agreement for the managers to participate in this study.

Thank you for your usual co-operation.

Sincerely,


Terrence Campbell

Appendix B: Consent for Structured Interviews

Edinburgh Napier University Research Consent Form

Title of Study: Stigma as a driver of employee turnover amongst entry level workers: The case of quickservice workers in Guyana

Edinburgh Napier University requires that all persons who participate in research studies give their written consent to do so. Please read the following and sign it if you agree with what it says.

1. I freely and voluntarily consent to be a participant in the research project on the topic of employee turnover to be conducted by Terrence Campbell, who is a postgraduate student at Edinburgh Napier University.
2. The broad goal of this research study is to explore the role of stigma in the turnover process. Specifically, I have been asked to answer a few questions, which should take no longer than thirty (30) minutes to complete.
3. I have been told that my responses will be anonymised. My name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in any report subsequently produced by the researcher.
4. I also understand that if at any time during the survey/interview I feel unable or unwilling to continue, I am free to leave. That is, my participation in this study is completely voluntary, and I may withdraw from it without negative consequences. However, after data has been anonymised or after publication of results it will not be possible for my data to be removed as it would be untraceable at this point.
5. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.
6. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the survey/interview and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
7. I have read and understand the above and consent to participate in this study. My signature is not a waiver of any legal rights. Furthermore, I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of the informed consent form for my records.

Participant's Signature

Date

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedure in which the respondent has consented to participate. Furthermore, I will retain one copy of the informed consent form for my records.

Researcher's Signature

Date

Appendix C: Interview Schedule

Date	Activity	Location	Branch Surveyed	Phase
25th January 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Georgetown	Camp Street, Avenue of the Republic	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
27th January 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Georgetown	Giftland	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
28th January 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Berbice	Rosignol, New Amsterdam	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
30th January 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Georgetown	Mandela	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
1st February 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Linden	Linden	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
2nd February 2018	Data Collection with Employees	East Coast Demerara	Buxton	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
10th February 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Georgetown	Camp & Robb Street	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys
12th February 2018	Data Collection with Employees	Georgetown	Hinck Street	Phase I: Quantitative Surveys

Table 1: Showing Dates Surveys were Administered

Date	Activity	Location	Interview Group	Phase
27th May 2019	Interviews with Management	Georgetown	Junior Level Management	Phase II: Pilot Qual Interviews
28th May 019	Interviews with Management	Georgetown	Junior Level Management, Senior Level Management	Phase II: Qualitative Interviews
29th May 2019	Interviews with Management	Georgetown	Junior Level Management, Senior Level Management	Phase II: Qualitative Interviews

Table 2: Showing Dates for Interviews Administered

Appendix D: Questions for Structured Interview

Structured Interview on Perceptions of Work in the Quickservice Sector

Note: Participants are free to refuse to answer any of the questions.

Demographics

Age:

Duration of Service: (a = 1-3 years, b = 4-6 years, c = 7-9 years, d = 10-13 years)

Designation: (Senior Management or Middle Management)

Questions for the Structured Interview

1. How difficult is it for new crew members to settle in and feel comfortable with the work? What are the biggest challenges they face?
2. What are the most common reasons why crew members quit? What are the main reasons why they stay?
3. How do you think the general public sees the job of crew members? Why do you think they see the jobs of crew members this way? How do customers see the job of crew members?
4. If you were at a party and someone was criticizing fast food workers, what would you want to say to them?
5. When you think about others in the company, do you think your job is any better or worse than theirs'? What about jobs of friends and relatives?
6. To what extent do you socialize with your subordinates outside of business hours?
7. Do you think you're a fairly typical fast food worker? How so?
8. If your son or daughter said they wanted to do what you do when they grow up, what would you say to them?
9. How would you describe the relationship between crew members and management?
10. Do managers seek the views of crew members regarding the best way of organizing their work?
11. Do managers spend enough time coaching and encouraging crew members?
12. Are the prospects for promotion of crew members satisfactory? Is the system for determining promotions fair?
13. Is the job of a crew member stressful? If so, how do you help them to cope?
14. What do you do to promote teamwork?
15. How long did you plan to work with CRI when you joined the company? Why did you stay?

16. Do you think pressure from management to deliver high levels of customer service causes crew members to quit?
17. Do you think crew members quit impulsively or do they look for another job before doing so?
18. What are your future career plans? Will you remain in the fast food industry?
19. Do you think that stigma contributes to employee turnover amongst crew members?

Appendix E: Main Study Questionnaire

Modified Stigma Consciousness and Turnover Intent Questionnaire for the
Entry Level Employees of Camex Restaurants Inc.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Please answer all questions.

- 1) Age:
- 2) Duration of employment:
- 3) Gender:
- 4) Branch where employed:

PRACTICE QUESTIONS

Note to Research Assistant: The two statements below are to be used to familiarize participants with the process of completing a questionnaire and answering normal and reverse scored questions.

- I like pineapples
- I dislike pineapples

STIGMA CONSCIOUSNESS AND TURNOVER INTENT QUESTIONS

Please use the numbers 1 to 5 to answer the following questions. Immediately below, you will find the meaning of each number:

- 1 Strongly disagree
- 2 Disagree
- 3 Neither agree or disagree
- 4 Agree
- 5 Strongly agree

Questions:

- i) The general image of the fast food worker has not affected me.
- j) I never worry that my actions will be seen as those of the typical fast food worker.
- k) Most people do not judge me based on the job I do.
- l) My being a fast food worker does not affect how the public acts with me.
- m) I never think about the fact that I am a fast food worker when I interact with the public.
- n) My being a fast food worker does not affect how my friends act with me.

- o) When interacting with the public, I feel they view all of my actions in terms of the fact that I am a fast food worker.
- p) Most members of the public have bad images about fast food work that they don't express.
- q) I think the public has a problem viewing fast food workers as their equal.
- r) Would you recommend that a family member or friend seek employment in the fast food sector?
- s) I have a good relationship with my supervisor.
- t) My supervisors make me feel proud to be a fast food worker
- u) Do you feel supported by your supervisors in doing your work?
- v) Do your supervisors seek your views on how best to do your work?
- w) I am satisfied with my prospects for promotion?
- x) The system for determining promotions is fair.

Note: For statements (k) to (q) place a star * next answer which best describes your future plans. Remember choose only ONE of the statements (k), (l) and (m).

- y) I intend to leave the fast food sector tomorrow if I could.
- z) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three to six months.
- aa) I intend to leave the fast food sector in one year.
- bb) I intend to leave the fast food sector in two years.
- cc) I intend to leave the fast food sector in three years.
- dd) I intend to leave the fast food sector in four years.
- ee) I intend to remain in the fast food sector forever.

Appendix F:

Linkages between the aim, themes, research questions and key authors.

AIM	THEME	RESEARCH QUESTION	KEY AUTHORS
To explore the roles of managerial support and occupational stigma in the employee turnover process amongst non-managerial quick service workers in Guyana.	Managerial Support	Does managerial support improve employee retention in the quick service sector?	Emerson (1976) Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) Tymon et al. (2011) Alias et al. (2014) Nasyira et al. (2014) Cropanzano et al. (2017) Li et al. (2017)
	Work-Life Conflicts	What is the impact of work-life conflicts on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Deery and Jago (2015) Asghar et al. (2018)
	Career Development	How important is the issue of career development to non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Tymon et al. (2011) Allen and Bryant (2012) Aguenza and Som (2012) Kang et al. (2015) Zopiatis et al. (2018)
	Customer Incivility	What is the impact of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector? Would effective managerial support mitigate the effects of customer incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Sliter et al. (2012) Han et al. (2016)
	Workplace Incivility	What is the impact of workplace incivility on non-managerial employees in the quick service sector?	Pearson and Porath (2005) Cortina (2008) Spence Laschinger et al. (2009) Miner and Eischeid (2012)

	Occupational Stigma	<p>Is high stigma consciousness associated with increased turnover intentions?</p> <p>Are employees with high stigma consciousness less likely to recommend the job to a family member?</p>	<p>Saunders (1981)</p> <p>Pinel (1999)</p> <p>Wildes (2005)</p> <p>Kreiner et al. (2006)</p> <p>Lopina et al. (2012)</p> <p>Shantz and Booth (2014)</p> <p>Shigihara (2015)</p> <p>Shigihara (2018)</p>
	Intra-Group Stigma	Do managers in the quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social standing or the nature of their jobs?	<p>Goffman (1963)</p> <p>Saunders (1981)</p> <p>Gunn and Canada (2015)</p>
	Turnover Intention		<p>Mobley (1977)</p> <p>Hom and Griffeth (1995)</p> <p>Khatri et al. (2001)</p> <p>Hurley and Estelami (2007)</p> <p>Hom et al. (2012)</p> <p>Memon et al. (2014)</p> <p>Morrell (2016)</p>

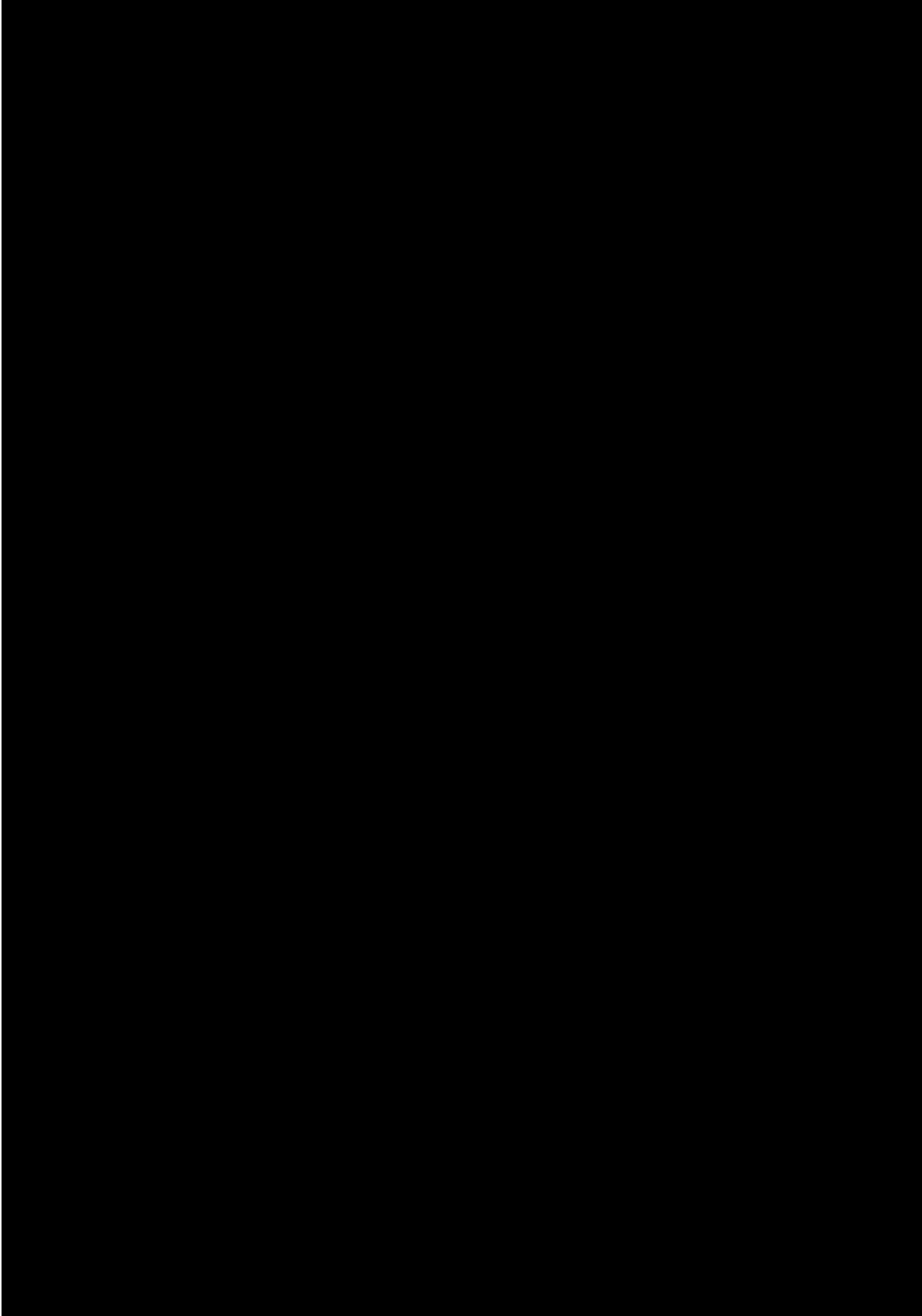
**Appendix G:
Linkage Between Research Questions and Questions in Main Study
Structured Interview**

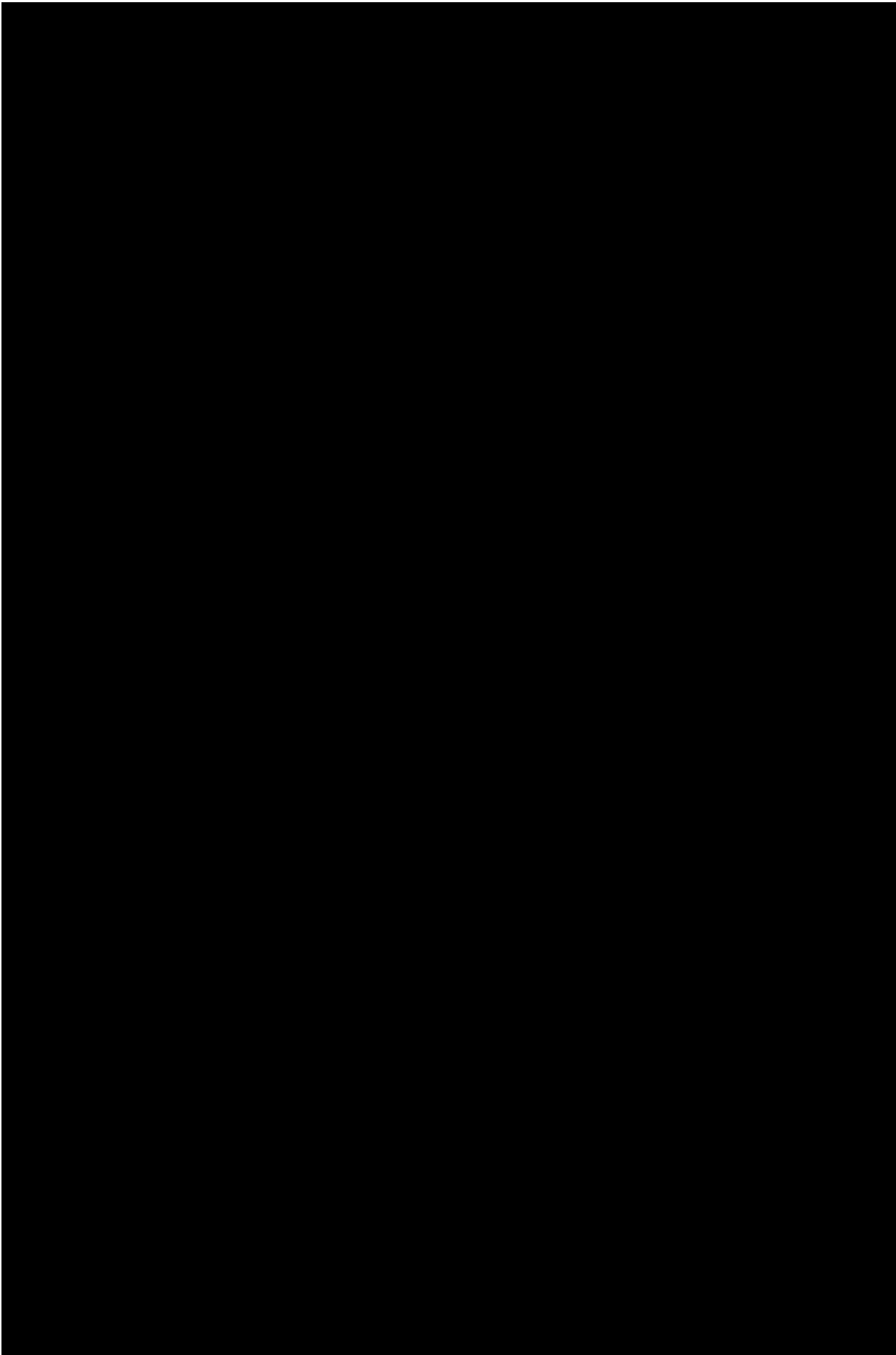
RESEARCH QUESTIONS	THEME	STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
Do the work-life conflicts of quick service employees create turnover intentions?	Work-life conflict	a) How difficult is it for new crew members to settle in and feel comfortable with the work? What are the biggest challenges they face? b) What are the most common reasons why crew members quit? What are the main reasons why they stay?
Do managers in the quick service sector support the career development goals of their crew members?	Career Development	a) Do managers spend enough time coaching and encouraging crew members? b) Are the prospects for promotion of crew members satisfactory? Is the system for determining promotions fair? c) What are your future career plans? Will you remain in the fast food industry?
Does poor managerial support create turnover?	Managerial Support	a) How would you describe the relationship between crew members and management? b) How difficult is it for new crew members to settle in and feel comfortable with the work? What are the biggest challenges they face? c) What are the most common reasons why crew members quit? What are the main reasons why they stay? d) Do managers seek the views of crew members regarding the best way of organizing their work? e) Do managers spend enough time coaching and encouraging crew members? f) Are the prospects for promotion of crew members satisfactory? Is the system for determining promotions fair? g) Is the job of a crew member stressful? If so, how do you help them to cope? h) What do you do to promote teamwork? i) How long did you plan to work with CRI

		<p>when you joined the company? Why did you stay?</p> <p>j) Do you think pressure from management to deliver high levels of customer service causes crew members to quit?</p> <p>k) Do you think crew members quit impulsively or do they look for another job before doing so?</p> <p>l) What are your future career plans? Will you remain in the fast food industry?</p>
Does occupational stigma in the quick service sector create turnover?	Occupational Stigma	<p>a) How difficult is it for new crew members to settle in and feel comfortable with the work? What are the biggest challenges they face?</p> <p>b) What are the most common reasons why crew members quit? What are the main reasons why they stay?</p> <p>c) How do you think the general public sees the job of crew members? Why do you think they see the jobs of crew members this way? How do customers see the job of crew members?</p> <p>d) If you were at a party and someone was criticizing fast food workers, what would you want to say to them?</p> <p>e) Do you think you're a fairly typical fast food worker? How so?</p> <p>f) If your son or daughter said they wanted to do what you do when they grow up, what would you say to them?</p> <p>g) What are your future career plans? Will you remain in the fast food industry?</p> <p>h) Do you think that stigma contributes to employee turnover amongst crew members?</p>
Does occupational stigma in the quick service sector reduce the likelihood of managers recommending the job to family members?	Occupational Stigma	<p>a) If your son or daughter said they wanted to do what you do when they grow up, what would you say to them?</p>
Do managers in quick service sector differentiate themselves from crew members based on education, social	Intra-group Stigma	<p>a) How would you describe the relationship between crew members and management?</p> <p>b) When you think about others in the company, do you think your job is any</p>

standing or the nature of their jobs?		<p>better or worse than theirs'? What about jobs of friends and relatives?</p> <p>c) To what extent do you socialize with your subordinates outside of business hours?</p> <p>d) Do you think pressure from management to deliver high levels of customer service causes crew members to quit?</p>
Does workplace incivility in quick service create turnover?	Workplace Incivility	<p>a) How difficult is it for new crew members to settle in and feel comfortable with the work? What are the biggest challenges they face?</p> <p>b) What are the most common reasons why crew members quit? What are the main reasons why they stay?</p> <p>c) How would you describe the relationship between crew members and management?</p> <p>d) Do managers seek the views of crew members regarding the best way of organizing their work?</p> <p>e) Is the job of a crew member stressful? If so, how do you help them to cope?</p> <p>f) What do you do to promote teamwork?</p> <p>g) Do you think pressure from management to deliver high levels of customer service causes crew members to quit?</p> <p>h) Do you think crew members quit impulsively or do they look for another job before doing so?</p>
<p>a) Does customer incivility in quick service create turnover?</p> <p>b) Does managerial support mitigate the effect of customer incivility on turnover in quick service?</p>	Customer Incivility	<p>a) Do you think pressure from management to deliver high levels of customer service causes crew members to quit?</p> <p>b) Do you think crew members quit impulsively or do they look for another job before doing so?</p> <p>c) Do you think that stigma contributes to employee turnover amongst crew members?</p>

Appendix H: Research Assistant's Resume and Terms of Reference





TERMS OF REFERENCE

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH ASSISTANCE FOR ACADEMIC STUDY

Managerial support, occupational stigma and employee turnover: The case of entry level quick-service workers in Guyana

1. STUDY BACKGROUND:

The quick-service sector is comprised of restaurants which serve fast food cuisine and have minimal table service. The concept of stigma is properly the subject of sociological inquiry. It is being extended here in the research of a business problem. Similar to other professions, the study of business, "calls upon the work of many academic disciplines" like "mathematics, economics, psychology, philosophy, and sociology" (Bennis and O'Toole, 2005, p. 96). Notwithstanding, the use of a sociological concept as an analytical guide, the focus of this study is the unending issue of employee turnover and retention which places this work firmly in the realm of human resources management..

The initial aim of the study examined the effect of stigma on turnover intention amongst the employees of Camex Restaurants Inc. (CRI), a large quick service operator in Guyana. The first phase of data collection was centered on a quantitative survey approach. The target for the study was entry level CRI employees. The instrument focused on questions that were related to employee on-job experience, their perspective on stigma, and career expectations.

After one hundred and fifty three (153) respondents completed the self administered instrument. The information was then collected, entered, cleaned and went through rigorous statistical analysis. Through analysis, the primary researcher found managerial support had a significant correlation with employee turnover. In an attempt to understand why and how, the researcher amended the methodology to include a qualitative element. This mixed method approach now aims to examine both the perspective of the entry level staff of CRI and the perspective of the middle and senior level managers.

2. SCOPE OF WORK:

The objective of the qualitative research assistant is to obtain audio recorded and transcribed structured interviews with selected members of the management team of Camex Restaurants Inc (CRI). This study has a sequential explanatory design and the interviews will explore themes connected to managerial support, stigma and intra-group stigma as well as illuminate narratives of exploitation and oppression if they exist.

3. TARGET:

- Two (2) pilot interviews with middle management CRI employees.
- Eight (8) interviews with middle management CRI employees.
- Three (3) interviews with senior management CRI employees.
- Two (2) interviews with human resource personnel of CRI
- Compilation and submission of de-identified transcripts of interviews of audio recordings

4. TASKS TO BE PERFORMED

The qualitative research assistant consultant/company will be responsible for:

- a) Participant recruitment taken from CRI's database.
- b) Research Logistics, including facilities, transport of participants and other relevant activities.
- c) Consultations with the Human Resource Department of CRI.
- d) Follow strict ethical guidelines when dealing with participants of the study. The research assistant is required to emphasize on **anonymity** and **consent**. Consent forms must be administered by the Research Assistant.
- e) Discuss clearly with participants the purpose of the study.
- f) Conduct structured interviews with participants. This means, the research is not allowed to probe interviewees for information. The research assistant/ interviewer can offer clarifications to concepts that might be unclear for study participants/ interviewees.
- g) Research assistant must make notes during each interview. Notes should include interview timestamps, interviewees' willingness to respond, their comfort levels, lack of comprehension and any interesting outliers found in the pattern of responses.
- h) Data management and transcription. The Research Assistant is required to keep records of audio and transcript document in a safe secure (protected) software system.
- i) Submit transcript documents with all possible identifiers removed. The documents should be reviewed by two (2) external editors, to make sure documents are indeed removed of identifiers.
- j) Submit final report on data collection procedures and experience.

5. Professional Requirements:

The successful consultant should possess an advanced university degree in statistics, sociology, economics or other related fields, with at least 5 years working experience in research and/or consulting in the area of migration and development, preferably in the context of the Caribbean. The successful candidate should possess excellent writing skills and have experience in designing and conducting field research.

6. Deliverables and Payment Schedule.

Payments will be based on the submission and approval of the deliverables and schedule as detailed below:

Delivery Date	Payment %	Main Actions, Deliverables
24th May, 2019	50%	Inception Meeting and Brief
7th June, 2019	50%	Submission of Transcripts and Data Collection Report

Researcher: Terrence Campbell

Date: 25th Many 2019

Research assistant

Date: 25th Many 2019

ABOUT THE

COMPANY



WE MAKE IT HAPPEN!

Project Development Consultancy is a full service research consultancy that caters to clients around the globe with an extended portfolio of service offerings.

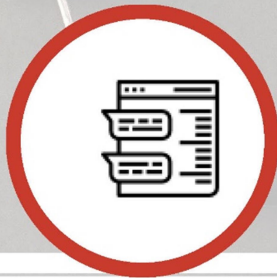
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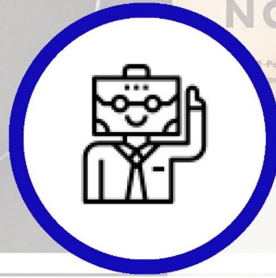
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Project Development Consultancy



CONSUMER PERCEPTION

Hear directly from consumers to help to make the most beneficial business decisions through: Opinion polls and Product testing.



RESEARCH ASSISTANCE

Here to assist you with all your individual research needs such as: Data collection, Research consultations, Recruitment, Data management, Instrument Development, Data analysis and reporting, Transcriptions and Project management & planning



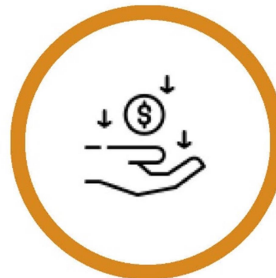
COMMUNITY INSIGHT

Data is the new oil and information is essential. Gain insightful info about everything from everywhere through: quantitative and qualitative research and primary and secondary data sourcing through: Consumer satisfaction surveys, Social research, Customer feedback, Brand tracking and Industry analysis.



RESEARCH LEARNING

We teach you how to reign through research using our comprehensive concise introductory and intermediate Research courses; as well as how to increase revenue through Persuasive proposal writing.



RESEARCH EARNING

Research THEN invest. Achieve the highest returns by making the most informed investments. Make profitable investments by first gaining informational insight into markets, sectors and segments through: Feasibility studies and Market projections.

STAY AHEAD
OF THE
COMPETITION
THROUGH
MARKET
INSIGHTS

OUR PROCESS



OUR RESEARCH METHODS

MOBILE SURVEYS APPLICATION

Three phase validation methods, Geo stamps, silent recordings, In-field supervision



FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEWS

In-Depth Face to Face Interviews

ONLINE DATA COLLECTION

Online group panels, and online surveys (Geo Stamps, IP Validation)"

MYSTERY SHOPPING

In store mystery shopping (Developing comparative price indexes)

FOCUS GROUPS

Group Discussion to gain collective consumer or community insights

ONLINE DIGITAL AND MEDIA RESEARCH

Collection of data from online and digital streams



SECONDARY DATA COLLECTION

Stellar team at the collection of secondary data and information in hard to find places.

Trusted by:

- **ILO** - Country wide (Guyana Study) enabling enterprises for sustainable development
- **Scotiabank** - New Customer: Decisions Drivers in Financial Services
- **GraceKennedy** (Jamaica) - Development of feasibility Model for Investment
- **Ozon** - Brand Packaging and Buying behaviour of Detergent Consumers - (Guyana and Trinidad)
- **IADB** - Multi-Country Online Survey on the Construction Industry in Guyana and the Caribbean

Collaborations:

Collaborating with a few of the top research companies world wide.

PDC was responsible for the coordination of In-field Data Collection for the following Brands:

- **Coca-Cola**
- **Marlboro**
- **Heineken**
- **Shell**
- **International Cricket Council (ICC)**

PDC also provided qualitative service assistance for social projects in the following countries on Health, Public and Social Policy Research:



OUR CLIENTS



Market Research Organization and Affiliations:

Esomar Member

Esomar Representative

Insight Association Member



Awards

Ginny Valentine Award (2018) - Global Award given to the groundbreakers in the Market Research Industry and pioneering Market Research in Guyana.

GCCI Award (2018) - given for Young Business Executive 2018



OUR TEAM

Project Development Consultancy Analytical Team is made up of core group of Academic Consultants. They are Lecturers, Graduate Students and Affiliates from the following Universities and Organizations:

- University of SOAS (London)
- UWI: Cave Hill Cave Hill Campus (Barbados)
- UWI: St. Augustine Campus (Trinidad)
- Market Research Association (Global)
- ESOMAR- Market Research Association (Global)

We look forward to working with you and supporting your efforts of understanding your customers and finding the information needed in our order for you to make the best decisions. We are confident that we can meet the challenges ahead and stand ready to partner with you in delivering effective evidence-based solutions.

If you have questions, feel free to contact our team at your convenience by email at contact@pdc-research or phone at +5922238283. We will be in touch with you next week to arrange a follow-up conversation on the proposal.

Thank you for your consideration,
PDC Team

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