\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

# THE EFFECT OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES ON WORK ATTITUDES AND INTENTIONS TO QUIT: THE CASE OF THE HOTEL INDUSTRY IN CAPE COAST AND ELMINA

Josephine Pepra-Mensah, Adu Frimpong Augustine and Evans Oteng Department of Business, Valley View University, Techiman Campus, Techiman, Ghana.

**ABSTRACT:** Employee turnover is a problem for organizations and is one of the challenges facing human resource managers. As such several studies have looked at antecedents of turnover. Among the emergent antecedents are demographic variables which are deemed to influence attitudes that could either make or unmake organisations. Since attitudes mean a lot in labour-intensive industries, the need to examine these attitude-eliciting factors become important. This paper therefore, sought to find out the effect of demographic variables on work attitudes and intention to quit in the hotel industry in Cape Coast and Elmina. Independent sample T-tests and One-way ANOVA were used to assess the relationships between demographic variables and work attitudes. The results revealed there was significant differences between younger adults' and older adults' level of satisfaction as far as salary levels were concerned. Similarly, this was the case with nature of work and motivation. Accordingly, it was recommended that Human resource policies be tailored to meet and satisfy the specific needs of each age group as what might motivate the younger generation may not have the same effect on the older generation.

**KEYWORDS**: Employee Turnover, Intention to Quit, Employee Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Nature of Work

## **INTRODUCTION**

The success of organizations depends on the quality of the employees in the tourism industry (Reichel & Pizam, 1984; Sepehri et al., 2014). The level of employee turnover is considered among the important factors that define the success of businesses in the hospitality industry in that, the less the turnover the superior the hotel is over the other hotels in the competitive set (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Baum, 2007; Mohsin, Lengler & Bhupesh, 2013). These low turnover rates are imperative for hotels in order to continue their existence and activities (Baum, 2006). Some eminent scholars such as Tepper (2000), Burgess (1998); and Shalley (2000) both in business and academia have given much attention to the subject of employee turnover. Consequently, the effort of these scholars has resulted in the discovery of many different antecedents to employee turnovers such as organizational culture (Sheridan, 1992), compensation (Burgess, 1998), supervisory relationships (Tepper, 2000) and work environment (Blum, Gilson & Shalley, 2000). It has been argued in the literature of organizational behaviour that there is a relation between the organizational outcomes like the turnover intentions of the employees and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performances (Susskind et al., 2000).

In addition, there are various studies in which factors such as demographic and job characteristics, organizational commitment, organizational environment, exhaustion, job satisfaction, career satisfaction and similar other factors are examined in hospitality (Toker, 2007; Matin, Kalali & Anvari, 2012; Hong & Kaur, 2008; Toker, 2007). Also, demographic profiles such as age, gender, and tenure with the company are also found to be other important

#### Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

variables or antecedents to turnover (Allen & Meyer 1990; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994). Available evidence indicates that service sector workers quit their jobs usually as a result of unsatisfactory situations such as low motivation, low pay and poor conditions of service (Ologunde, Asaolu & Elumilade, 2006). Though studies have shown, for example, that work attitude factors could predict turnover, the question that needs to be asked is what actually precipitate these behaviours? What are the factors that influence these work attitudes that in turn affects turnover? Various studies (Amarasena, Ajward & Haque, 2015; Akova, Cetin & Cifci, 2015; Akpa & Asikhia, 2016) answered these questions by concluding that demographic variables are among underlying factors that predicted the incidence of work attitudes in the first place. But not so much could be identified in the Ghanaian context. The assumption is that before an employee decides to quit, there are likely factors that would prompt that decision; as such an attempt to look at demographic variables and how they are likely to influence work attitudes that in turn precipitates an intention to quit, is important.

According to Teye (1988), the absence of skilled labour as a result of turnover in the tourism industry has been identified as responsible for the dismal performance of the industry in sub-Saharan Africa. And in Ghana, the case does not seem to be different. Although no official statistics on the level of labour turnover is readily available, officials from the Ghana Tourist Board (GTB) in complain of a perceived high labour turnover. Cape coast and Elmina are still considered the hub of tourism development in the Central region of Ghana, due to the rich natural resources available there, making issues of turnover a very significant concern. Though some studies have looked into antecedents of turnover in the hospitality industry and have emphasised on work attitudes such as satisfaction, commitment, work motivation (Pepra-Mensah, 2010, Kunu, Mahama, Boahen & Denu, 2017) there still seems to be a general perception that the hotel industry in Cape Coast and Elmina is unable to retain a considerable number of their employees for a lengthy period of time. Such high turnover rates, definitely, would not augur well for the industry. Though in the Ghanaian context the issues of work attitudes have been established as major cause of turnover in the industry, not much can be recorded in respect of demographic variables. Meaning the fight against turnover in this industry with respect to work attitudes might have been resolved, but latent issues that might relate to demographics may still be issues that have not been yet uncovered. Thus, the question that begs this study is whether demographic factors precipitate these behaviours. This study, therefore, sought to uncover whether demographic variables of age, educational level, tenure, and division of labour affect work attitudes of hotel employees and their subsequent intention to quit.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

#### **Turnover intention**

The turnover intention, according to Abubakar, Chauhan, and Kura (2014), is one of the most important attitudinal challenges that managers constantly face at work. It has been defined as the tendency of employees to leave their jobs or organization that they are currently working for (Lee, Hung, & Chen, 2012; Mobley, 1982; Schyns, Torka, & Gössling, 2007). Turnover is referred as an individual's estimated probability that they will stay with an employing organization (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Meanwhile, Tett and Meyer (1993) defined turnover intentions as conscious willfulness to seek for other alternatives in other organization. Reviews on the antecedents of turnover intentions have highlighted intent to leave rather than actual

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

turnover as the outcome variable. This is because employees have decided in advance the decision to leave the organization. This is in line with the attitude-behavior theory--that one's intention to perform a specific behavior is the close predictor of that behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Interestingly, a study conducted by Lambert et al., (2001) on the relationship between turnover intentions and actual turnover have given support and evidence on the significant relationship between these variables.

#### Work attitudes

Work attitudes are used here to mean those emotional characteristics of employees that are brought to bear on their daily activities at the workplace (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). In this study, they include motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and motivation among various antecedents appear to be good predictors of turnover rates (Cheng, 2006).

**Motivation.** Motivation has been found to occupy a highly significant position in attracting and retaining employees. It reinforces the notion of exchange that is entailed in the work; in that, the extent to which an employee will continue to identify with the goals and objectives of an organization and therefore continue to be part of the process of goal accomplishment depends highly on the level of his or her motivation. Motivation tends to play a significant role in influencing a worker's decision to stay or quit a particular employment. According to Mobley (1979), the factors that motivate people to stay on a job, contribute effectively to dissimulate the thoughts of quitting to that individual. Rutherford (1990) argued that motivation makes an organization more effective because motivated employees are always looking for better ways to do a job, generally are more quality-oriented and are more productive, so it is important for management to understand how organizations influence the motivation of their individual employees.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has long been an important concept in the organizational study of the reasons employees have to do their jobs. Thus, numerous studies reveal that job satisfaction is an important element in influencing a firm's performance. Brookfield (1998) reiterated that individuals with high levels of job satisfaction would have healthier physical and psychological records that would likely result in higher productivity and effectiveness in their job performance. According to Odon et al., (1990), job satisfaction is the extent to which an employee feels about his or her job. Cranny et al. (1992) indicated that job satisfaction is a contribution of cognitive and affective reactions to differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive compared with what he or she actually receives; he further argued that dissatisfaction could result in psychological frustration and low productivity. This goes to underscore the view that a person with a high level of job satisfaction holds a positive attitude towards the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds a negative attitude towards the job (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001). Demir as cited in Samad (2006) defined job satisfaction as an employee's feeling of contentment and discontentment for a job. In addition, Samad (2006) theorized that if the presence of a factor in the work setting lead to job satisfaction, then the absence of this factor will produce job dissatisfaction.

**Organizational commitment.** Various definitions have been given for employees' commitment. It is seen as a global attitude which can influence an individual's reaction towards his or her organisation (McCaul, Hinsz, & Mc Kaul, 1995). Also, it includes an effective response by an employee towards the whole organisation (Martin & Bennett, 1996). Furthermore, organizational commitment has been defined as the employee's psychological

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

attachment and affiliation to the organization (Wong et al., 1996). Meyer and Allen (1997), submit that there are three mind sets which can depict an employee's commitment to the organization. They are an affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. In addition, affective commitment is defined as an employee's positive emotional attachment to an organization. Continuance commitment refers to a situation where an individual is committed to an organization because he or she perceives high costs of losing organizational membership. Normative commitment occurs when an individual is committed to and remains with an organization because of the feelings of obligation. The need for high organizational commitment is an important issue in any organization. This is because an employee who is highly committed towards his or her organization can be said to be productive, stable, and always strives towards fulfilling the organization's needs as opposed to the less committed (Larkey & Morrill, 1995).

#### **Demographic variables**

A number of empirical studies indicate that demographic variables are relevant to understanding employee turnover intention (Bhuain & Al-Jabri, 1996). Achoui and Mansour (2007) found that the most important studied demographic variables are age, the length of service and education. Age has been found to be negatively related to employee turnover tendency (Bhuain & Al-Jabri, 1996). Achoui and Mansour (2007) opined that younger employees have a higher probability of leaving. The relationship between education and employee turnover has also been observed, with highly educated employees more likely to leave the organization than less educated employees (Arnold & Feldman, 1982). Nonetheless, while some have found a significant positive relationship between educational qualification and intention to turnover, others have detected no relationship (Martin, 2007). Thus, these findings vary and as such non-conclusive. Similar to education, the length of service is also seen to contribute to the turnover decision. According to Gregersen and Black (1992), employees with long-work experience have been found to have a low turnover tendency.

## **Demographic Variables Affecting Job Satisfaction**

A number of studies have found that the higher the education levels, the higher the satisfaction. For example, a study by Toker (2007) revealed that employees with higher educational status had higher job satisfaction levels compared to those with lower educational status. Nevertheless, other studies have confirmed that the average satisfaction score declines with education and the highest level of job satisfaction were gained by people with no qualifications. The higher the qualifications the higher the expectations and, therefore, the more difficult to satisfy than the less educated. Some research studies, however, found the opposite. They found that workers who were highly educated had more satisfaction compared to those with lower educational levels (Martin, 2007). Also, in a study on demographic variables of university teachers in Singapore, it was indicated that while variables such as job position and age influenced the levels of job satisfaction, the variables academic qualification, gender, marital status, and length of employment had no influence of statistical significance (Paul & Phua, 2011).

Noordin and Jusoff (2009) found that the demographic factors such as current job status, marital status, age, and salary appear to have a significant impact on the respondents' level of job satisfaction. Similarly, Crossman and Harris (2006) explained age has been associated with job satisfaction, though the nature of the relationship is not clear. Also, Ssesanga and Garrett, (2005) in their study on job satisfaction of University teachers in Uganda reported age to be a

significant influence on teaching satisfaction. According to DeVaney and Chen (2003), older workers are more likely to be satisfied than younger workers. Similarly, Mello (2006) identified that job satisfaction increases with age. However, Oshagbemi (2003), found age not to be significantly related to job satisfaction.

# **Demographic variables affecting Motivation**

The study conducted by Weberova, Hitka, and Lizbetinova (2017) indicated that work motivation depends not only on the sector of employment but also on age and gender. In their findings from a study on Slovak workers' motivation, they concluded that younger adults are more motivated by a desire to increase profits and older adults are more motivated to retain what they already have. Their study concluded that there are significant differences based on gender and also indicated significant differences in motivational factors of basic salary, job security, and fair employee evaluation.

Interestingly, the employee work attitude is likely to change with respect to demographic factors such as age, gender, work tenure and education levels. Some literature on career progression suggest that over a period of time the perceptions of work evolve. As people age and experience, the expectations from work also change (Brown & Peterson 1993; Jurkiewicz &Brown, 1998). Additionally, Freund (2006) suggested that age has an impact on certain types of work motivation. It was found that perceptions of work changes, as the person ages, and as the work tenure increases as well. Also, as people age and gain experience, factors that motivate them may also change. Finally, it was underscored that as the historical and social experiences change, their work attitude changes.

## Demographic variables affecting commitment

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) examining the age factor, found that older employees tended to be more effectively committed than younger employees and so stayed longer. Taormina (1999) also found age to be a significant predictor of normative commitment. According to Martin (2007), some researchers have found that more highly educated people were more committed to working while others found near zero or no relationship between the two variables. In the study conducted by Cohen (1993), the organizational commitment of younger employees was found to be higher because they had weak job experiences and therefore had fewer opportunities for changing their jobs indicating that young employees have lower turnover intentions.

## Demographic variables and intention to quit

Various studies (Samad, 2006; Akova, Cetin & Cifci, 2015) have found significant differences among gender groups based on their intentions to quit. The turnover intentions of male employees were found to be higher than that of the female employees. Gurpreet (2007) concluded that there are significant correlations between turnover intention and demographic variables such as age, qualification, designation and it was found that age, designation, and experience are negatively and significantly correlated with turnover intentions. This shows that the intentions of an individual to leave the organization are greatly influenced by age, designation, and experience of the individual. The negative correlations reveal that with increases in age, experiences, and status in the organization the intentions to quit decreases significantly.

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

The study conducted by Mylene (2008) on 'Turnover Intent' revealed that age has a negative relationship to turnover intent, indicating that the older an employee gets the less he/she intends to leave. Similarly, the results of previous research (Bjelland et al., 2011; Couch, 2011; Lopina et al., 2012) indicated an employee's age is a factor of consideration for turnover intention. Moreover, Almalki et al., (2012) in their study revealed significant associations between turnover intention and demographic variables of gender, age, marital status, dependent children, education level, nursing tenure, organizational tenure, positional tenure, and payment per month.

Again, it is also underscored that older employees have more probability to stay longer than a younger employee. Aged workers are more likely to have financial and familiar compulsions that dictate to continue employment (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989). Young workers are free from these responsibilities so they are always ready to take the risk. Lambert

et al. (2012) indicated that decreases in turnover for older workers related to the workers amount of tenure with the organization. Employees with higher educational status were also reported to have higher job satisfaction levels (Lambert et, al., 2012). For this reason, it may be also suggested that the employees with higher job satisfaction levels have lower turnover intentions. Another related study revealed that male employees have more intentions of leaving jobs than the female employees.

## METHODOLOGY

The target population for the study consisted of all workers in the hotel industry in both Cape Coast and Elmina in the Central region of Ghana. But the accessible population was estimated to consist of 519 workers in the 40 hotels and guest houses in Cape Coast and Elmina (GTB, 2008) at the time of the study. The estimation was made based on the figures given by the various heads of the department since most of these hotels did not keep records of staff list. It was from these figures that a list was compiled by the researchers to ascertain the number of workers in each of the hotels. Thus, the estimated figures of the number of workers obtained after the compilation of the list were 128, 87, 104 and 220 in the Budget, one-star, two-star and three-star hotels respectively.

In other to get a sample size of the population of staff of hotels in the study area, the Fisher, Laing, Stoeckel, and Townsend (1998) formula for determining sample size for populations less than 10, 000 was employed. The stratified random sampling technique was used to collect the data. This sampling technique was chosen relative to the others because it is easily understood, the sample results may be projected to the target population and there is no (human) interference in the selection of the sample. However, using this sampling technique, it is often difficult to construct a sampling frame that will permit a simple random sample to be drawn. The main instrument for data collection was the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on the stated hypothesis/research questions. Both open-ended and closed-ended questions were used. The questions were on a 4-point Likert scale. In using the four-point Likert scale, the researcher used the reverse order of numbering for the weightings that were put on each response. The following responses were used: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Strongly Disagree (SD) and Disagree (D). The weightings for the responses were as follows: SA - 4, A - 3, SD - 2, D - 1. However, this scale was converted to a two-point scale for the purpose of analysis and to enable the researcher to draw clear-cut distinctions in the

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

response item by item. As such the responses SA and A were put together as positive responses while the responses of SD and D were also put together as negative responses. A mean of greater than two, interpreted as a positive score, signified the extensive presence of a particular variable. A low mean demonstrated the under-representation of the variable. Frequencies and percentages were also generated to answer research question on a solution to the problem of turnover.

## **Measurement of variables**

Five items were used for measuring satisfaction with pay; four items for satisfaction with nature of work and six items for supervision. These were adapted and modified from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) and the Index of Organisational Reaction Questionnaire (Smith, 1976). The index has been proven and widely used as a standard measurement for job satisfaction. An adapted and modified Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to measure employee commitment level, developed by Khatri and his colleagues (Khatri et al., 2001). Six items were used for the measurement of organizational commitment. The job hopping was measured on three item scale which was also developed by Khatri and his colleagues. The scale showed reliability measure of Cronbach alpha 0.71. The perceived alternative employment opportunities scale contained six items and was adopted by Michaels and Spector (1982), Arnold and Feldman (1982), Billing and Wemmerus (1983) and Mowday, Koberg and McArthur (1984). The scale showed good reliability (i.e. 0.76). The turnover intention was the dependent variable and was represented by a binary variable with 'Yes' and 'No' responses. Two hundred and sixty (260) questionnaires were administered in the hotels and guest houses. Eighty-six percent were returned and duly completed.

## **Model specification**

A logistic regression technique is employed to assess the predictive ability of an independent variable or variables with a dependent variable that has two or more categorical or continuous variable(s). For the purposes of this study, a binary logistic regression model has been used to evaluate the predictive power of sex, age, the level of education, department or division of work and the number of years or tenure an employee has worked with the present employer. The dependent variable used was intentions to leave present employer if there were an option with binary responses Yes (1) and No (0). It would be useful to capture the dependency of Y on X as a simple function, particularly when there are several explanatory variables. For example, in ordinary multiple regressions, the link function is called the identity link since

 $g(\mu_i) = \mu_i$  and so  $\mu_i = \eta_i$ , or

$$E(y_i) = x'_i \quad \beta = \mu_i = \eta_i$$

The usual assumption

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon_k$$

where  $\varepsilon_k \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$  and  $\varepsilon_i$  and  $\varepsilon_k$  are independent for  $i \neq k$ . The expectation of Y i.e

$$E(Y_i) = E(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + \varepsilon_k)$$
 and so  $\pi_i = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_k X_k$ 

For this reason, the regression model to a dummy response variable is called the probability logit model. For a Logit model

$$Logit_r(Q = 1) = \phi^{-1}(p_i) = \sum_{k=0}^{k=n} \beta_k X_{ik} = \phi(X'\beta)$$

Hence the logit model for the study is given as;

 $Logit_{k} (Y = 1) = \Phi (\beta_{0} + \beta_{1}Sex + \beta_{2}Age + \beta_{3}EDU_{i} + \beta_{4}DDW + \beta_{5}NUYE + \varepsilon_{k})$ 

Where  $\mathbf{Y} =$ Qualitative dependent variable: if a worker has intentions to leave present employer =1; if not=0.

**Sex** = Gender: Dummy variable (if male =1, otherwise (female) =0)

Age = Workers age

 $EDU_i$  = Level of Education (where i=1, 2 & 3).  $EDU_1$  = Primay,  $EDU_2$ =SSS, and  $EDU_3$ =Tertiary

**DDW**= Division of work (ranges from 1 to 5; where 1= front office, 2= administration, 3= food & beverage, 4= security and 5= transport)

NUYE= Number of years of an employee

#### Hypotheses

*H1:* There is no significant relationship between demographic variables (age, educational level) and Work attitudes (Job satisfaction; Motivation, Organisational Commitment)

*H2:* There is no significant relationship between demographic variables (sex, age, level of education, number of years worked and department of work) and intention to quit

*H3: H*<sub>0</sub>: There is no significant relationship between demographic variables (sex, age, the level of education, the number of years worked and department of work) and intention to quit.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

## Analysis of the Effects of Age on Work Attitudes

Previous studies established the older employees showed more satisfaction levels on the job that the younger employees and that age has an effect on the work attitudes of employees. Hence, it was hypothesized that age has no significant relationship with work attitudes (satisfaction). As a result of this, three satisfaction variables, which include pay rise, nature of work, and job supervision were assessed with two independent age sub-groups; young adults (ages 21-40) and old adults (ages 41 and above). The means, standard deviations, and significant scores are reported from the independent sample t-test analysis. The mean scores for young and old adults measured on the Likert scale did not differ much on the relationship between age and satisfaction with pay as means hovered approximately around 2.4 for young adults and old adults respectively.

Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

Status	N	Π	SD	Т	Sig.
Young Adult	142	2.3648	0.68981	0.035	0.002
Old Adult	57	2.3605	0.93268		
Young Adult	142	2.4888	0.52893	1.012	0.040
_					
Old Adult	57	2.5804	0.68265		
Young Adult	142	2.7505	0.52490	1.533	0.155
_					
Old Adult	57	2.8883	0.63027		
Young Adult	142	2.5070	0.52991	1.458	0.011
Old Adult	57	2.6404	0.69894		
Young Adult	142	2.8575	0.63427	0.788	0.781
Old Adult	57	2.9339	0.57750		
	StatusYoung AdultOld AdultYoung AdultOld AdultYoung AdultOld AdultOld AdultYoung AdultOld AdultOld AdultOld AdultOld AdultOld AdultOld AdultOld Adult	StatusNYoung Adult142Old Adult57Young Adult157Young Adult57Old Adult57	Status N II   Young Adult 142 2.3648   Old Adult 57 2.3605   Young Adult 142 2.4888   Old Adult 57 2.5804   Young Adult 142 2.7505   Old Adult 57 2.8883   Young Adult 142 2.5070   Old Adult 57 2.6404   Young Adult 142 2.8575   Old Adult 57 2.9339	StatusNIISDYoung Adult1422.36480.68981Old Adult572.36050.93268Young Adult1422.48880.52893Old Adult572.58040.68265Young Adult1422.75050.52490Old Adult572.88830.63027Young Adult1422.50700.52991Old Adult572.64040.69894Young Adult1422.85750.63427Old Adult572.93390.57750	StatusNIISDTYoung Adult1422.36480.689810.035Old Adult572.36050.93268Young Adult1422.48880.528931.012Old Adult572.58040.68265Young Adult1422.75050.524901.533Old Adult572.88830.63027Young Adult1422.50700.529911.458Old Adult572.64040.69894Young Adult1422.85750.634270.788Old Adult572.93390.57750

Table 1: Independent Sample t-test	comparing young	adults and old	adults on
Satisfaction variables			

Source: Field data; January 2016

In terms of individual variability, young adults could be described as a homogeneous category as their standard deviation was more or less close to zero (0.67) than old adults (0.93). This is not surprising as there were significant differences between younger adults' and older adults' level of satisfaction as far as salary levels were concerned; thus at 0.05 critical level, the null hypothesis was not supported by the available data as the relationship was rather found to be highly significant  $\rho$ =0.002. Similarly, this was the case with nature of work and motivation. Statistically significant differences were recorded between young adults and old adults for nature of work ( $\rho=0.004 < \alpha=0.05$ ) and motivation ( $\rho=0.011 < \alpha=0.05$ ). However, means of young adults and old adults were substantially different in terms of employee satisfaction  $(\rho = 0.155 > \alpha = 0.05)$ organizational measured in supervision and commitment  $(\rho=0.781>\alpha=0.05)$ . The findings of this study are therefore in consonance with the findings of Weberova, Hitka, and Lizbetinova (2017) who found from their study on Slovak workers that younger adults are more motivated by a desire to increase profits and older adults are more motivated to retain what they already have. This is understandable as people's view of life changes and varies with an increase in age. As people age and experience, the expectations from work also change (Brown & Peterson 1993; Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). However, contrary to the findings of Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Cohen (1993) younger adults and older adults' satisfaction measured in supervision and organisational commitment were not statistically significant.

# **Education on Work attitudes**

The study also sought to explore the effects of educational attainment on work attitudes (satisfaction with salaries, nature of work, supervision, motivation and organizational commitment).

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

Variable	Education	N	П	SD	F	Sig.
1. Satisfaction With Pay	Basic	18	2.5833	0.87195	3.092	0.048
	Secondary	125	2.2664	0.72551		
	Tertiary	47	2.5404	0.78343		
2. Satisfaction with Nature of Work	Basic	18	2.7917	0.60785	3.477	0.033
	Secondary	125	2.4553	0.52817		
	Tertiary	47	2.6117	0.64859		
3. Satisfaction with Supervision	Basic	18	2.8574	0.65258	0.984	0.376
1	Secondary	125	2.7547	0.53376		
	Tertiary	47	2.8780	0.55576		
4. Motivation	Basic	18	2.8361	0.75611	3.063	0.049
	Secondary	125	2.4912	0.53143		
	Tertiary	47	2.6021	0.61379		
5. Organizational Commitment	Basic	18	2.8704	0.60184	1.440	0.240
	Secondary	125	2.8416	0.66105		
	Tertiary	47	3.0199	0.47921		

Table 2: One-way ANOVA between respondents' satisfaction, r	motivation, organizational
commitment and educational level	

Source: Field data; January 2016.

These multiple hypotheses were tested to explore the effects of educational level on satisfaction (with pay, nature of work, supervision), motivation and organisational commitment (dependent variables). Since means were being explored for differences, a One-way ANOVA was used. The categories of independent variables used were: basic education, secondary, and tertiary (including higher degrees). Expectations in satisfaction as indicated by salaries were observed to be similar among basic, secondary and tertiary educational backgrounds since their means were statistically significant ( $\rho=0.048<0.05$ ). This was also amplified by the F-ratio, which was also greater than two (2), thus F=3.092. Statistically, the means among primary, secondary and tertiary level graduates were found to be similar as the p-values for nature of work (p=0.033<0.05: F=3.477) and motivation (p=0.049<0.05; F=3.063) were significant. The means of the various educational levels with supervision ( $\rho=0.984>0.05$ ) and organizational commitment ( $\rho=0.240>0.05$ ) were the same. The  $\rho$ -values for both supervision and organizational commitment showed no significant relationship. This finding is confirmed by Toker (2007) who indicated that employees with higher educational status had higher job satisfaction levels compared to those with lower educational status. This is so probably because, as confirmed by Oshagbemi (2003), the more highly-educated and the more highlyskilled workers are not only able to adapt more rapidly and efficiently to new tasks and technologies, but are also a direct source of innovation and so their market value is high and normally want jobs that are challenging enough to boost their pride. This notwithstanding, educational level of respondents was not statistically significant in respect of satisfaction with supervision and organisational commitment which contrasts the finding by Cohen (1993).

# **Demographic Variables on Intention to Quit**

A logistic regression technique is employed to assess the predictive ability of an independent variable or variables with a dependent variable that has two or more categorical or continuous variable(s). For the purposes of this study, a binary logistic regression model has been used to evaluate the predictive power of sex, age, the level of education, department or division of work and the number of years an employee has worked with the present employer. The dependent variable used was intentions to leave present employer if there were an option with binary responses Yes (1) and No (0). The reliability of the model was proven by a "goodness of fit" analysis with a p<.0026 at 0.05. This was further double-checked with Cox and Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square (pseudo R in linear regression) which produced0.151 and 0.213 respectively. This means that between 15.1% and 21.3% of the variation in the dependent variable could be explained by age, sex, educational level, department of work and number of years worked.

Variable	В	S.E.	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Gender/Sex						
Female	0.307	0.381	0.651	1	0.420	1.360
Education						
JSS	-1.434	0.960	2.232	1	0.135	0.238
Secondary	0.456	0.665	0.471	1	0.493	1.578
Graduate	0.528	0.754	0.490	1	0.484	1.695
Departments/ Di	vision of W	ork				
Front office	0.289	4.911E4	0.000	1	1.000	1.336
Administration	-0.232	4.911E4	0.000	1	1.000	0.793
Food &	-0.507	4.911E4	0.000	1	1.000	0.602
beverages						
Security	-0.484	4.911E4	0.000	1	1.000	0.616
Transport	20.249	6.346E4	0.000	1	1.000	6.225E8
Number of Years of Employee						
NUYE	0.586	0.314	3.484	1	0.062	1.798
Age Categories						
Age1	-0.230	1.530	0.023	1	0.881	0.795
Constant	0.649	4.911E4	0.000	1	1.000	1.914
				<b>R-square</b>	Snell R	0.151
					Square	
					Nagelkerke	0.213
					<b>R</b> Square	

Table 3: Logistic regression results on relatio	nship between demographic variables and
intention to quit	

Source: Field data; January 2016

The next step of the test was to assess the relevance of the predictors to intentions to leave or stay. This is provided in the model by the significant variable. The assumption here is that all the variables with p-values less than 0.05 would be considered significant and therefore, of a

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

higher predictive power. Some issues that have been considered in this direction include the direction of contribution by the various predictive variables.

As it turned out, none of the independent variables showed any significant relationship with intentions to leave. This was observed notwithstanding the fact that the predictors could account for between 15.1 and 21.3% of intentions to stay or leave, which in any case, is low. By implication, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between sex, age, educational level, department of work and years of work on one side and desire to quit cannot be rejected as none of the independent variables showed any significant relationship (refer to Table 3). Thus, contrary to previous findings that younger employees have a higher probability of leaving; that highly educated employees are more likely to leave the organization than less educated employees, and that employees with long-work experience have a low turnover tendency (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Couch, 2011, Almalki et al., 2012); Lambert et. al., 2012), demographic variables of gender, education, age, department of work and number of years worked, in this study was not significant in predicting turnover, just as was found by Martin (2007).

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study sought to find out whether demographic variables have effect on work attitudes and intentions to quit. And it found age and education to be statistically significant with satisfaction (with pay, nature of work) and motivation. This might be explained in respect of generational differences. This generation of people (Baby boomers -born between 1965 – 1978) and millennials – born between 1980 – 2000) have often been described as having different views or attitudes towards a variety of workforce issues, such as work related expectations; organizational commitment; job satisfaction; strategies to achieve success; and personal and work priorities (Dilworth, 2005). As the literature suggests, employee work attitude is likely to change with respect to demographic factors such as age, gender, work tenure and education levels and that over a period of time the perceptions of work evolve. As such, as people age and gain experience, factors that motivate them may also change.

These have very important implications for management. Employees can move out of an organization at any time if they realize that their expectations are not being met. This means that measures must be put in place to help organisations and their managers recognize that each diversity dimension in respect of demographics is important, unique and requires different skills and approaches to manage. Accordingly, it is recommended that managers plan to ensure that Human resource policies are tailored to meet and satisfy the specific needs of each age group as what might motivate the younger generation may not have the same effect on the older generation. Also, though the hypothesis that demographic variables influenced turnover intention was not supported in this study, issues of satisfaction and motivation have been well established in literature to significantly predict turnover. As such practices to enhance a more motivated and satisfied workforce would be appropriate.

## REFERENCES

Achoui, M. & Mansour, M. (2007). Employee turnover and retention strategies: Evidence from Saudi Companies. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, *3*(*3*),1-16.

Abubakar, R.A., Chauhan, A. & Kura, K.M. (2014). Role of demographic variables in

- predicting turnover intention among registered nurses in Nigerian public hospitals. International Journal of Business and Technopreneurship, 4(3), 373-383.
- Akova, O., Cetin, G.& Cifci, I. (2015). The relation between demographic factors and the
- turnover intention in pre-opening hotel businesses. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 207, 377-384.
- Akpa, V.O & Asikhia, O.U. (2016). Effects of demographic factors on employees' intention to leave in selected
- private universities in Southwest, Nigeria. The International Journal of Business & Management, 4(10), 322-330.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Organizational commitment: Evidence of career stage Effects? *Journal of Business Research*, *26*, 49-61.
- Almalki, M. J., FitzGerald, G., & Clark, M. (2012). The relationship between quality of work
- life and turnover intention of primary health care nurses in Saudi Arabia. *BMC Health Services Research*, 12, 314-325.
- Amarasena, T.S.M, Ajward, A.R. & Haque, A.K.M.A. (2015). The effects of demographic factors on job
- satisfaction of university faculty members in Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Academic Research and Reflection*, 3(4), 89-106.
- Arnold, H.J., & Feldman, D.C. (1982). A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67(3), 350-360.
- Bender, K. A., & Heywoo, J. S. (2006). Job Satisfaction of the highly educated: The role of gender, academic tenure, and Earnings. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 53(2), 253-279.
- Baum, T. (2006). Human resource management for the tourism, hospitality and leisure: An
- international perspective. London: Delmar Thomson Learning.
- Baum, T. (2007). Human Resources in Tourism: Still Waiting for Change. *Tourism Management*, 1(28), 1383-1399.
- Blum, T. C., Gilson, L.L., & Shalley, C.E. (2000). Matching creativity requirements and the work environment: effects on satisfaction and intentions to leave. Academy of Management Journal, 43(2), 215-224.
- Boles, J. S., Ross, L., & Johnson, J. (1995). Reducing employee turnover through the use of pre-employment application demographics: An exploratory study. *Journal of Hospitality and*
- *Tourism Research*, 19, 19-30.
- Brookfield, H.B. (1998). The impact of flexible benefits plans on job satisfaction,
- organizational commitment and turnover intention. Benefits Quarterly, 10, 84-90.
- Brown, E. A., Arendtb, S. W., & Bosselmanc, R. H. (2014). Hospitality management
- graduates' perceptions of career factor importance and career factor experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27,58–67.
- Burgess, S. (1998). Analyzing firms, jobs, and turnover. *Monthly Labor Review*, 121(7), 55-58.
- Castillo, J. X., & Cano, J. (2004). Factors explaining job satisfaction among faculty. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 45(3), 72.
- Clarke, C.F. (2001). What businesses are doing to attract and retain employee: Becoming an employer of choice. *Benefits Journal*, *3*, 34-37.
- Cohen, A. (1993). Age and Tenure in Relation to Organizational Commitment: A Meta-Analysis. Basic and Applied Social Psychology, pp. 143-149.
- Cotton, J. & Tuttle, J. (1986). Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implication for research. *Academy of Management Review*, *11* (1), 55-70.
- Cranny, C.J., Smith, R.C. & Stone, E.F. (1992). Job satisfaction: How people feel about their

jobs and how it affects their performance. New York: Lexington

Crossman, A., & Harris, P. (2006). Job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership, 34(1), 29-46.* 

DeVaney, S. A., & Chen, Z. S. (2003a). Job Satisfaction of recent graduates in Financial

services, US Department of Labour. Bureau of Labour Statistics Compensation and Working Conditions Online.

Dodd-McCue, D., & Wright, G.B. (1996). Men, women and attitudinal commitment: The effects of workplace experiences and socialization. *Human Relations*, 49, 1065-1089.

Demir, M.C. (2002). Job satisfaction of nurses working at Turkish Military Forces hospitals. *Military Medicine*, *167*, 402-404.

Fishbein, M. & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research.* Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Fisher, A.A., Laing, J.E., Stoeckel, J.E. & Townsend, J.W. (1998). *Handbook for family planning operations research design*. New York: Population Council.

Gregersen, H.B. & Black, J.S. (1982). Antecedents to commitment to a parent company and a foreign operation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *35*, 65-90.

Hackett, R.D., Bycio, P., & Hausdorf, P.A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organization commitment, *Journal of Applied Psychology*,

79(1), 15-23.

Hinkin, T. R., & Tracey, J. B. (2000). The cost of turnover. The Cornell hotel and restaurant. *Administration Quarterly*,41(3),14-21.

Hong, L. C., & Kaur, S. (2008). A relationship between organizational climate, employee

personality and intention to leave. International Review of Business Research Papers, 4(3), 1-10.

Kunu, E.K., Mahama, F., Boahen, P.A.N. & Denu, M.K.W. (2017). Effect of employee turnover on the

- performance of Zoomlion Ghana. Journal of Business and Economic Development, 2(2), 116-122.
- Khatri N., Fern T. C., & Budhwar, P. (2001). Explaining employee turnover in an Asian context. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *11*(1), 54-74.

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2001). Organisational behaviour. Chicago, IL: Irwin.

Larkey, L., & Morrill, C. (1995). Organizational commitment as symbolic process. *Western Journal of Communication*, *59*(*3*), 193-213.

Lee, D.-C., Hung, L.-M., & Chen, M.-L. (2012). Empirical study on the influence among

corporate sponsorship, organizational commitment, organizational cohesiveness and turnover intention. Journal of Management and Sustainability, 2(2), p43.

Lambert, E.G., Hogan, N.L & Barton, S.M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: A test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. *The Social* 

Science Journal, 38, 233-250. Lambert, E. G., Cluse-Tolar, T., Pasupuleti, S., Prior, M., & Allen, R. I. (2012). A test of a

turnover intent model. Administration in Social Work, 36, 67-84.

Malik, N. (2011). Study of job satisfaction factors of faculty members at university of Baluchistan. *International Journal of Academic Research*, *3*(1), 267-272.

Matin, H. Z., Kalali, N. S., & Anvari, M. R. (2012). Do demographic variables moderate the

relationship between job burnout and its consequences? Iranian Journal of Management Studies, 5(1), 47-62.

Martin, C.L., & Bennett, N. (1996). The role of justice judgments in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *Group and Organization* 

Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

Management, 21(1), 84-104.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A Review and meta-analysis of the antecedents,

correlates and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.

- McCaul, H.S., Hinsz, V.B., & Mc Kaul, K.D. (1995). Assessing organizational commitment: An
- employee's global attitude toward the organization. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Sciences* 31(3), 80-90.

Mehboob, F., Sarwar, M. A., & Bhutto, N. A. (2012). Factors affecting job satisfaction among faculty member. Asian Journal of Business and Management Sciences, 1(12), 1-9.

Mello, J. (2006). Strategic human resources management. Ohio: Thompson South Western.

Meyer J.P. & Allen N. J. (1997). Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Michaels, C. E., & Spector, P. E. (1982). Causes of employee turnover: A test of the Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67(1), 53–59.

Mobley, W. (1982). Employee turnover: Causes, consequences, and control. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Mohsin, A., Lengler, J., & Bhupesh, K. (2013). Exploring the antecedents of intentions to

leave the job: The case of Luxury hotel staff. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 35,48-58.

Moguerou, P. (2002). Job satisfaction among US Ph.D. graduates: the effects of gender and employment sector. mimeo University de Bourgogne.

Mowday, R.T., Koberg, C.S., & McArthur, A.W. (1984). The Psychology of the withdrawal

process: a cross-validational test of Mobley's intermediate linkages model of turnover in two samples. Academy of Management Journal, 27, 79-94.

Odon, R.Y., Boxx, W.R. & Dunn, M.G. (1990). Organizational cultures, commitment, satisfaction and cohesion. *Public and Management Review*, *14*, 157-168

Ologunde, A.O., Asaolu, T.O. & Elumilade, D.O., (2006). Motivation and labour turnover

among University teachers in south-western Nigeria. Research Journal of International Studies, 2, 47-65.

Oshagbemi, T. (2003). Personal correlates of job satisfaction: empirical evidence from UK universities. International Journal of Social Economics, 30(12), 1210-1232.

Pepra-Mensah, J., Adjei, L.N. & Yeboah-Appiagyei, K. (2015). The Effect of Work Attitudes on Turnover

Intentions in the Hotel Industry: The Case of Cape Coast and Elmina (Ghana). European Journal of Business and Management, 7(14), 114-121.

Reichel, A., & Pizam, A. (1984). Job satisfaction, lifestyle and demographics of U.S.

hospitality industry worker versus others. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 3(3),123-133.

Rutherford, D. G. (1990). *Hotel management and operations*. New York, NY: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Santhapparaj, A. S., & Alam, S. S. (2005). Job satisfaction among academic staff in private universities in Malaysia. *Journal of Social Sciences*, *1*(2), 72-76.

Samad, S. (2006). The contribution of demographic variables: Job characteristics and job

satisfaction on turnover intentions. Journal of International Management Studies, 1(1), 1-12

Schyns, B., Torka, N., & Gössling, T. (2007). Turnover intention and preparedness for change: Exploring leader-member exchange and occupational self-efficacy as antecedents of two employability predictors. *Career Development International*, 12(7), 660-679.

Sseganga, K., & Garrett, R. M. (2005). Job satisfaction of university academics: Perspectives

\_Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org)

from Uganda. Higher Education, 50, 33-56.

Sepehri, M., Batman, O., Kıngır, S., & Arpaci, Ö. (2014). A survey review in conflict

- management strategies: The case study for selected hotels in Turkey. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 16,1-10.
- Sheridan, J.E. (1992). Organizational culture and employee retention. *Academy of Management Journal*, *35*, 1036-1056.

Strydom, A. (2011). The Job satisfaction of academic staff members on fixed-term

- employment contracts at South African Higher Education Institutes. University of the Free State Faculty of Education.
- Syed, A. A. S. G., Nadeem, B., Sabir, M., Faiz, M., Shaikh, & Hina, S. (2012). Job Satisfaction of Faculty Members of Universities in Pakistan: A Case Study of University of Sindh-Jamshoro. *Modern Applied Science*, 6(7).

Susskind, A. M., Borchgrevink, C. P., Kacmar, K. M., & Brymer, R. A. (2000). Customer

service employees' behavioral intentions and attitudes: An examination of construct validity and a path model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 19(1),* 53-77.

Taormina, R.J. (1999). Predicting employee commitment and satisfaction: The relative effects of socialization and demographics. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *10*(6), 1060-1076.

Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178-201.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover

intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, *46*(2), 259-293.

Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *63*(*3*), 473–489. Ward, M. E., & Sloane, P. J. (2000). Non-pecuniary advantages vs. pecuniary disadvantages:

job satisfaction among male and female academics in Scottish universities. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 47, 273-303.

Weberova, D., Hitka, M. & Lizbetinova, L. (2017). Age and gender motivating differences of Slovak workers. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 7(1), 505-513.

Weiss, D.J., Dawis, R.V., England, G.W., & Lofquist, L.H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire: Minnesota studies in vocational rehabilitations. Minneapolis: Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota.

Wong, C.S., Chun, H., & Law, K.S. (1996). Casual relationship between attitudinal antecedents to turnover. Academy of Management, 342-346.