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A Quantitative Examination of Millennial Turnover in Higher Education

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This dissertation, directed and approved by the candidate's committee, has been accepted by the College of Graduate and Professional Studies of Abilene Christian University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

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A Quantitative Examination of Millennial Turnover Intention in Higher Education

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

De'Aira Marie Kennemer

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Abstract

It has been argued that millennials are estimated to comprise 51% of the workplace population, making them the largest generation in the workforce. Although there are multiple generations in the workplace, it is important for employers to begin to understand the values and needs of the millennial generation due to their sheer size. There is a high level of turnover within the millennial generation. The costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees can often equal or exceed 100% of that position being filled. This quantitative study aimed to examine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. Identifying these factors may allow researchers to identify methods that could help leaders in higher education to improve retention strategies with this generation. A cross-sectional survey method was determined as this study's best research design. The researcher used an online survey deployed on the Google Forms platform to collect the study's data. The sampling method for this survey was a nonprobability convenience model. The target sample was 100, and the total number of surveys analyzed was 341. To address the research question, the researcher conducted a correlational analysis. The Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to measure bivariate relationships between each of the totals of the Job Satisfaction Scale and subscales and the Turnover Intention Scale-6. A significant relationship was revealed between each of the job satisfaction subscales and intent to leave. The data analysis revealed that supervision, contingent rewards, and nature of work subscales all had a large effect size with the participants. This could be important for leaders in higher education, as these are three key areas that impact job satisfaction amongst the millennial generation.

Keywords: millennials, turnover, turnover intention, job satisfaction, workplace

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

Multiple generations are working together in U.S. workplaces. The most common are baby boomers, Generation X, millennials (also known as Generation Y), and Generation Z (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019; Srivastava & Banerjee, 2016). It is argued that millennials comprise up to an estimated 51% of the workplace population, making them the largest generation in the workforce (Ruiz & Davis, 2017). These so-called tech-savvy, trophy kids have entered the U.S. workplace at exponential rates, bringing with them their different attitudes, values, and motivations (Bolser & Gosciej, 2015; Ferri-Reed, 2015). Organizations must quickly realize that as the older generations leave the workplace, the millennials are present and require more flexibility and work-life balance to prevent turnover (Ferri-Reed, 2015). It will be important for organizations not only to understand why millennials leave but also what would encourage them to stay (Ferri-Reed, 2015).

This chapter outlines the background of the problem and the theoretical framework and provides a statement of the problem. This chapter also includes the study's purpose, the main research question, and the definition of key terms. Lastly, the chapter concludes with a summary.

Background of the Problem

Although there are multiple generations in the workplace, it is important for employers to begin to understand the values and needs of the millennial generation because of their sheer size. Each generation brings a different set of values to the workplace. For example, the older generations may have similarities when it comes to the workplace, such as monetary reward motivations and similar retention and recruitment strategies (Ng et al., 2010). In contrast, millennial workers prefer work-life balance, meaningful work, and flexibility (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010; Ng et al., 2010). However, according to Rigoni and Adkins (2016), baby

boomers find overall compensation more important at a company. These generations, like the others, have different characteristics that shape them and influence what they bring to the workplace.

Baby boomers, one of the older generations in the workplace, are defined as individuals born in the United States during the years 1943 and 1960 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). A major event that affected this generation was World War II. Individuals considered part of the baby boomer generation married early and were very loyal in their positions at work, whether they were satisfied or not (Colby & Ortman, 2014). Lastly, baby boomers are considered to be workaholics.

Generation X members (Gen Xers) are individuals born between 1961 and 1980 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). A couple of notable events that impacted this generation included the birth control pill's introduction in 1962 and the infamous Roe v. Wade court ruling (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Another factor that impacted this generation was that families were changing due to divorce rates rising during this period and workplaces experienced more women coming to work, which caused Generation Xers to become latch key kids (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Millennials were born between the years 1981 and 2000 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). This generation is said to be more numerous, more affluent, better educated, and more ethnically diverse than any other generation in U.S. history (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Millennials tend to place "parenthood and marriage far above career and financial success" (Zickuhr, 2010, p. 2). This may have something to do with the 9/11 event. This event alone created fears and life-changing moments that the millennials experienced, and they felt that life was too short to be unhappy (DeChane, 2014). This generation has been called the trophy kid generation, coined because participation trophies were given out for being on a team and not necessarily winning or

being the best (Nguyen Sin, 2017). According to Nimon (2007), millennials have also been described as "more confident and optimistic than the generations preceding them, especially when compared to the cynical and individualistic Generation Xers" (p. 41). At times, millennials' confidence and optimism can be interpreted as arrogance and viewed negatively by other generations (Nguyen Sin, 2017). Millennials are also considered to be special at birth (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Generation Z members, also known as Gen Zs, are born between the years 1997 and 2013 (Schroth, 2019). According to Singh (2014), this generation has been exposed to global challenges such as global warming and terrorism. Singh (2014) stated that this generation's emerging characteristics are that they are "tech-savvy, prematurely mature, pampered, empowered, risk-adverse, and protected" (p. 59). Gen Zs have fewer siblings than previous generations, which allowed more time, money, and affection to be devoted entirely to members of this generation (Singh, 2014).

Although multiple generations are in the workplace, turnover is higher among millennials than other generations (Ertas, 2015; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019; Kowske et al., 2010). This is important because Nguyen Sin (2017) predicted that by the year 2022, millennials will be the largest generation in the workplace. If organizations do not find effective ways to reduce the turnover rate among these young employees, the cost associated with recruiting, selecting, and training will likely continue to increase (Allen et al., 2010). Millennial turnover costs the U.S. workforce $30.5 million annually (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019).

Theoretical Framework

Mannheim (1952) first investigated the phenomenon of generations, stating that people who were born and grew up during the same time would often share the same experiences and,

therefore, begin to shape the development of that culture's generation. Mannheim (1952) is credited with establishing the core beliefs of the theory of generations and the term *age cohort*. Mannheim's work defines generations as 20 years in length, representing the time between one's birth and the time of conceiving one's first child (Twenge et al., 2010). According to Mannheim (1952), "generations are shaped by the common salient historical experiences that occurred during their childhood and early adulthood" (p. 280).

Although Mannheim's (1952) theory mentions that social change may happen during generational timeframes, he stated that a major historical event might not occur. However, Mannheim (1952) stated that major historical events generally happen during times of social change. According to Mannheim (1952), individuals with the generational groups may still have different views and experiences that are related to the major historical events due to some of, but not limited to, the following: location, social class, education, culture, and economic status. Mannheim's (1952) theory specifically highlighted the importance of historical events in the 1960s, which help shaped many attitudes and beliefs about important social issues, such as the Civil Rights Movement.

Strauss and Howe's (1991) research on generations is one of the most cited in recent research. Strauss and Howe's (1991) theory is slightly different from Mannheim's (1952) theory of generations. Strauss and Howe's (1991) theory is defined as the idea that each generation responds to the previous generation. However, Mannheim's theory of generations is that major historical events change society more quickly, in a much more direct, linear way (DeChane, 2014). Generations are defined by more than similar birth years but also by the social and world events that happened during that time.

Using both Strauss and Howe's (1991) and Mannheim's (1952) theories together may help explain how a generation emerges and how previous generations and historical events influenced it. Using the Civil Rights Movement as an example of how using both Strauss and Howe's (1991) and Mannheim's (1952) theories can be applied. The baby boomer generation was impacted the most by the inequalities and injustices during the 1960s in the United States. Members of this generation were compelled to become involved in fighting against many of the civil injustices during this time (Mannheim, 1952). However, Generation X, the generation that followed the baby boomers, were less involved in social movements due to the fact there were fewer historical events during their childhood (Mannheim, 1952). Due to this, Gen Xers were less likely to become involved in social issues and make changes that affected society (Mannheim, 1952).

Statement of the Problem

According to Dimock (2019), President of the Pew Research Center, millennials became the largest generation in the U.S. workplace in 2016. It is projected that this generation will make up 75% of the workplace by the year 2024 (Dimock, 2019). According to researchers, leaders of organizations find it challenging to retain millennials (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Gong et al., 2018). The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020) reported that the average tenure among the older generations (9.9 years) was higher than younger generations (2.8 years). The costs associated with recruiting, selecting, and training new employees can often equal or exceed 100% of that position being filled (Allen et al., 2010). According to Adkins (2016) and Ivanović and Ivančević (2019), millennial turnover costs the U.S. economy $30.5 billion annually and $284–$469 billion in lost productivity. The problem examined was if a significant relationship

between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education existed (Kilber et al., 2014).

There is a high level of turnover within the millennial generation, and, according to Queiri et al. (2015), millennial employees have 18 months of average job tenure compared to four years for other generational groups in the workplace. However, previous studies failed to show specific factors that caused millennials to leave or intend to leave organizations, specifically colleges and universities (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). Early research showed that job satisfaction and job turnover were directly correlated; however, those studies did not use age as a variable (Ghiselli et al., 2001). With the millennials being the largest generation in the workplace, it is important to understand what factors impact their decision to leave organizations, especially institutions of higher education (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Herd et al., 2012; Stewart et al., 2017).

Turnover among millennials is higher than any other generation in the workplace and is costing organizations money and resources (Schawbel, 2013; United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). This current research involved the exploration of job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention and if a significant relationship existed. This research focused primarily on millennials within higher education. The findings could support efforts to increase employee retention that save institutions from investing the time and money necessary to replace these individuals. Due to millennials being the largest generation in the workplace, it is important to identify what factors cause turnover or turnover intention.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative study's purpose was to examine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. Identifying

these factors may allow researchers to identify methods that could help leaders in higher education to improve retention strategies with this generation. The participants considered for this study were millennials born between 1981 and 2000 who worked at two-year and four-year institutions in the United States (Kilber et al., 2014). Higher education leaders may find more effective ways to retain millennials from this study's results.

Research Question

RQ. Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education?

Definition of Key Terms

Baby boomers. Individuals who were born between the years 1946 and 1964 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019).

Employee engagement. The simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors that promote connections to work and to others, personal (physical, cognitive, emotional), and active, full role performances (Kahn, 1990, p. 700).

Generation. A group of individuals born within the same historical and sociocultural context who experience the same formative experiences and develop unifying commonalities as a result (Lyons & Kuron, 2014, p. 140).

Generation X. Individuals who are born between the years 1960 and 1980 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019).

Generation Y/millennials. Individuals born between the years 1981 and 2000 (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019).

Generation Z. Individuals born between the years 1997 and 2013 (Schroth, 2019).

Job satisfaction. A pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Colquitt et al., 2013).

Motivation. Defined as "the willingness to do something conditioned upon the action's ability to satisfy some need for the individual" (Jensen, 2018, p. 93).

Self-efficacy. The belief in oneself and their own capabilities to execute courses of action needed to meet given situational demands (Carter et al., 2016).

Turnover. The termination of an individual's employment with a particular company or organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Turnover intention. An employee's conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave a particular company or organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Veterans. Individuals born before 1946 are also known as traditionalists or the Silent Generation (Clark & Eastland, 2019).

Chapter Summary

There are multiple generations currently in the workplace; however, millennials are the largest generation in the workplace due to them being the largest generation to date (Herd et al., 2012). This generation brings different characteristics and work values to the workplace, and employers find it challenging to recruit and retain these young workers. For employers to save time and resources, it is important to investigate what factors cause turnover or turnover intention among millennials. Chapter 2 provides contextual research regarding generational differences and multigenerational workplaces. Also, the next chapter explores research on differences among the generations in the workplace, job satisfaction, employee engagement, employee motivation, work attitudes, and turnover intention, specifically among millennials.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review provides research regarding generational differences in U.S. workplaces, specifically turnover among millennials. This literature review includes literature search methods, the theoretical framework, and challenges with generational cohorts and theories. Then this chapter is organized into five core areas. The first core area, generational cohorts and multigenerational workplace, summarizes each of the generations: veterans/traditionalists, baby boomers, Generation X, Generation Y/millennials, and Generation Z. This area discusses the differences each generation brings to the workplace and the impact. Lastly, this area includes each generation's attributes and workplace characteristics. The next core area presents research on millennials in the workplace, specifically, their needs and career expectations. The third core area documents previous research regarding generational job satisfaction and work attitudes. The fourth core area includes research surrounding employee engagement and motivation. The fifth and final core area focuses on research that defines workplace turnover and turnover intention. This area also provides research on how turnover impacts the workplace. This chapter concludes with a summary.

Literature Search Methods

For a better understanding of previous studies, theories, and examinations, Abilene Christian University library's resources, ProQuest, and EBSCO, were used to search keywords such as *millennials*, *millennials in the workplace*, *millennial workplace turnover*, *millennial workplace turnover intention*, *multigenerational workplaces*, *workplace diversity*, *workplace turnover*, and *workplace turnover intention in the workplace dating back from 2012 to 2020*. The diverse interests in understanding millennial employees ranged from the military, education, hospitality, social and public services, medical care, library services, and information

technology. The keywords *millennial* and *workplace turnover* also produced additional studies

that included retention and turnover of millennials in the workplace, job satisfaction of

millennials, workplace engagement in millennials, and turnover intentions and job-hopping

among millennials.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study utilized the theory of generations, also known as

the sociology of generations. Karl Mannheim (1952) first investigated the phenomenon of

generations. Mannheim (1952) believed that people who were born and grew up during the same

time period would often share the same experiences and, therefore, begin to shape the

development of the culture of that generation. Credit has been given for establishing the core

beliefs of the theory of generations and the term age cohort, and his work defines generations as

20 years in length, representing the time between one's birth and the time of conceiving one's

first child (Codrington, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010).

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research. Strauss and Howe's (1991) theory was slightly different from Mannheim's (1952)

theory of generations. Strauss and Howe's (1991) theory is defined as the idea that each

generation responds to the previous generation. However, Mannheim's (1952) theory of

generations is defined by major historical events that change society more quickly in a much

more direct, linear way (DeChane, 2014). Generations are defined by more than similar birth

years but also by the social and world events that happened during that time.

Using both Strauss and Howe's (1991) and Mannheim's (1952) theories together may

help explain how a generation emerges and how previous generations and historical events

influenced it. The Civil Rights Movement is an example of how using both Strauss and Howe's

(1991) and Mannheim's (1952) theories can be applied. Baby boomers were impacted the most by the inequalities and the injustices during the 1960s in the United States. Members of this generation were compelled to become involved in fighting against many of the civil injustices during this time (Mannheim, 1952). However, Generation X, the generation that followed the baby boomers, was less involved in social movements because of fewer historical events during their childhood (Mannheim, 1952). Due to this, Gen Xers were less likely to become involved in social issues and make changes that affected society (Mannheim, 1952).

Generational theories can be used to explain or interpret behaviors in the workplace. Belonging to a particular generation may influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organization (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). For example, if a particular generation experienced economic hardship during their childhood, they may be more inclined to remain in a job due to the notion that work was difficult to find during their childhood years (Kuyken, 2012). According to Mannheim (1952), the generation an individual belongs to determines the importance that the individual places on their job versus other priorities in their life. For example, in the case of turnover intention within higher education, an employee may want to leave their position; however, their parents may have lost a job during their childhood. Therefore, the employee decides to stay in their current position.

Also, individuals that have been influenced by technology, national security threats from terrorists, and sustainability challenges during their childhood may place more importance on these topics, especially in the workplace, than other members belonging to generations that may not have experienced those events during their childhood (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Researchers have demonstrated how generational theory can help predict how generational differences affect the workplace and how those can influence the diverse workplace attitudes and perceptions

(Rajput et al., 2013). Due to the historical events that took place during an individual's childhood and the influences of the previous generation, generational theory and the theory of generations can provide insight into an employee's behaviors related to motivation, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Employers of organizations and institutions have to now manage workplaces with multiple generations and cohorts. The generational cohort theory states that generational differences impact the values, morals, and work ethics among various employees (Mannheim, 1952). It is imperative that employers understand the generational differences that exist in this multigenerational workplace to develop strategies to motivate and retain these workers. The findings of this study may be used to identify research gaps and demonstrate the need for future research.

Challenges With Generational Theories and Cohorts

According to Fernández-Durán (2016), the term cohort was developed to describe a group of individuals born during the same time period and had the same historical events shape their lives. Clark (2017) stated that these individuals in the same cohort develop a sense of collective ideas that become a part of the cohort persona. In addition, it is also said that these individuals then develop similar attitudes, motivations, influences, values, and views. The idea of cohorts is essential to the study of generations to understand how a group of people born during the same time are similar (Fernández-Durán, 2016).

According to Hernaus and Vokic (2014), the knowledge about generational cohorts is mostly theoretical due to there being no real boundaries between the generations. This has led to criticism of generational cohorts, where it has been said that this theory is either too broad or too general. Mannheim (1952) described generational cohorts using influential and historical events

that happened during the time of that particular generation, such as war, media, cultural events, press, etc. This has caused literature to define several different generations. According to Hernaus and Vokic (2014), there have been known variances in dates to describe cohorts, and it is known that members of each generation possess their own attitudes, values, and characteristics. It has been said that it is impossible to define a cohort by birth date or cultural movement (Hernaus & Vokic, 2014). Despite several criticisms, using generational theory to describe groups remains one of the leading approaches in social science and useful techniques seeking to understand generational differences and similarities and combining Strauss and Howe's (1991) and Mannheim's (1952) theories assisted in this study.

Generational Cohorts and Multigenerational Workplaces

A generation is an identifiable group that shares birth years, location, and significant life actions at crucial growth stages, separated by five to seven years into the first wave, core group, and the last wave (Kupperschmidt, 2000, as cited by Srivastava & Banerjee, 2016). Each generation's unique experiences shape their behaviors and attitudes (Kilber et al., 2014). Although there are six cohorts of generations, in 2020, there are four major generations in the U.S. workforce, baby boomers (born between 1946–1964), Generation X (1965–1979), millennials (1980–2000), and Gen Zs (1997–2013; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019; Kilber et al., 2014; Srivastava & Banerjee, 2016).

Veterans

Veterans are individuals born before 1946 and are the oldest American generation (Clark & Eastland, 2019). This generation is also known as the traditional or Silent Generation (Clark & Eastland, 2019). Clark and Eastland (2019) described this generation as "loyal, civil, reliable, and patriotic" (p. 443). In the workplace, this generation is motivated by retirement and leisure

activities (Clark & Eastland, 2019). Lastly, veterans believe that they should be compensated for their hard work, and they like to be recognized for years of service and dedication (Clark & Eastland, 2019).

Baby Boomers

Baby boomers are individuals born between 1946 and 1964. This generation can be described as the oldest generation in the U.S. workplace (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). The term baby boomers was coined because when the men returned from fighting in World War II, the birth rate increased, thus creating a baby boom (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Major historical events shaped their values, such as John F. Kennedy's assassination, the Civil Rights Movement, Woodstock, the walk on the moon, the women's rights movement, the Vietnam War, and the Cold War (Spiegel, 2013). The baby boomer generation finds value in loyalty, stability, positive work ethic, and financial security (Gursoy et al., 2008). Baby boomers tend to gravitate to financially stable companies. Baby boomers have a sense of obligation to contribute to the company and mentor the younger generational workers.

Baby boomers are very committed and loyal to the companies that they work for; as a result, baby boomers often believe in hard work and often expect to be rewarded, which shows that it has paid off (Gursoy et al., 2008). Therefore, companies have a better chance of retaining this generation by showing appreciation for employees' careers and the contributions their employees make (Gibson et al., 2009). Baby boomers are described as very disciplined and goal-oriented. They tend to work weekends, stay late, and go what they believe is the extra mile. Their work lives are the center of their being (Chen & Choi, 2008; Gibson et al., 2009; Lieber, 2010).

The baby boomer generation has high divorce and second marriage rates, which may be due to their high commitment to their careers (Thompson, 2011). Like veterans, baby boomers

prefer face-to-face, in-person communication. They are team players, and they prefer meetings. They are motivated by money and will work overtime (Gibson et al., 2009). This cohort is not likely to change jobs, oftentimes only working for one employer or organization throughout their careers (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020), much like the veterans, baby boomers stay at companies for an average of 10 years. Some members of this generation are also currently retiring from organizations.

Generation X

Members of Generation X, or Gen Xers, are those born between 1960 and 1980. Generation X has fewer members than both the baby boomers and the millennials (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). Historical events that shaped Gen Xers' values were the AIDS epidemic, the Los Angeles riots, the introduction of personal computers, the recession, and high divorce rates (Spiegel, 2013). The core values of this generation are flexibility, skepticism, fun, independence, and self-reliance (Chen & Choi, 2008). Becton et al. (2014) stated that many Gen Xers were home alone after school while their parents were at work. This has made this generation extremely independent.

This generation has been described as self-sufficient, independent, well educated, and skeptical (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). This generation is good with technology and incorporating it into the workplace. Companies that attract this generation are ones that promote a work-life balance and flexibility in the work schedule and good benefits (Crampton & Hodge, 2007). According to Ivanović and Ivančević (2019), Gen Xers value quality over quantity. Although they are adaptable, they prefer flexible work arrangements (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). Generation Xers are committed to their work; however, work-life balance is very

important to them. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020) stated that Gen Xers'

average tenure at a company is between five to eight years.

Generation Y or Millennials

Generation Y, or millennials (1980–2000), are currently the largest cohort and claimed to

be 50% of the U.S. workforce by 2020 and 75% of the global workforce by 2030 (Ivanović, &

Ivančević, 2019; Kilber et al., 2014). There are somewhere between 50 million and 80 million

millennials in the U.S. workforce (Kilber et al., 2014). This generation is the most educated

generation to date (Kilber et al., 2014). Millennials are the first generation born into the Internet

age (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). An empirical study conducted by Stewart et al. (2017)

suggested that millennials did not link organizational commitment with workplace culture.

According to Bresman (2015), millennials stated that work-life balance was important to them;

however, it means work-me balance, not necessarily work-family balance.

While many researchers stated significant differences between generations in the

workplace, Pfau (2016) stated that some studies concluded no meaningful differences among

generations in the workplace. Pfau (2016) noted that it was not that those born after 1980 were

narcissists, it was young people, in general, are narcissists, and those young people will get over

themselves as they age. Pfau (2016) suggested that millennials and older workers have many of

the same career goals, such as positively impacting an organization or doing passionate work.

Pfau (2016) also stated that many employees under the age of 35 often explore their career

opportunities by job-hopping, and this has been true for the last two decades.

Generation Z or Gen Z

Generation Z (1997–2013) members are now entering the workplace (Schroth, 2019).

According to Schroth (2019), only around 19% of the 15- to 17-year-olds reported having

worked in 2017, compared to 30% of millennials during 2002 when they were 15 to 17 years old. Schroth (2019) attributed this lack of work experience to this generation because they live in households with higher median incomes than previous generations. Therefore, employers will now have to manage youthful and inexperienced employees (Schroth, 2019). This generation has been characterized as "very achievement-oriented, desire on-going professional development, and promotion opportunities within their organizations" (Schroth, 2019, p. 9). Another characteristic of Gen Z is that a significant number of these members report suffering from depression and anxiety (Schroth, 2019). This generation has the highest diagnosed rate of depression, with anxiety a close second (Schroth, 2019). Understanding this about this generation, organizations may consider mental health resources for their employees.

An analysis of literature conducted by Rajput et al. (2013) explored the significant differences among generations in the workplace. Rajput et al. (2013) stated that where millennials value a participative approach to work, Gen Xers value autonomy and independence in the workplace. Through the literature analysis, the researchers also discovered that while status, pension, and benefits security motivate the baby boomers, more intrinsic factors such as recognition and a sense of achievement motivate Gen Xers (Rajput et al., 2013). Millennials are also motivated by both extrinsic and intrinsic factors; however, unlike the baby boomer generation, it is pay and job security, although this generation will change jobs more quickly than other generations (Rajput et al., 2013). According to Rajput et al. (2013), millennials prefer managers who provide instant feedback and have a participative leadership style, whereas Gen Xers prefer to work with managers who allow them to have authority and autonomy at work (Rajput et al., 2013).

Baby boomers prefer managers that are influential and are honest. Although Rajput et al. (2013) highlighted differences among the generations, research suggested that existing differences in the workplace were not due to the different generations as many similarities do exist (Clark & Eastland, 2019). Clark and Eastland (2019) conducted a study to examine the generational differences in the medical imaging department. The researchers received a 76% completion rate from the survey sent to the participants who work in medical imaging departments. Four generational cohorts (veterans, baby boomers, Generation X, and millennials) were identified from the participants' demographic information provided. The results suggested more similarities among the various generations than differences (Clark & Eastland, 2019). According to Clark and Eastland (2019), baby boomers, Generation Xers, and millennials in this field were quick learners, were technologically savvy, sought work-life balance, and were motivated by praise.

Although there were no significant generational differences in those employees who worked in the medical imaging departments; however, generational differences in student affairs professionals have been identified. According to Neville and Brochu (2019), there were clear generational differences in student affairs professionalism when it comes to professionalism, work ethic, and work-life balance. When discussing professionalism, baby boomer participants highlighted "integrity and ethical behavior" (Neville & Brochu, 2019, p. 22). Participants belonging to Generation X focused more on "doing what needs to be done for students" (Clark & Eastland, 2019, p. 442). However, participants belonging to the millennial generation focused their professionalism responses on behavior, dress, and boundaries with students (Clark & Eastland, 2019). Clark and Eastland (2019) noted that the millennial participants worked in

higher education for an average of one to four years. Clark and Eastland's (2019) study also examined the participant's perceptions regarding work ethic.

Baby boomers' concept of work ethic focused more on doing with was right, whereas Generation Xers focused more on "working until the job is done" (Clark & Eastland, 2019, p. 442). The millennial participants felt like their work ethic focused more on doing their best work (Clark & Eastland, 2019). Lastly, Clark and Eastland (2019) highlighted the differences among the three generations as it related to work-life balance. The baby boomers' responses focused on knowing their limits and when to take a break, whereas Generation X participants' responses focused on self-care, and millennials' responses focused on leaving work on time and not taking work home (Clark & Eastland, 2019).

This study is important in understanding the differences among the veterans/traditionalists, baby boomers, Generation Xers, Generation Y or millennials, and Gen Zs. Although this study focused primarily on Generation Y or millennials, it was important to understand millennials' characteristics in the workplace among their peers. According to Herd et al. (2012), millennials have been noted to be the largest generation to date, therefore, providing great influence in the workplace. Providing background among the generations provided a foundation for the study. It is also imperative that leaders in the workplace understand how to manage a multigenerational as it can impact office dynamics and culture. This study's results may provide leaders with how to retain millennial employees better, which may result in successful succession planning, skill transferring, and proper knowledge retention.

Millennials in the Workplace

Bresman (2015) conducted a global study to examine what millennials wanted from work. The study revealed that different cultures had different motivations in the workplace. In

Bresman's (2015) study, 16,637 millennials in 43 countries were surveyed. The results suggested that 40% of the millennials surveyed were interested in leadership roles, and the reasons why varied across cultures (Bresman, 2015). Millennials located in Central or Eastern Europe pursued leadership positions due to the high future earnings; however, millennials in Africa stated that the opportunity to coach and mentor others motivated them to pursue leadership positions. According to Srivastava and Banerjee (2016), existing motivational studies in relation to millennials were not clear on whether this generation was intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. In a qualitative study conducted by Srivastava and Banerjee (2016), the millennial participants felt that life was extremely important and to maximize it was the ultimate motivating factor.

Workplace motivation plays an important role among millennials. Calk and Patrick (2017) conducted a study on workplace motivation among millennials using a work motivation inventory (WMI). The WMI is modeled after Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's hygiene-motivator model of satisfaction, and it also measures five workplace motivational needs (Calk & Patrick, 2017). Those five workplace needs are basic, safety, belonging, ego-status, and actualization. The results of the study suggested that the workplace motivational needs that millennials scored higher on were basic, belonging, and ego-status. This generation will take workplace risks if it meets their basic needs (Calk & Patrick, 2017).

According to Queiri et al. (2015), millennials prefer extrinsic rewards, and when these rewards are not provided, it can drive millennials to search for better jobs with better extrinsic rewards. Buzza (2017) found that millennials were more attracted to a job posting that had high levels of work-life balance and not necessarily job advancement. According to Wood (2019), having purposeful work was a key motivational factor for millennials in the workplace. The

current study examined what motivates millennial employees to stay or leave their various

workplaces.

There have been limited recent studies conducted focusing solely on millennials in the

workplace. Researchers Bresman (2015) and Calk and Patrick (2017) conducted studies on

millennials in the workplace. Both studies revealed different workplace motivations ranging

from seeking leadership to extrinsic rewards. These studies provided insight into what

millennials are looking for in current workplaces and what motivates them to stay. The

researcher intended to conduct a study on what causes this generation to leave workplaces,

especially ones in higher education.

Career Expectations

The career expectations of the millennial generation have been described as unrealistic,

supersized, and disconnected between reward and performance (Ng et al., 2010). Not only has

pay been found to be one of the single most important motivational factors for millennials, but

this generation also has high expectations when it comes to promotions and pay raises (Ng et al.,

2010). Some studies revealed that some millennials expect to receive promotions and pay raises

after working for a company for six months (Ng et al., 2010). Ng et al. (2010) conducted a study

to understand better the views of millennial workers related to their work perceptions.

The study suggested that 68% of the respondents expected to be promoted within the first

18 months in their first job, and the average expectation for promotion was 15.1 months (Ng et

al., 2010). Only half of the respondents indicated that they would like to spend their whole career

with one organization (Ng et al., 2010). The study also revealed that millennials rated

opportunities for advancement as the most desirable work-related attribute (Ng et al., 2010).

Another career expectation of millennials was that they wanted their work environment to be

comfortable (Wood, 2019). They often saw their workplace as an extension of their home life (Wood, 2019). Millennials prefer a more relaxed work attire in the workplace (Wood, 2019). This may be more difficult in more conservative industries (Wood, 2019).

A recent study conducted by Magni and Manzoni (2020) explored the generational differences in the workplace related to understanding how millennials and members of other generational cohorts differ in their workplace expectations. The researchers provided an online survey to a large Italian company and had 1,034 participants (Magni & Manzoni, 2020). According to Magni and Manzoni (2020), millennials, compared to other generational cohorts, generally had higher expectations regarding pay, work-life balance, training, career development, feedback, power, and responsibility. The study also revealed that members of the other generational cohorts had higher expectations regarding pay-for-performance, job security, work-life balance, and social atmosphere (Magni & Manzoni, 2020).

Magni and Manzoni (2020) stated that there was limited research on millennials, and a large amount of the research relies on anecdotal evidence. These researchers also conveyed that the research on generational differences continues to remain underdeveloped (Magni & Manzoni, 2020). In the second part of their study, the researchers explored whether age, work experience, and job tenure influenced or determined workers' expectations (Magni & Manzoni, 2020). Magni and Manzoni (2020) concluded that there was a negative effect of job tenure that "millennials have on [the] social atmosphere and work meaning," and the researchers found a "negative effect of age on expectations for job security, career development and power for nonmillennial workers" (Magni & Manzoni, 2020, p. 908). The study conducted by Magni and Manzoni (2020) found that millennials generally had higher work expectations than nonmillennial employees, and some areas did not have a "generational bias" (p. 909).

Generational Job Satisfaction and Work Attitudes

Kowske et al. (2010) conducted a study exploring generational differences pertaining to job satisfaction and work attitudes at work. Five generations were studied that included G.I.s, the Silent Generation, baby boomers, Gen Xers, and millennials. The study compared millennials to prior generations. The researchers used data collected for 18 years from Kenexa Worktrend™ using a "hierarchical age-period-cohort regression model," also known as the APC (Age-Period Cohort) model (Yang & Land, 2008, p. 298). The APC is one of the most common tools used to analyze and assess the effects of the three factors on some outcome of interest (Yang & Land, 2008). In this study, the goal was to assess the effects on job satisfaction and work attitude. The survey results suggested that millennials were more satisfied, which contradicts other studies, which found that millennials were less satisfied with their jobs, leading to a higher turnover rate. Based on the results, the researchers suggested that instead of tailoring programs toward millennials to increase job satisfaction, the money could be spent elsewhere in organizations to increase satisfaction overall regardless of the generation.

Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) wrote about the struggles human resources (HR) departments faced when they recruited individuals from different generations. There was a debate on whether HR departments should develop generational-based strategies related to succession planning to ensure that there was no knowledge gap between generations. The four generations considered were veteran/traditionalist, baby boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y. The knowledge gap is not as severe as predicted because older generations are working longer due to financial reasons. However, this fact does not preclude HR departments from planning for the future. Generations are defined by time periods such as birthdates, but social events, internships, and volunteer activities play large roles in how individuals form their attitudes toward work. The

dominant values between generations were vastly different. Veterans were considered more loyal, baby boomers were tolerant, Gen Xers were achievement-oriented, and Gen Y or millennials were self-directed. By recognizing the major traits inherent in each generation, the authors suggested that programs geared toward recognition of these traits could assist in filling the knowledge gap along with increasing job satisfaction.

Shragay and Tziner (2011) studied cross-generational job satisfaction differences, the effects of job involvement, and added organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as a variable. Job involvement is the degree of the employee's personal involvement on the psychological level; work satisfaction combines psychological, physical, circumstantial, and environmental factors that lead individuals to report their level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their jobs. Organizational citizenship behavior looks at where an employee goes beyond the call of duty and does extra work not necessarily formally recognized by the organization. Three generations were studied, including baby boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y.

Shragay and Tziner (2011) used an internet survey that was available for one month. For the first two weeks, the survey was distributed to one of the authors' workplaces, resulting in collecting 86 responses. The survey was distributed to others for a total of 157 surveys using the snowball effect. However, only 84.7% were completed in full, which resulted in 133 serviceable surveys. The study results suggested that Gen X were more satisfied with their jobs and engaged in more citizenship behavior than baby boomers and Gen Y because of perceived civic responsibilities. Even with this result, Shragay and Tziner (2011) reported that job satisfaction was not based on generation or age. Job satisfaction was based more on the level of job involvement and individual characteristics such as civic virtues.

Weeks and Schaffert (2019) conducted a two-part study to determine if there were different definitions of meaningful work across multiple generations. For part one of the study, 20 individuals were interviewed across four generations. The generations studied were traditionalists, baby boomers, Generation X, and millennials. Five individuals comprised 45% female and 55% male participants represented each generation. The definition that was tested was from Arneson (1987) in which meaningful work was defined as "work that is interesting, that calls for intelligence and initiative and is attached to a job that gives the worker considerable freedom" (p. 522). The study used in-depth interviews, which took 30 minutes to an hour. Traditionalists believed the job should mean something and be both challenging and flexible. Baby boomers believed that jobs had to be fulfilling and aligned with their personal goals. Generation X workers also believed that work had to possess meaning and allow them to pursue their own goals along with company goals. Millennials echoed the sentiment that work must be meaningful but also made them feel happy and fulfilled with nice coworkers.

The Comprehensive Meaningful Work Scale (CMWS) developed by Lips-Wiersma and Wright (2012) was initially to be used, but the authors decided to create their own instrument after pilot testing the Lips-Wiersma and Morris (2009) being or doing dimension scale. They decided to use a forced choice scale. There were 303 participants, of whom 48.6% were male. Due to a lack of responses for the traditionalist group, they were removed from part two of the study. The result showed that along with generations having different interpretations of what meaningful work constituted, there were also differences in members of each group or generational cohort.

Jahanbani et al. (2018) conducted a descriptive-analytical study of 143 technical staff that worked for health centers. Jahanbani et al. (2018) used two questionnaires for this study: the

Walton Quality of Work-Life questionnaire (QWL) and the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). This study indicated that only 10.5% of the respondents reported that they were completely satisfied with their jobs (Jahanbani et al., 2018). The study results also revealed that the average score of QWL is 72.95 out of 135, which suggested that the health centers in this study needed to improve their QWL and their job satisfaction among their employees (Jahanbani et al., 2018). The majority of the participants in this study were within the age range of 31–40 years and female (Jahanbani et al., 2018).

Perceptions and Stereotypes of Other Generations

Although several studies have supported using generational theories in the workplace, several perceptions and stereotypes exist among the generations themselves. In the workplace, stereotypes among members of a particular generational cohort exist on how the generational members view themselves and how they view members of the other generations. Stanton (2017) stated that traditionalists/veterans have the most positive outlook on the other generations in the workplace. This generation values loyalty in the workplace, which oftentimes creates conflict with younger generations who do not share the same value system (Stanton, 2017). Lastly, traditionalists/veterans are the only generation in the workplace that is extremely concerned with real or perceived generational-based discrimination (Stanton, 2017). Although many traditionalists/veterans have retired from the workplace, some are still employed, and it would be helpful to employers to understand these differences and perceptions and for future implications in the workplace environment.

According to Gursoy et al. (2008), baby boomers are considered the workaholic generation, and this generation believes that members of Generation X, millennials, and Generation Z are slackers and lack work ethic. Baby boomers also felt that the younger

generations relied solely on technology and that they lacked the necessary experience (Gordon, 2017). Even though this generation has a negative outlook on the younger generations, baby boomers believed that the traditionalists/veterans were valuable members of the workplace and could learn from them (Stanton, 2017). Baby boomers believed they gained a competitive edge in the workplace from the information that they gained from the traditionalists/veterans (Stanton, 2017).

According to Gordon (2017), like the baby boomers, Generation Xers believed that millennials and Gen Zs lacked work ethic, but they believed that these generations could grasp new skills and concepts. Generation Xers considered traditionalists/veterans to be role models and team players in the workplace (Gursoy et al., 2008). On the other hand, this generation felt that the baby boomer generation was too rigid and lacked a healthy work-life balance (Gordon, 2017). Generation X believed that members of both traditionalists/veterans and the baby boomer generations were slow learners and refused to adapt to technology.

Even though members of Generation X have negative views of the traditionalists/veterans generation members, millennials have a positive view of them, seeing this generation as disciplined and hardworking (Smith & Nichols, 2015). According to Gordon (2017), millennials identified closely with the baby boomer generation due to being seen as ambitious and very career-driven. Millennials' ambition often caused conflict with the members of the Generation X cohort due to Gen Xers being more focused on having a work-life balance (Wiedmer, 2015). According to Smith and Nichols (2015), millennials had a positive outlook of the members of Generation Z due to them having a civic-minded approach like the traditionalists/veterans and being able to learn new concepts, much like the millennials.

It is important that employers in the workplace acknowledge that perceptions do exist among members of different generations and can cause disharmony in the work environment. However, if employers take time to understand the various perceptions among the members of the multiple generations, they can narrow the gap and find ways to bring the members together. Also, employers can find ways to motivate these employees in a multigenerational workplace. Lastly, the results of this study may provide insight to managers, especially if they are members of older generations than the millennial participants.

Employee Engagement and Motivation

Gallup is a company that has been tracking employee engagement in the United States since 2000. Gallup reported that only 32% of employees in the United States and 13% worldwide are engaged at work (as cited in Mann & Harter, 2016). According to Rigoni and Adkins (2016), although Gallup has been reporting on employee engagement worldwide since 2009, the number of employees engaged at work has not increased; therefore, workplaces are failing to engage their employees. Rigoni and Adkins (2016) reported that, according to Gallup, managers account for 70% of the variance in employee engagement in the workplace. About one in 10 people possess the natural high talent to manage the workplace; therefore, organizations name the wrong person as managers about 80% of the time (Rigoni & Adkins, 2016).

Lastly, it has been found that one in two employees have left their workplaces due to their direct supervisors and to improve their overall life (Rigoni & Adkins, 2016). Gallup has conducted many studies since 2000 on employee engagement (as cited in Mann & Harter, 2016). According to Mann and Harter (2016), many organizations have focused on engaging their employees; however, the engagement levels among employees across the world have not

increased. This information is important for organizations to be aware of how their supervisors can potentially impact some employees in the workplace.

Carter et al. (2016) conducted a longitudinal field study on the relationship between self-efficacy and employee engagement. Carter et al. (2016) stated that self-efficacy "refers to people's judgment of their capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (p. 2483). The findings of this study showed that there was indeed a correlation between self-efficacy and student employee engagement. The authors suggested that human resource management practitioners must address employees' self-efficacy and engagement to increase job performance.

Anthony-McMann et al. (2017) examined the relationship between employee engagement and work stress and burnout. The researchers surveyed 472 information technology professionals working in a community hospital. Anthony-McMann et al. (2017) suggested that the concept of employee engagement has been difficult to measure and predict due to the different tools used and each tool provides different predictive properties. These researchers stressed the importance for organizational managers to understand the importance of an engaged workplace; however, they argued that to maintain an engaged workplace, managers must use the proper tool to measure it (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017). The study results suggested that there was a negative relationship between employee engagement and workplace stress and burnout.

Motivation

According to Jensen (2018), there are two types of employee motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. The basic difference between the two is that intrinsic motivation is the internal rewards that an employee feels when performing a job. Extrinsic motivation is the external rewards that an employee receives, such as salary increases, paid leave, and other fringe benefits (Jensen,

2018). Jensen (2018) cited an early study conducted by Newstrom and Davis (2002) that

suggested that extrinsic rewards were not necessarily effective motivators. While Newstrom and

Davis's (2002) study suggested that extrinsic rewards are not effective, early research conducted

by Crewson (1997) suggested that extrinsic motivators impacted employee motivation,

especially in the private sector.

Kuvaas et al. (2017) explored how intrinsic and extrinsic motivation impacted employee

outcomes. The researchers conducted three studies to test four hypotheses, distributing

questionnaires to employees and store managers that worked at gas stations in Norway and

recruiting 663 participants. There were 557 employee questionnaires, and data was collected

measuring extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation. There were 106 store manager questionnaires

that collected and measured employee work performance (Kuvaas et al., 2017).

Kuvaas et al. (2017) developed hypotheses based on the self-determination theory (SDT),

which explains the differences in how each type of motivation relates to both work performance

and employee outcomes (Kuvaas et al., 2017). The study results suggested a negative

relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which was in line with SDT. The results

revealed that intrinsic motivation was positively associated with work performance and

organizational commitment and associated negatively with turnover intention, burnout, and

work-family conflict (Kuvaas et al., 2017).

Makki and Abid (2017) explored the "impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on

employees' task performance by surveying 150 employees, both males and females, who worked

in the government and private sector" (p. 42). The ages of the participants varied. The study

results suggested that those employees with both high intrinsic and high extrinsic motivation will

have high task performance (Makki & Abid, 2017). The study also revealed that employees' task performance varies depending on their demographic variables.

Hanaysha and Majid (2018) conducted a quantitative study to determine the impact of employee motivation on productivity and organizational commitment in higher education. Employee motivation plays an important role in the success of an organization (Hanaysha & Majid, 2018). According to the study findings, employee motivation positively affected employee productivity, organizational commitment, and employee productivity (Hanaysha & Majid, 2018). The researchers recommended that higher education administrators should focus on increasing employee motivation to enhance organizational productivity and competitiveness.

Workplace Turnover

Early studies were conducted on workplace turnover intention and the connection of different factors: job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and conflict (Ghiselli et al., 2001). Very few of these studies focused on demographic variables such as age, tenure, race, and gender (Ghiselli et al., 2001). However, Ghiselli et al. (2001) discovered that satisfaction played a significant role in expectations of long-term turnover. According to Queiri and Dwaikat (2016), a global study showed that 61% of managers had difficulty in retaining Generation Y (or millennial) employees. According to Ivanović and Ivančević (2019), turnover intention was an employee's personal intent to leave the organization in the future. Researchers discovered that millennials showed less willingness to stay in their current jobs than other generations, with the intent to leave their current job within two years or less (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). In their study, Christiansen et al. (2014) discovered that a misfit with tasks could result in distress, which can cause employees to seek new employment.

According to Allen et al. (2010), there are different types of turnover; however, one important distinction is voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover can be defined by being initiated by the employee, and involuntary turnover can be defined by being initiated by the organization (Allen et al., 2010). Within voluntary turnover, there is both dysfunctional and functional turnover. Dysfunctional voluntary turnover can be harmful to organizations by high-performing employees leaving or those employees who have difficult-to-replace skill sets (Allen et al., 2010). Functional voluntary turnover may not be as harmful as dysfunctional turnover due to poor performing employees exiting or employees with skills that can be easily replaced (Allen et al., 2010).

There are five misconceptions about employee turnover (Allen et al., 2010). The five misconceptions of employee turnover include all turnover is the same and it is all bad, people quit because of pay, people quit because they are dissatisfied with their jobs, there is little managers can do to influence turnover decisions directly, and a simple one-size-fits-all retention strategy is most effective (Allen et al., 2010). These misconceptions can be harmful to organizations, especially leaders, because they may cause them to create retention strategies that are not effective, not cost-effective, or just retain the wrong employees. Most employers believe that job dissatisfaction is one of the main reasons employees leave organizations; however, it affects fewer than half of employee turnover decisions (Allen et al., 2010). However, Ivanović and Ivančević (2019) cited studies that stated that job satisfaction had a direct association with turnover intention. Several studies examined the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover (Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019).

Turnover rates in some key sectors, such as business process outsourcing and information technology, can reach as high as 45% (Srivastava & Banerjee, 2016). When an employee leaves

an organization, the time and money that was invested into that employee can cost up to 200% of an annual salary (Allen et al., 2010). Wen et al. (2018) stated that employees who have poor training and development also contribute to the company's turnover rate. Wen et al. (2018) conducted a study to determine if there was any correlation between employee development and job satisfaction, employee rewards and job satisfaction, and employee work-life balance and job satisfaction. The study results revealed that employee development, employee rewards, and employee work-life balance directly impacted job satisfaction for millennials. According to Wen et al. (2018), addressing these factors can assist with company turnover.

Gaps in the Literature

Multiple studies have focused solely on generational differences, career expectations, job satisfaction, turnover in the workplace, or employee motivation (Mann & Harter, 2016; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wood, 2019). However, only a few studies tackle all these areas combined, and even fewer studies focus specifically on millennials in the work setting in the higher education setting. Several studies focused on millennial workers in the health care industry, such as Jahanbani et al. (2018). This study may contribute to the literature surrounding millennials in higher education workplaces in the United States.

Studies have been conducted surrounding job satisfaction among employees in several industries globally. Many studies also explored how job satisfaction and generational differences impacted the workplace. Paul Spector (1985) created an instrument that measured job satisfaction among employees. Several studies utilized this survey instrument; however, only a few of these studies focused on job satisfaction among millennial employees, specifically in higher education in the United States, which creates a gap in the literature. This study utilized the

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) instrument, and the study results may provide additional evidence regarding job satisfaction among millennials in higher education.

Although Mannheim (1952) first began exploring the phenomenon of generations and Strauss and Howe (1991) continued the research on generations, Magni and Manzoni (2020) expressed that research on generational differences continues to remain underdeveloped. These researchers also indicated that there was limited research related to millennials in the workplace, and there was a large amount of research relying on anecdotal evidence (Magni & Manzoni, 2020). This study may provide additional research that surrounds generations and millennials in the workplace to the current body of literature.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I presented studies that focused on generational theory, generational cohorts and the multigenerational workplace, challenges with cohorts, millennials in the workplace, perceptions and stereotypes of generational cohorts, generational job satisfaction and work attitudes, employee engagement, employee motivation, and workplace turnover. Without understanding who millennials are and what encourages them to stay longer in their career roles, organizations, especially higher education institutions, will continue to eat the high costs of turnover rates associated with them leaving their positions. This chapter provided evidence that each of the generational cohorts behaves differently in workplaces. It is important that employers recognize the impact that those differences may have on the workplace and its culture. This chapter also highlighted literature that described the challenges of using generational theories to describe groups of individuals. Hernaus and Vokic (2014) revealed that the dates describing the different generational cohorts often are not the same. Although those challenges have been identified, the generational theory is still the most common way to describe groups of people

(Hernaus & Vokic, 2014). Chapter 3 will outline the methodology and research design that investigated if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials in higher education.

Chapter 3: Research Method and Design

This quantitative study's purpose was to determine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials in higher education. *Turnover intention* was defined as an employee's conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave a particular company or organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). *Job satisfaction* was defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Colquitt et al., 2013). For this study, Spector's (1996) Job Satisfaction Survey (see Appendix A) was utilized to determine what factors (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, working conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communications) contributed to turnover intention. I received permission to use this instrument according to the public domain (see Appendix B). The other instrument used in this study was Roodt's (2004) abbreviated Turnover Instrument Survey (TIS-6; see Appendix C). The abbreviated version only included six of the 15 items that make up the full scale. I received permission to use this instrument (see Appendix D). I received approval from Abilene Christian University's Institution Review Board to conduct this study (see Appendix E).

A quantitative, nonexperimental approach was identified as the best way to determine relationships between variables (Hoe & Hoare, 2013). The study examined the nature of the interactions between the controlled and independent variables to confirm the established relationships that currently existed in the literature and determine if any new relationships existed. A survey methodology was faster to conduct, associated with lower cost, and it could reach a broader audience (Groves et al., 2009). According to Groves et al. (2009), a survey was defined as "a methodical design for the collection of information from a sample of individuals

with the intent to derive quantitative descriptors of characteristics representative of the larger

population of which the cohorts are members" (p. 30).

This chapter presents the purpose of the quantitative study and the research question. This

chapter also includes the research approach and the design of the study, population and sampling,

materials and instruments, the data collection and analysis procedures, and researcher bias.

Lastly, a summary of the chapter is provided.

Research Approach and Design

This quantitative survey study was designed to investigate the relationship between

turnover intention and job satisfaction among millennials in higher education. According to

Creswell (2014), "a survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends,

attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population" (p. 155).

Researchers use quantitative approaches to test hypotheses, find and determine relationships, and

measure the frequencies of observations (Hoe & Hoare, 2013). In this study, I intended to find

and determine if there was a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Quantitative research designs have been traditionally more rigorous compared to

qualitative methods because quantitative research provides "an established ranking of [the]

hierarchy of evidence for assessing the quality and robustness of methodological approaches"

(Hoe & Hoare, 2013, p. 55). Oftentimes, the quantitative method for research offered a strong

foundation for future qualitative and mixed-methods studies on millennial turnover intention in

higher education in the future.

Quantitative research can involve collecting data so information can be quantified and

analyzed to support or refute certain claims (Williams, 2007). Williams (2017), citing Creswell

(2014), stated that quantitative research originated in the physical sciences, more specifically in

chemistry and physics. There are three types of quantitative research: descriptive, experimental, and casual comparative (Williams, 2007). Descriptive research consists of the "identification of attributes of a phenomenon based on an observational basis, or the exploration of [a] correlation between two or more phenomena" (Williams, 2007, p. 67). Experimental research requires the researcher to investigate the treatment of an intervention in the study group. The researcher then measures the treatment outcomes (Williams, 2007). Lastly, during causal comparative research, the researcher examines how independent variables are affected by the dependent variable and uses cause and effect relationships between the variables (Williams, 2007).

A cross-sectional survey method was determined as the best research design for this study. According to Bachmann and Schutt (2013), survey research "involves the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions" (p. 190). A cross-sectional survey is when the data is collected at one point in time versus longitudinal, which happens when the data is collected over time.

I used a research instrument that had already been developed and validated by previous researchers to ensure that the study was efficient. By using a previously developed survey, I bypassed the survey design process, piloting, and validation. I chose Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and Roodt's (2004) abbreviated Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6), which had been through multiple studies and validated.

Purpose of the Study

This quantitative study's purpose was to examine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. Identifying these factors may allow researchers to identify methods that could help leaders in higher education to improve retention strategies with this generation. The participants considered for

this study were millennials, born between 1981 and 2000, who work at two-year and four-year institutions in the United States (Kilber et al., 2014). Higher education leaders may find more effective ways to retain millennials with the results of this study.

Research Question

The following question guided this study:

RQ: Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education?

Population and Sampling

The study population consisted of U.S. millennials, defined as persons born between 1981 and 2000 (Kilber et al., 2014). Participants for the study needed to be currently working for any two-year or four-year institution in the United States. Surveys were sent through virtual social platforms. Platforms included publicly available Facebook and LinkedIn profiles. I also recruited participants via personal or professional email contacts. Participants were contacted using a standard introduction that explained the nature of the study and the participation requirements, and informed consent was provided to the participants.

Materials and Instruments

The survey instrument identified for this study was Spector's (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). According to Spector (1996), job satisfaction is defined as "an attitudinal variable that reflects how people feel about their jobs overall as well as various aspects of them" (p. 214). Spector's JSS consists of nine subscales measuring employee job satisfaction for human service organizations. According to Spector (1985), the JSS subscales measures pay, nature of work, contingent rewards, promotion, supervision, benefits, working conditions, coworkers, and communication. Spector's (1985) JSS survey is available free of charge. The questions in the JSS

are written with positive and negative directions. There are nine subscales to the survey, and they

are scored on the four items in each, having a total score ranging from four to 24 (see Table 1).

There are a total of 36 questions designed to measure total job satisfaction. Respondents can

score each question from one to six, with one indicating *strongly disagree* to six indicating

strongly agree. The higher the score indicates higher job satisfaction. Demographic questions

were added to the survey and asked for age, gender, years of employment at their current

workplace, level of education, and leadership status.

Table 1

Job Satisfaction Survey Scoring

Subscale	Item numbers	Score range
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28	4–24
Promotion	2, 11, 20, 29	4–24
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30	4–24
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 31	4–24
Contingent Rewards	5, 14, 23, 32	4–24
Operating Conditions	6, 15, 24, 33	4–24
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34	4–24
Nature of Work	8, 17, 26, 35	4–24
Communication	9, 18, 27, 36	4–24
Total Satisfaction	1–36	36–216

Validity and Reliability

According to Creswell (2014), validity in quantitative research can be determined by an

existing instrument by "describing the established validity of scores obtained from past use of the

instrument" (p. 160). Creswell (2014) described three traditional forms of validity that researchers can look for. The first is content validity, which asks, "Do the items measure the content they were intended to measure" (p. 160)? The second traditional form to check validity is predictive or concurrent validity, which asks, "Do scores predict a criterion measure" (Creswell, 2014, p. 160)? Third, construct validity asks, "Do items measure hypothetical constructs or concepts" (p. 160)? Creswell (2014) stated that reliability could be determined from past use of the instrument.

Spector (1985) proved the validity of the JSS through academic research. The validity process of the JSS consisted of 3,148 respondents in 19 samples that contained various levels of employees working in human services organizations (Spector, 1985). Paul Spector (1985) measured the validity of the JSS by measuring both the convergent and discriminant validation by comparing the JSS survey to the Job Descriptive Index (JDI).

Spector (1985) proved reliability with a sample of 2,870. The nine facets of the instrument included pay (described as pay and remuneration); promotion (described as promotion opportunities); supervision (described as immediate supervisor); fringe benefits (described as monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits); contingent rewards (described as appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work); operation procedures (described as operating policies and procedures); nature of work (described as job tasks themselves); and communication (described as communication within the organization). Based on the sample, the coefficient alpha of each facet was as follows: pay (.75); promotion (.73); supervision (.82); fringe benefits (.73); contingent rewards (.76); coworkers (.60); nature of work (.78); communication (.71); and the total for all facts (.91), which is very good reliability.

Operational Definition of Variables

The independent variable for this study was job satisfaction, defined as "a score received based on the follower's rating of his or her own job satisfaction as measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985). According to Spector (1985), higher scores demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction. The dependent variable for this study was intent to leave or turnover intention.

Data Collection

I collected data online. Historically, survey data collection occurred using paper surveys sent to participants via snail mail and followed up with reminder cards that were also mailed out (DeVellis, 2012). This process was very manual, time-consuming, and expensive (Manfreda et al., 2008). The participants who completed the survey could also receive a reminder card. Also, it could take months to receive all the responses and enter them all manually (Manfreda et al., 2008).

For this study, online tools allowed me to gather and analyze data quickly, no matter where the participant was located. Online surveys allowed me to save time and money due to the automation associated with this data collection method. Online surveys can automatically transfer the data collected into an electronic database to eliminate the time-consuming process researchers once endured. Often, survey sites accessed through colleges and universities are usually on servers that protect the data collected by encrypting the received information.

Online surveys typically have a lower response rate than paper-based surveys; however, they are more economical and faster to allow researchers to reach their target populations more effectively (Manfreda et al., 2008). Researchers might improve response rates by using user-friendly survey designs, carefully choosing item wording, answer categories, scale selection, and respondent guidance (Keusch, 2012). Researchers can use a host of platforms to deploy the

survey. Those platforms are Survey Monkey, Qualtrics, Google Forms, and Survey Methods. I chose Google Forms to recreate the questions of the JSS and deploy the online survey.

Data Analysis

According to Muijs (2011), analyzing survey data is important to find the relationship between the variables, especially in educational research. According to Creswell (2014), the first step in analyzing survey data is to determine how the information about the sample members and who did and who did not return the survey will be reported. In this study, those who did not return the survey were not reported in the sample size (Creswell, 2014). The second step in the data analysis was to determine how to identify response bias through wave analysis. Creswell (2014) informed that a wave analysis is when the researcher "examines returns on select items week by week to determine if average responses change" (p. 162). Lastly, using IBM Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), I performed the analysis with descriptive statistics and correlations. According to Muijs (2011), the correlation analysis allowed for finding the bivariate relationships between the variables.

Study Bias

I identify as a millennial. I have had an opportunity to work for both four-year and two-year institutions. Currently, I work for a two-year college and serve as a mid-level administrator on my campus. My interest in this research stemmed from my personal experience of high turnover rates among millennial workers and coworkers in many of the positions at the two-year colleges where I have been employed. A number of these workers and coworkers leave within the first two years of hire, some leaving before making it to the one-year mark. I have witnessed the challenges with turnover rates and the challenges that turnover has on an institution due to being a supervisor firsthand. Throughout the study, I plan to work to put my personal biases

aside, past experiences, and prejudices. This will encourage a fresh perspective and impartial data analysis (Creswell, 2014).

Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 presented the methodology intended to conduct this study. The purpose statement, research question, research approach and design, and population were described. I also provided information on the data collection process. Lastly, I provided personal bias. Chapter 4 will present findings from the quantitative analysis, and Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter 4: Results

This quantitative study's purpose was to determine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. Turnover intention is defined as an employee's conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave a particular company or organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Job satisfaction was defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Colquitt et al., 2013). The target population for this study was millennials working in higher education within the United States. In this chapter, I provide a descriptive analysis of the findings, the data analysis, and the study results.

Descriptive Findings

I used an online survey deployed on Google Forms platform to collect the study data. The sampling method for this survey was a nonprobability convenience model. The survey was distributed to a group of student affairs and higher education professionals via social media. Due to the anonymity of the survey and the possibility of snowball sampling, it is difficult to determine the response percentage and how many individuals were invited to participate. The target sample was 100, and the total number of surveys received was 349. Eight of the surveys received did not meet participation criteria and were removed from the data set. Among these eight surveys, one participant did not classify as a millennial, and the other seven did not work in higher education. The final number of surveys used for data analysis was 341, which surpassed the minimum target sample of 100.

Table 2 presents the demographics of the 341 millennial survey participants. As shown, 79.2% of the respondents were women, 19.1% were men, and 1.8% identified as nonbinary. According to Flaherty (2021), women make up 60% of all professionals in higher education;

therefore, the sample's female respondent percentage was higher, and the male respondent

percentage was lower was expected.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Demographic variable	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	65	19.1
Female	270	79.2
Nonbinary	6	1.8
Years in Higher Education		
Less than 1 year	8	2.3
1–3 years	56	16.4
3–5	61	17.9
5+	216	63.3

Most participants reported working in higher education for more than five years. As

shown in Table 2, 63.3% of the participants fell into this range. The second largest group worked

in higher education for three to five years, representing 17.9% of the respondents. Only 16.4% of

respondents reported working in higher education between one and three years. The remaining

2.3% of respondents reported working in higher education for less than one year.

The descriptive statistics for the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the abbreviated

Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) appear in Table 3. According to Salkind (2017), skewness

refers to the measure of the lack of symmetry of the distribution, and kurtosis refers to the peak,

or flatness, of the distribution. The acceptable standard range of normal distribution is ±1.0. The

skewness and kurtosis statistics are indicative of normality for job satisfaction and turnover

intention since they both fall between -1.0 and +1.0.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Full Scale and Turnover Intention (TIS-6)

Scale	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Job Satisfaction	69	178	121.36	21.97	.152	-.319
Turnover Intention	9	28	19.20	3.76	-.281	-.198

The descriptive statistics for the subscales in the JSS appear in Table 4. As previously mentioned, the acceptable range of normal distribution is ±1.0. The skewness and kurtosis statistics indicated normality for the pay, promotion, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication subscales, as they are all less than ±1.0. While the kurtosis statistic was also less than ±1.0 for the supervision subscale, the skewness statistic was -1.037 for this subscale did depart somewhat from normality.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Survey Subscales

Subscale	Min.	Max.	95% CI	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pay	4	23	[-.455, -.270]	9.85	4.86	.799	-.31
Promotion	4	23	[-.455, -.270]	9.89	4.17	.666	.67
Supervision	4	24	[-.528, -.357]	18.80	5.09	-1.037	.26
Fringe Benefits	4	24	[-.336, -.135]	14.55	4.66	-.095	-.41
Contingent Rewards	4	24	[-.605, -.452]	13.54	4.55	.062	-.58
Operating Conditions	4	22	[-.481, -.302]	12.58	4.08	.021	-.59
Coworkers	4	24	[-.498, -.322]	16.79	4.27	-.43	-.37
Nature of Work	3	18	[-.594, -.439]	12.64	3.29	-.51	.03
Communication	5	22	[.327, .503]	12.72	3.18	.22	-.37
Total Scale	69	178	[-.651, -.511]	126.36	21.97	.152	-.319

Assumptions

There are five assumptions for a Pearson correlation analysis: level of measurement, linear relationship, normality, related pairs, and no outliers. The data in this study meets all the assumptions. Each of the independent variables and the dependent variable were all continuous; therefore, meeting the level of measurement assumption. Next, Figures 1 through 10 revealed a linear relationship between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable, therefore meeting the linear relationship assumption. Lastly, the data met normality and related pairs, there were no outliers due to the skewness, and kurtosis was within normal limits, as displayed in Table 4.

Results

I conducted a correlational analysis to address the research question. The Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to measure bivariate relationships between each of the total JSS and job satisfaction subscales (independent variables) and the TIS-6 scale (dependent variable). According to Spector (1985), the JSS contains 36 items and nine subscales designed to assess the workplace and aspects of the workplace. Each subscale consisted of four items. A summated rating scale was used, with six choices per item, ranging from *disagree very much* to *agree very much*. Nineteen items were written with negative wording, which caused 19 of the items to be reversed scored. The reverse-scored items were evenly distributed among all the items except the communication subscale. Three out of the four items in this subscale were reversed scored. The items in this subscale were "*Communications seem good within this organization*," "*The goals of this organization are not clear to me,*" "*I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization,*" and "*Work assignments are not fully explained*."

Table 5 illustrates that the TIS-6 (intent to leave) exhibited a significant negative relationship with the total JSS: $r(339) = -.586$, $p < .001$. The TIS-6 also exhibited negative relationships between eight of the JSS subscales, pay: $r(339) = -.367$, $p < .001$; promotion: $r(339) = -.366$, $p < .001$; supervision: $r(339) = -.446$, $p < .001$; fringe benefits: $r(339) = -.238$, $p < .001$; contingent rewards: $r(339) = -.533$, $p < .001$; operating conditions: $r(339) = -.395$, $p < .001$; coworkers: $r(339) = -.414$, $p < .001$; and nature of work: $r(339) = -.521$, $p < .001$. The TIS-6 exhibited only one significant positive relationship, the communication subscale: $r(339) = .419$, $p < .001$.

Table 5

Correlation Statistics for the Job Satisfaction Survey Total Scale and Subscales

Variable	r	p	Effect size	95% CI
Pay	-.367	<.001*	Medium	[-.455, -.270]
Promotion	-.366	<.001*	Medium	[-.455, -.270]
Supervision	-.446	<.001*	Large	[-.528, -.357]
Fringe Benefits	-.238	<.001*	Small	[-.336, -.135]
Contingent Rewards	-.533	<.001*	Large	[-.605, -.452]
Operating Conditions	-.395	<.001*	Medium	[-.481, -.302]
Coworkers	-.414	<.001*	Medium	[-.498, -.322]
Nature of Work	-.521	<.001*	Large	[-.594, -.439]
Communication	.419	<.001*	Medium	[.327, .503]
Total Scale	-.586	<.001*	Large	[-.651, -.511]

*Note.* $N = 341$; *Correlation significant for a 2-tailed test.

Further, the correlation's effect size between fringe benefits and intent to leave suggested a small practical significance, whereas the correlation's effect size between pay and intent to leave, promotion and intent to leave, operating conditions and intent to leave, coworkers and

intent to leave, and communication and intent to leave all suggested medium practical

significance. Lastly, the correlation effect size between supervision and intent to leave,

contingent rewards and intent to leave, nature of work and intent to leave, and total job

satisfaction and intent to leave all suggested a large practical significance, as seen in Table 5.

Figures 1 through 10 address the research question if there was a significant relationship

between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. The data

presented in Figure 1 shows a significant negative relationship between total job satisfaction and

the intent leave among millennials in higher education, $r(339) = -.586$, $p < .001$. As job

satisfaction decreases, the intent to leave increases.

Figure 1

Total Job Satisfaction and Intent to Leave
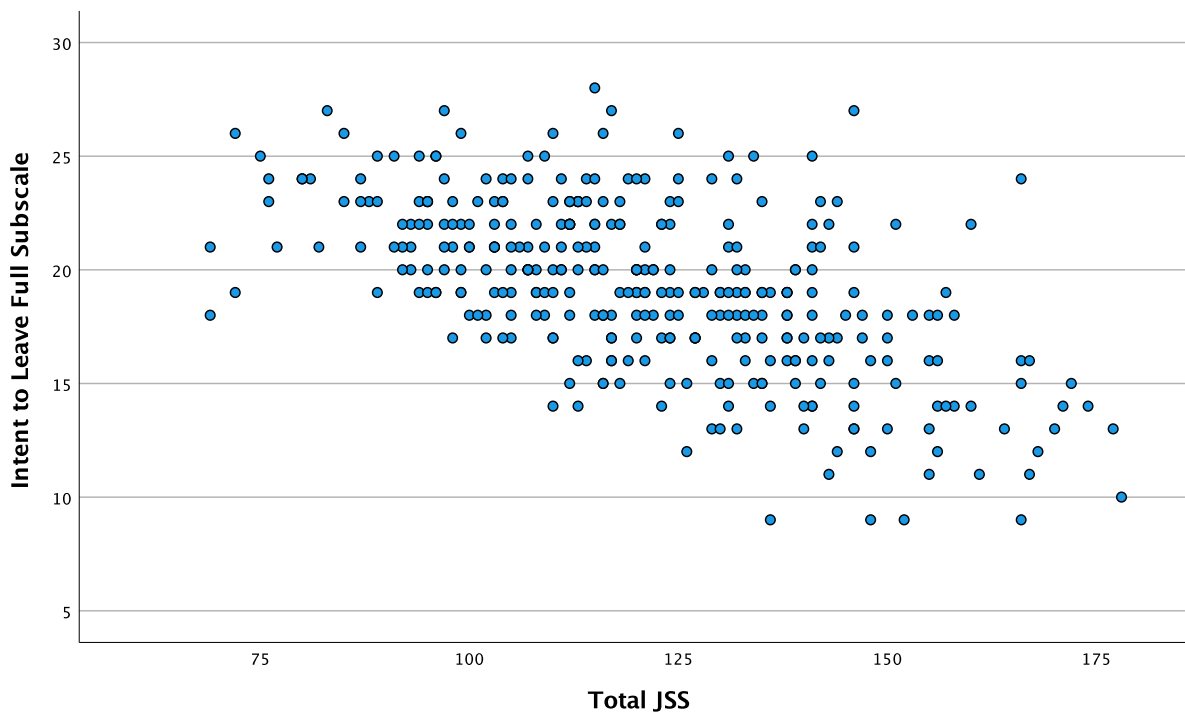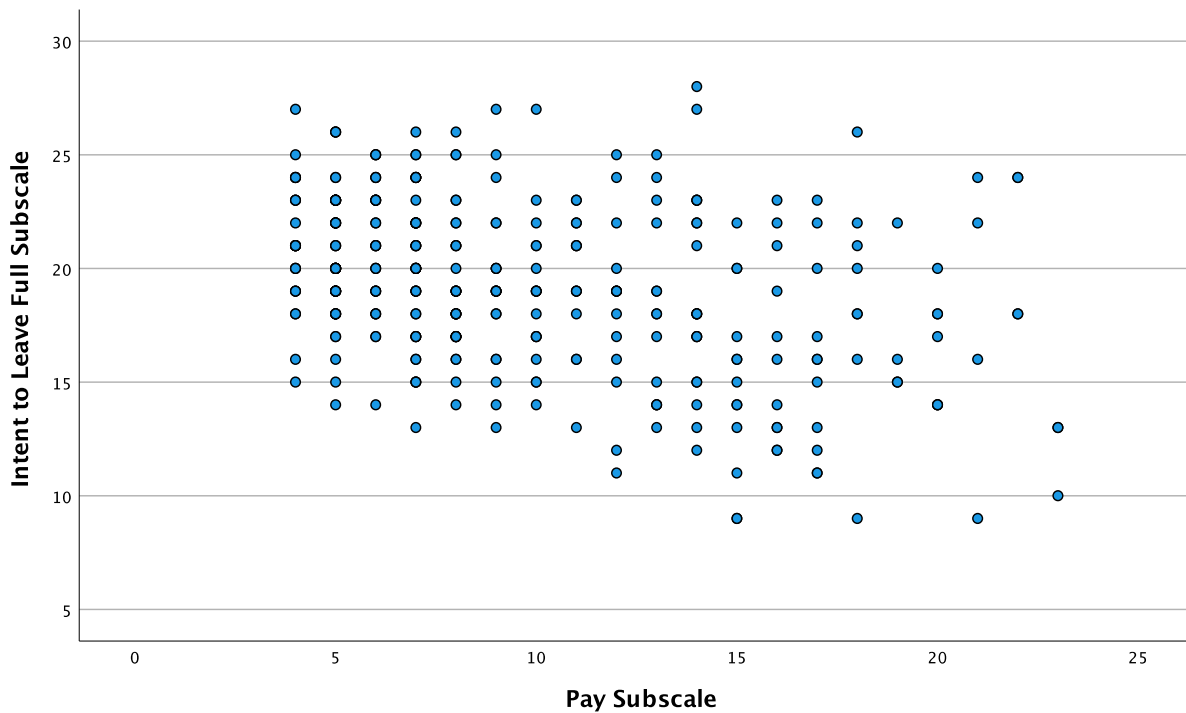
The following figures provide data for the subscales within the JSS. The finding presented in Figure 2 suggests a significant negative relationship between pay and the intent to leave, $r(339) = -.367$, $p < .001$. The result suggests that the lower the satisfaction with pay within an institution, the higher the intent to leave becomes.

Figure 2

Pay Subscale and Intent to Leave

The finding presented in Figure 3 suggests a significant negative relationship between millennials' satisfaction pertaining to promotion opportunities within higher education and the intent to leave, $r(339) = -.366, p < .001$. According to the result, as the satisfaction with promotion decreases, the intent to leave increases.

Figure 3

Promotion Subscale and Intent to Leave

The finding presented in Figure 4 suggests a significant negative relationship between the supervisor subscale and the intent to leave, $r(339) = -.446$, $p < .001$. According to the result, the intent to leave decreases as the satisfaction with the supervisor increases.
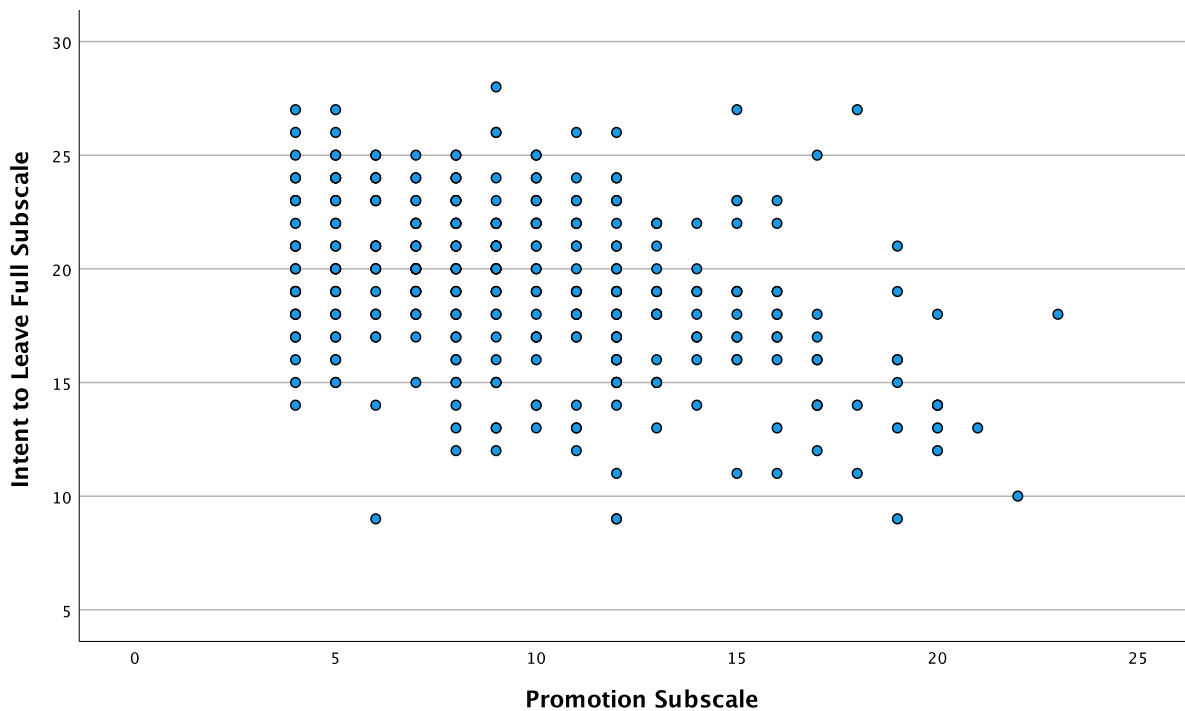
Figure 4

Supervisor Subscale and Intent to Leave

The finding presented in Figure 5 suggests a significant negative relationship between fringe benefits and the intent to leave, $r(339) = -.238$, $p < .001$. According to the result, as satisfaction with fringe benefits decreases, the intent to leave among millennials in higher education increases.
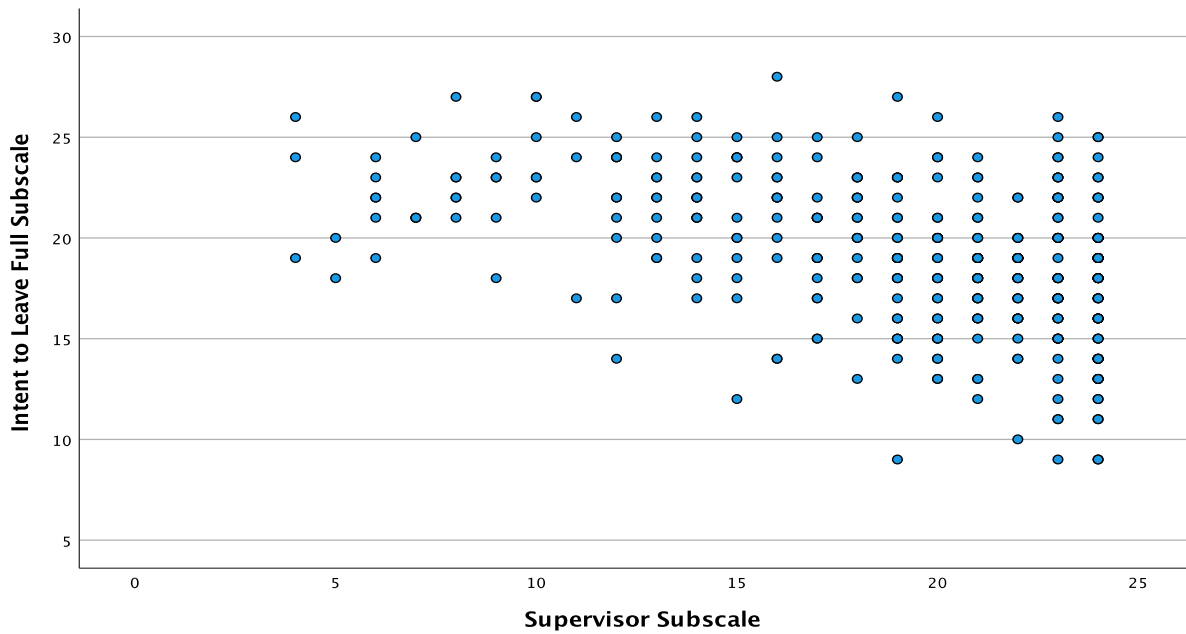
Figure 5

Fringe Benefits Subscale and Intent to Leave
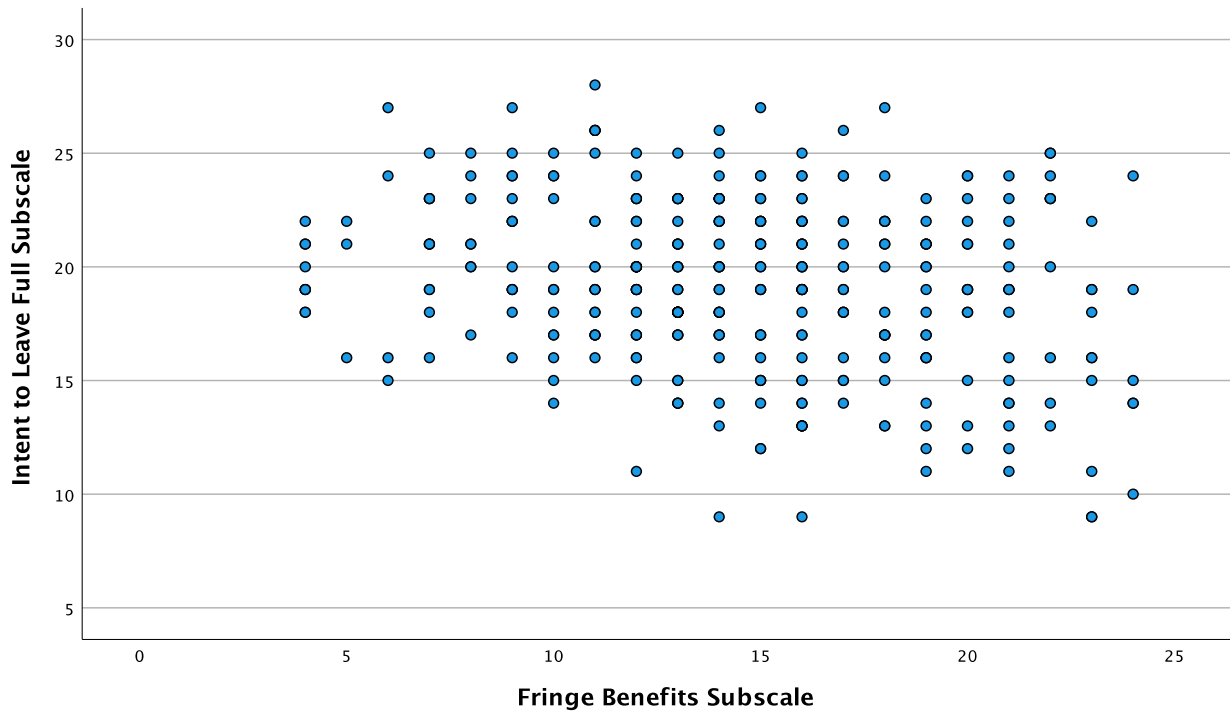
The finding presented in Figure 6 suggests a significant negative relationship between contingent rewards and intent to leave, $r(339) = -.533$, $p < .001$. The result suggests that the less satisfied millennials are with an institution's contingent rewards system, the more likely the intent to leave increases.

Figure 6

Contingent Rewards Subscale and Intent to Leave
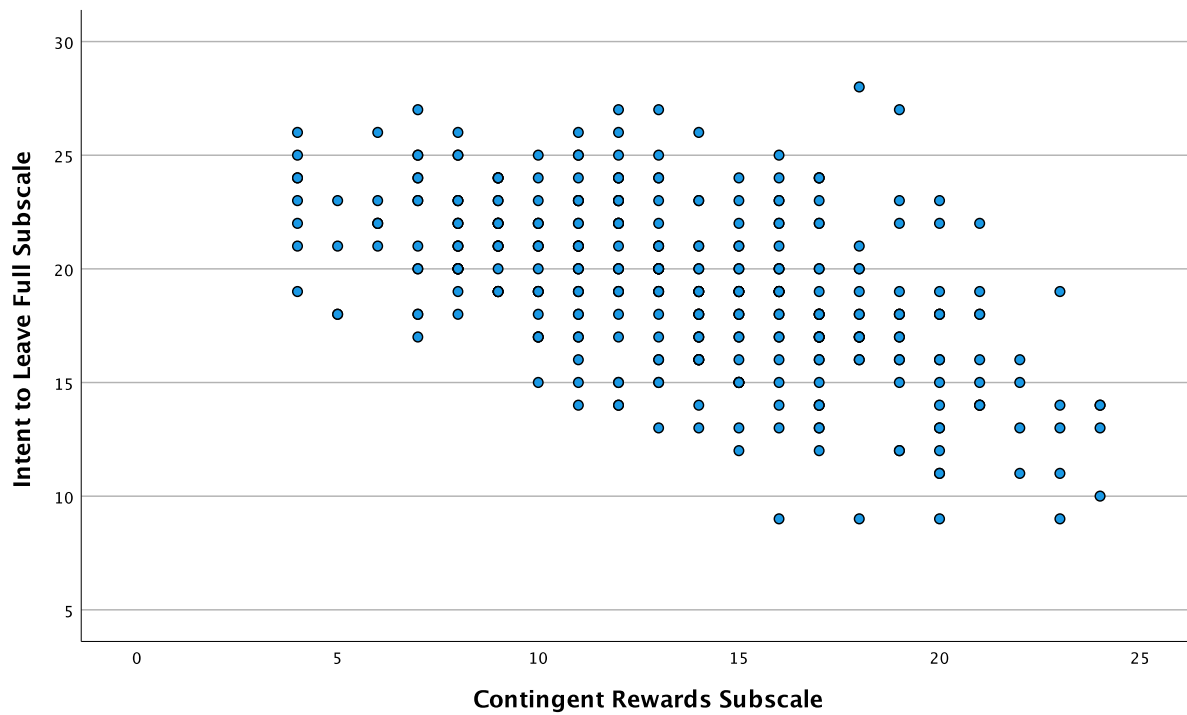
The finding in Figure 7 suggests a significant negative relationship between operating conditions and intent to leave, $r(339) = -.395$, $p < .001$. The result suggests that as the satisfaction with the operating conditions decreases, the intent to leave increases.

Figure 7

Operating Conditions Subscale and Intent to Leave

Figure 8 suggests a significant negative relationship between coworkers and intent to leave, $r(339) = -.414$, $p < .001$. The result suggests that the intent to leave increases when the satisfaction with coworkers decreases.

Figure 8

Coworker Subscale and Intent to Leave

The finding in Figure 9 suggests a significant negative relationship between the nature of work and intent to leave, $r(339) = -.521$, $p < .001$. The result suggests that if the satisfaction with the nature of work decreases, the intent to leave increases.

Figure 9

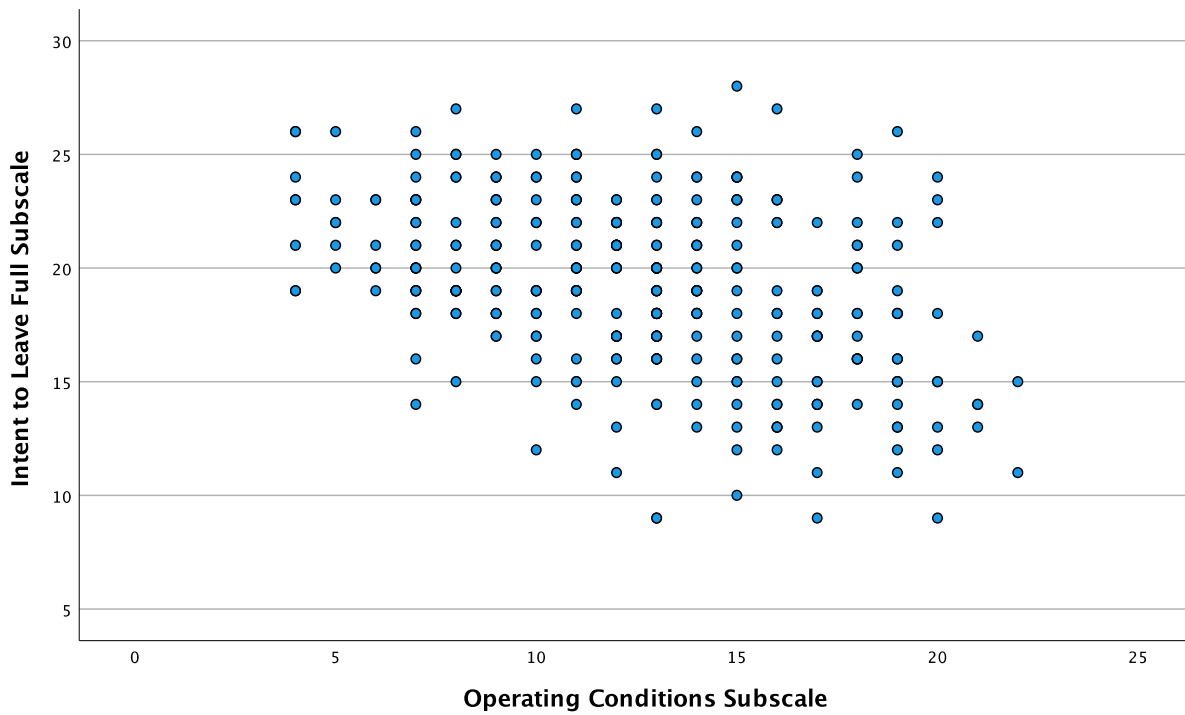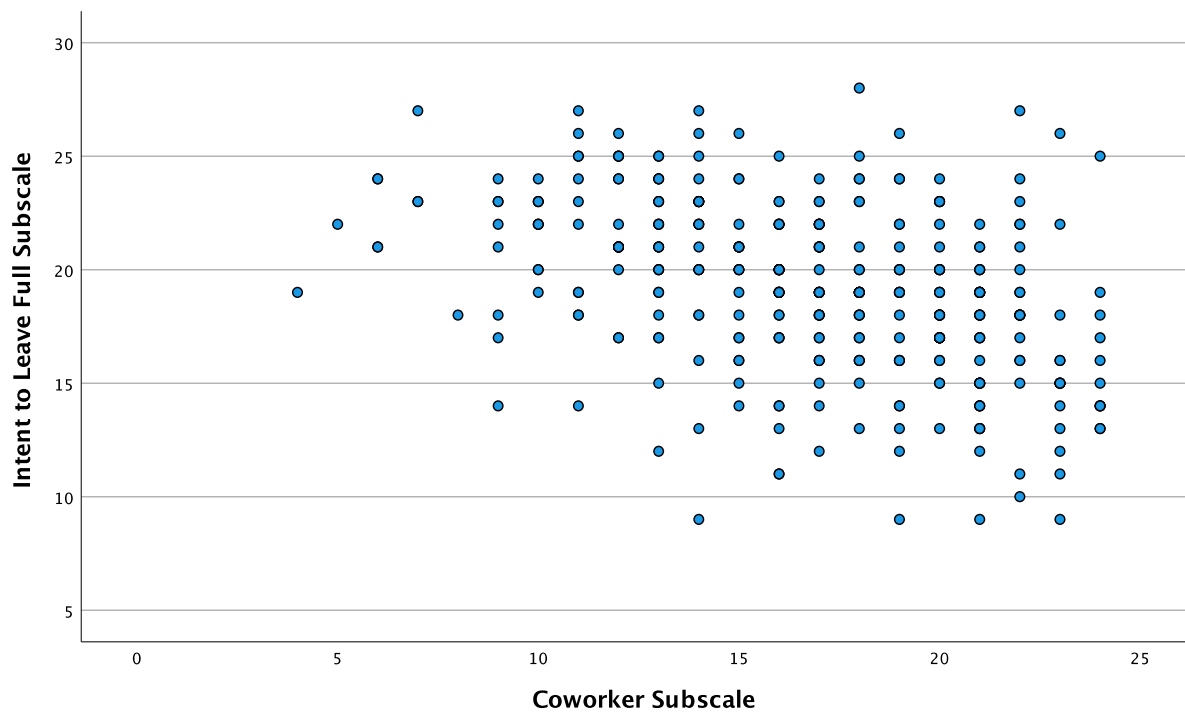*Nature of Work Subscale and Intent to Leave*
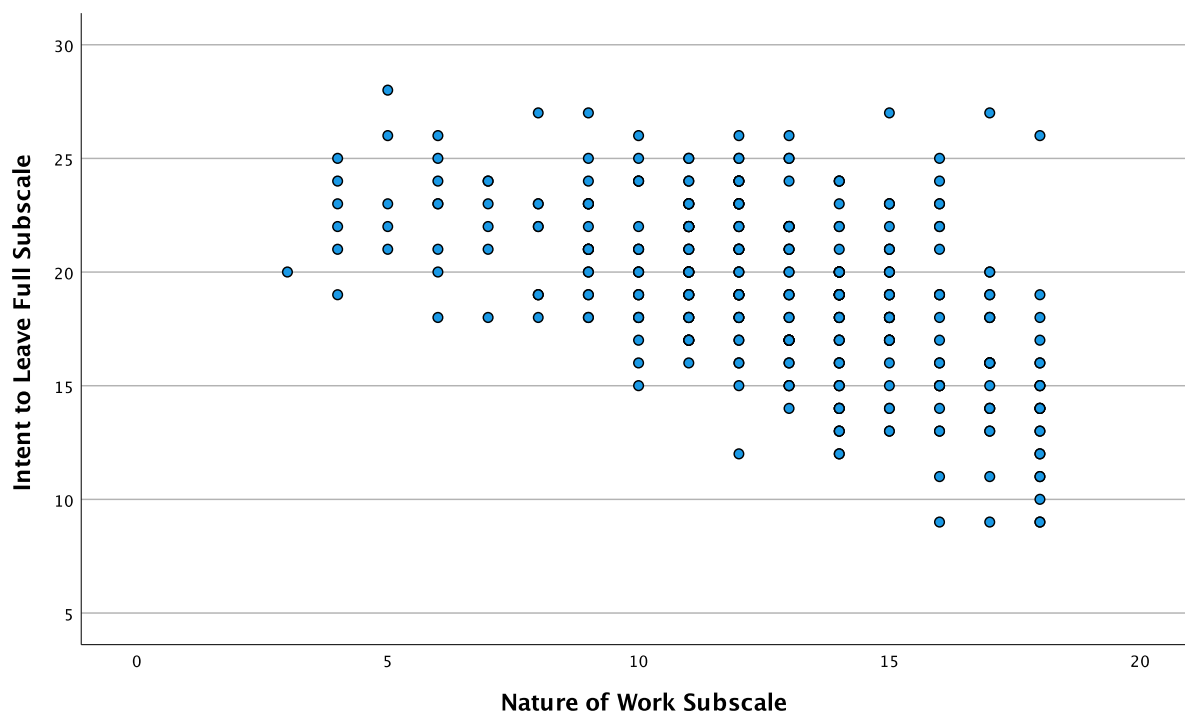
The finding in Figure 10 suggests a significant positive relationship between communication and intent to leave, $r(339) = .419, p < .001$. This result suggests that when satisfaction with communication increases, the intent to leave also increases. Three of the four items in this scale were worded negatively, therefore causing these three items to be reversed scored. Although this relationship is significant, it is not meaningful.

Figure 10

Communication Subscale and Intent to Leave
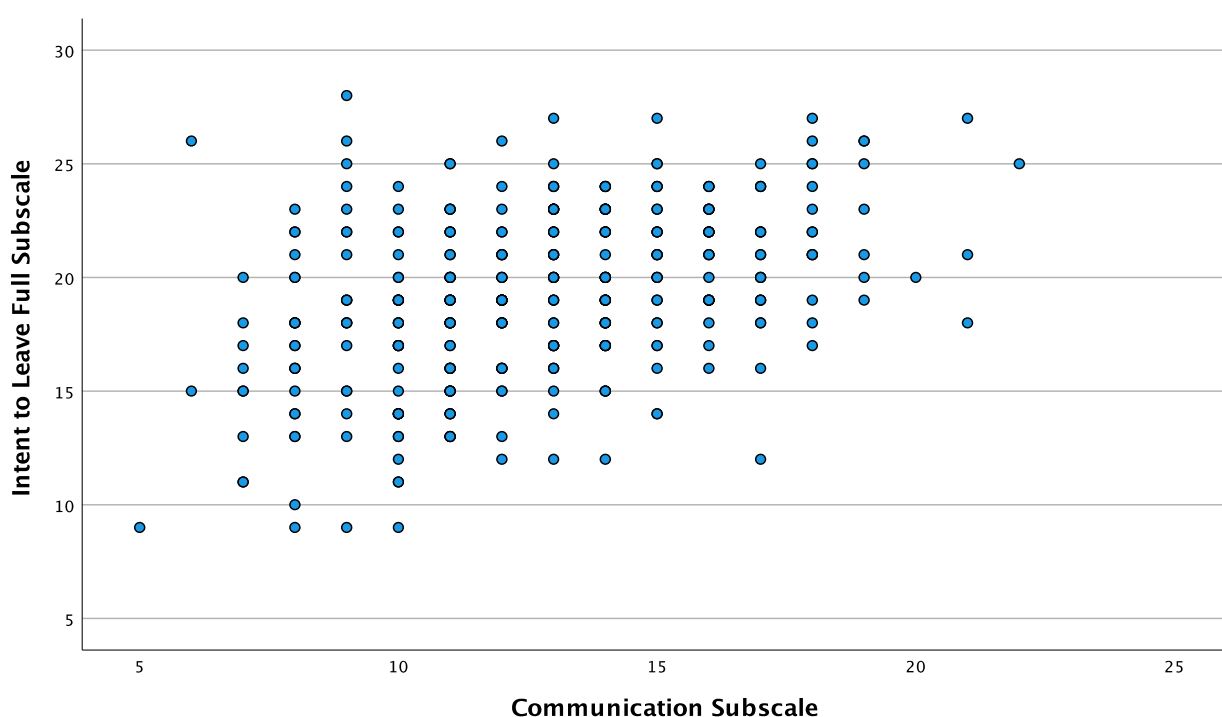
Chapter Summary

The sample of 341 participants included in this study represented millennials currently working in higher education in the United States. This sample surpassed the minimum target sample of 100. A correlational analysis was conducted to address the research question asking if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention in higher education. The Pearson's product-moment correlation was used to measure the bivariate

relationships between each of the total JSS and job satisfaction subscales (independent variables) and the TIS-6 scale (dependent variable).

The results suggest a significantly negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention in higher education. The JSS contained nine subscales and one total score scale. Within the subscales, the findings showed eight of the nine subscales as having a significant negative relationship with the intent to leave. Those subscales were pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, and nature of work. These correlations showed that when satisfaction within these subscales decreases, the intent to leave increases. The data revealed that communication was the only subscale that had a significantly positive relationship with intent to leave, indicating that when satisfaction with communication increases, so does the intent to leave. Although this relationship is statistically significant, it is not meaningful. It is not meaningful because there is no rational explanation for an increase in communication positively correlating with an intent to leave. Multiple studies found a negative relationship between communication and intent to leave (Apker et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2002; Scott et al., 1999; Vetter, 2014). Chapter 5 will provide a discussion, conclusions, and recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

According to multiple researchers, there are multiple generations in the workplace; however, turnover is higher among millennials than in other generations (Ertas, 2015; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019; Kowske et al., 2010). This is important because Nguyen Sin (2017) predicts that by the year 2022, millennials will be the largest generation in the workplace. If organizations do not find effective ways to reduce the turnover rate among this population of employees, the cost associated with recruiting, selecting, and training will likely continue to increase (Allen et al., 2010). Millennial turnover costs the U.S. workforce $30.5 billion annually (Adkins, 2016; Ivanović & Ivančević, 2019). To prevent turnover and save companies money annually, employers must first understand what factors or variables are related to millennial turnover intention within the workplace. This quantitative study's purpose was to examine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education.

A cross-sectional, quantitative study was conducted to determine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. Turnover intention was defined as an employee's conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave a particular company or organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Job satisfaction was defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Colquitt et al., 2013). The target population for this study was millennials born between the years 1981 and 2000 working in higher education within the United States.

Discussion of the Findings

This study focused primarily on identifying if a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention (intent to leave) among millennial employees currently

working in higher education in the United States. The research was addressed by posing the following question: Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education?

This question was addressed by utilizing the scoring outlined by Spector's scale designed for the JSS and the scoring outlined by Roodt's scale designed for the TIS-6. The data suggests that millennials who participated in this study have higher intentions to leave higher education when overall job satisfaction is lower. Therefore, suggesting that there was a significant relationship between the two. Majority of the participants in this study identified as female, suggesting that when these millennial women are satisfied in the workplace, their intention to leave decreases. The number of women that participated in this study $n = 270$. Also, the data analysis revealed that the majority of the participants have worked in higher education for more than five years, also suggesting that an increase in job satisfaction results in a lower intention to leave in those who have been in higher education longer. According to Adkins (2016), millennials are the generation most likely to switch jobs, calling them "the job-hopping generation" (p. 1). This study suggests with most participants being in higher education for five-plus years that, if colleges and institutions can increase job satisfaction, then their intent to leave will stay low. According to a survey conducted by CareerBuilder in 2021, for millennials, the average length of time spent at a job is two years and nine months. Most participants in this study had been in higher education for more than five years; however, the data did not reveal the length of time those participants had been in their current or previous roles. This is one limitation of the study.

The study also examined if there were significant relationships between intent to leave and each of the subscales presented in the JSS. The data revealed a significant relationship

between pay and intent to leave and promotion and intent to leave. The data suggests that the intent to leave increases when the satisfaction with the pay at an institution and the ability to be promoted decreases. This supports the findings of a study conducted by Ng et al. (2010). Their study suggested that millennials expected to receive promotions and pay raises after working for a company for six months. The study also suggested that 68% of the respondents expected to be promoted within the first 18 months in their first job, and the average expectation for promotion was 15.1 months.

The data revealed that there was also a significant relationship between satisfaction with supervisors and intent to leave and satisfaction with coworkers and intent to leave. The results suggested that if the satisfaction with the supervisor was low, then the intent to leave increased. The results revealed the same regarding coworkers. If the satisfaction with coworkers was low, then the intent to leave increased. This finding supports Weeks and Schaffert's (2019) two-part study that was conducted to determine meaningful work across multiple generations. Their study revealed that millennials felt that work must be meaningful and made them feel happy and fulfilled with nice coworkers. The data suggested that work relationships were important to the participants of this study. Not only are the relationships between them are important, but so are the competency levels of their peers and their supervisors. This finding also supports a study conducted by Rigoni and Adkins (2016), who reported that according to Gallup, managers account for 70% of the variance in employee engagement in the workplace. About one in 10 people possess the natural high talent to manage the workplace; therefore, organizations name the wrong person as managers about 80% of the time. Also, according to the findings in this study, it was revealed that one in two employees had left their workplaces due to their direct supervisors.

The data analysis in this study revealed significant relationships between the nature of work and the intent to leave, along with operating conditions and the intent to leave. The data suggested that if the satisfaction with the nature of work was low, then the intent to leave increased. The data also suggested the same about operating conditions. If the satisfaction with the operating conditions decreases, then the intent to leave increases. This finding supports Christiansen et al.'s (2014) finding that a misfit with tasks can result in distress, which can cause employees to seek new employment.

The data analysis in this study also revealed a significant relationship between fringe benefits and intent to leave and contingent rewards and intent to leave. Although the relationship between fringe benefits and intent to leave was significant, it had a small effect size. The data suggests that only 5.6% of the participants would leave their institutions if they were not satisfied with the fringe benefits at their institution. Usually, fringe benefits are discussed prior to job onboarding; therefore, one can assume that employees reviewed the fringe benefits prior to accepting the position due to the small effect size. However, the relationship between contingent rewards and intent to leave had a large effect size. The data showed that nearly 30% of the participants would leave their positions if they were not satisfied with the contingent reward system that their institutions had in place. Multiple studies have discovered that contingent rewards are important to this generation of workers.

Lastly, the data analysis in this study suggests a statistically significant relationship between communication and intent to leave. The results suggest that the intent to leave increases when the communication increases. Although the study revealed a significant relationship, this relationship was not meaningful. It is not meaningful because there is no rational explanation for an increase in communication positively correlating with an intent to leave. Multiple studies

found a negative relationship between communication and intent to leave. A study conducted by Lu et al. (2002) revealed a negative statistically significant relationship between communication and intent to leave among registered nurses and their supervisors.

Strengths and Limitations

A key strength of this study was the large sample size. The target sample size was $N =$ 100; however, there were a total of 341 participants. This is significant because it provided the study with a diversity of responses. Another strength of the study was its cost-effectiveness. The survey was deployed using free social media platforms. Lastly, the reliability of this study is another strength. Utilizing the survey method ensures that all participants receive the same questions the same way each time.

This study also had limitations. One of the limitations of this study was that only millennial participants currently working in various roles within higher education at regionally accredited public and private institutions in 2021–2022 were included. The participants' institutions varied in size, location, and reporting structure; therefore, it was not possible to assume that all millennials held comparable positions at their campuses or if these employees had equal responsibilities. Therefore, job satisfaction and intent to leave were interpreted and generalized for a population rather than for specific types of institutions or those who had specific roles and responsibilities.

Although Iwas successful at exceeding the target sample size of 100, the study pool was limited to professional groups via social media platforms. I was not informed if snowballing occurred and could not track and record those efforts. Also, due to the vast reach of the social media platforms, I did not capture the various regions or states of the participants.

Although demographic information was collected, these data were not considered in the study. I attempted to secure a diverse pool of participants; as a result, out of the 341 participants, 270 were women, 60 were men, and six were nonbinary. This study did not examine the relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave according to gender or the length of time the participants had worked in higher education. This study also did not collect the various areas in higher education that the participants worked in. Although the survey asked the participants to select how many years they had worked in higher education in total, it did not collect the number of years the participants were in their current positions. This information could have helped speak to the turnover intention. Lastly, the survey did not collect any information regarding the current leadership positions the participants held.

Implications for Practice

The results of this study have practical implications for those who work in higher education. The data revealed a significant relationship between millennial job satisfaction and intent to leave. The data also revealed a significant relationship between each of the job satisfaction subscales and intent to leave. The results revealed that supervision, contingent rewards, and nature of work subscales all had a large effect size on the participants. This could be important for leaders in higher education, as these are three key areas that impact job satisfaction amongst the millennial generation.

Supervisors at institutions are an important factor in job satisfaction among millennials. It is important that institutions implement effective hiring practices that ensure that institutions select quality leaders who are the best fit. It is also important that ongoing professional development is put into place for supervisors to provide ongoing and just-in-time training to continue to equip those individuals that are currently serving these roles. This will allow

institutions to keep quality supervisors in place, which will potentially minimize turnover intentions among millennials.

Contingent rewards are extremely important to this generation. It is important that institutions create effective mechanisms to recognize when employees do a good job. The results from this survey suggest that employees need to feel appreciated at work. Many institutions recognize employees on Employee Appreciation Day; however, it is important that leaders embed ways to recognize employees and make them feel appreciated more frequently.

Lastly, the nature of work has a large impact on job satisfaction among the millennial generation. It is important that higher education leaders consider the nature of their employees' work. This generation wants to have a sense of pride in their work. These employees desire to have an enjoyable workplace. Also, this group would like to have a sense of pride in their work. It is important that leaders in higher education adopt a regular practice of reviewing job descriptions, that way, there is a continuous process to assess if the qualifications and skills that institutions are seeking align with the duties that the person in that position would be performing. Often, job descriptions are outdated, and when filled, individuals are asked to perform job functions that were not aligned with the job descriptions. Also, it is important that institutions clearly communicate their mission and ingrain those values in the college culture. This will allow employees to have a sense of pride for the institution and their work.

Implications for Future Research

The implication of this study includes the possibility of future research on job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials focusing on the size of institutions, state and location, and leadership level. Multiple studies focused on generational differences, career expectations, job satisfaction, turnover in the workplace, or employee motivation (Mann & Harter, 2016;

Wood, 2019). However, only a few studies explored these areas combined and even fewer studies that focused solely on millennial employees in higher education in the United States. Jahanbani et al. (2018) conducted a study that focused on millennial workers in the health care industry. This study focused on the relationships that existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials who work in higher education.

Higher education has various aspects associated with it. An opportunity for future research would be to conduct a comparative analysis of the job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials that work in student affairs versus those who work in academic affairs. Another opportunity for future research would be to investigate if relationships between job satisfaction and turnover intention differed from those who work at two-year institutions versus four-year institutions. Also, future research could analyze the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials in leadership positions and provide predicting factors. As the workforce ages, millennials are obtaining key leadership roles in institutions, and it is important to understand if there are any relationships and predicting factors that would cause turnover. Lastly, Texas has close to 50 community colleges in the state. Future research can be conducted to explore which community college has higher turnover intention and the factors associated with it.

This study provided the landscape for future research and contributed to the body of literature to address previous gaps. However, this study always presented a couple of new gaps in the body of literature. This study examined if significant relationships existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials in higher education. This study confirmed that a significant relationship does exist; however, it did not provide insight on why a

relationship existed and what factors contributed to the significant relationship. This is a gap in the literature. A qualitative study on this topic could address this new literature gap.

Chapter Summary

A quantitative study was conducted to determine if there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education. The target population for this study was millennials born between the years 1981 and 2000 working in higher education within the United States. This study focused primarily on identifying if a significant relationship existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention (intent to leave) among millennial employees currently working in higher education in the United States. The research was addressed by posing the following question: Is there a significant relationship between job satisfaction and millennial turnover intention within higher education? This question was addressed by utilizing the scoring outlined by Spector's scale designed for the JSS and the scoring outlined by Roodt's scale designed for the TIS-6. The data suggests that millennials who participated in this study had higher intentions to leave higher education when overall job satisfaction was lower. The data revealed significant relationships between each of the subscales in the JSS and intent to leave.

There were several limitations discussed in this chapter. One of the limitations discussed was that information regarding the participant's institutions varied in size, location, and reporting structure; therefore, it is not possible to assume that all millennials held comparable positions at their campuses or if these employees had equal responsibilities. Therefore, the results for job satisfaction and intent to leave were interpreted and generalized for a population rather than for the specific type of institutions or those who had specific roles and responsibilities. As discussed in this chapter, this limitation provides several opportunities for future research. A potential

researcher could examine if location, size, or position impacts the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

Other limitations and opportunities for future research were discussed in this chapter. Another recommendation for future research would be to conduct a qualitative study on the relationship found in this study that existed between job satisfaction and turnover intention among millennials. This study provided the foundation for future research to explore further the various subscales within the Job Satisfaction Survey and leadership roles or other demographic variables have an impact.

This chapter also discussed the implications for practice. This study is important for leaders in higher education. This chapter provided suggestions and recommendations to improve three areas within institutions: supervisors, contingent rewards, and nature of work. This study revealed that these areas largely impact millennial participants. It is recommended that institutions invest in professional development for their current supervisors and provide effective hiring practices when selecting new supervisors to lower the risk of turnover intention. Another recommendation for leaders in higher education is to develop a robust system to acknowledge employees and enhance employee recognition procedures. Lastly, it was revealed that nature of work is important to the millennials that participated in this study. It was recommended in this chapter that institutions have clear mission statements and embed the values in the institution's culture so employees can have a sense of pride in their work.

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Appendix A: Job Satisfaction Survey

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1996, All Rights Reserved.	
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much / Disagree moderately / Disagree slightly / Agree slightly / Agree moderately / Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion in my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of [the] people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

		Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree very much
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1996, All Rights Reserved.	
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefits package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances of salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have that we should have.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances of promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Note. From *Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Research and Practice*, P. Spector, 1996,

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domain.

Appendix B: Authorization to Use the JSS

All of the assessments in the [Paul's No Cost Assessments](#) section of paulspector.com are copyrighted. They were developed by me and my colleagues.

You have my permission for free noncommercial research/teaching use of any of the assessments that are in the Paul's No Cost Assessments section. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, as shown in the downloadable copy of each scale.

For commercial uses, there is a fee for using these scales. A commercial use means you are charging someone a fee to provide a service that includes use of one or more of these scales. Contact me at xxxxxxxx@paulspector.com to discuss fees for commercial use.

Translations

You are welcome to translate any of these scales into another language if you agree to send me a copy of the translation. Word (.doc or .docx) is best, but .pdf is also acceptable. Be sure to include the copyright statement on the translated version, as well as credit the person who did the translation and the year.

Sharing Results

A condition for [the] free use of these assessments is that you share results. The results I need include:

1. Means per subscale and total score.
2. Sample size.
3. Brief description of [the] sample (e.g., 220 hospital nurses). I don't need to know the organization's name if it is sensitive.
4. Name of [the] country where collected, and if outside of the United States, the language used. I am especially interested in nonAmerican samples.
5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional).
6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional).

Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a conference paper, dissertation, journal article, thesis, etc.) where one or more of these assessments are used.

You can share the material with me via e-mail: xxxxxxxxxxx@paulspector.com

Retrieved: https://paulspector.com/assessments/pauls-no-cost-assessments/conditions-for-using-these-assessments/

Appendix C: Turnover Intention Scale (TIS)

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The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. *Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question.*

DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS…

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Always**
2	How frequently do you scan the newspapers in search of alternative job opportunities?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**All the time**
3	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	**Very satisfying**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Totally dissatisfying**
4	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Always**
5	How often are your personal values at work compromised?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Always**
6	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Always**
7	How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	**Highly unlikely**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Highly likely**
8	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	**Always**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Never**
9	How often do you think about starting your own business?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**Always**
10R	To what extent do responsibilities prevent you from quitting your job?	**To no extent**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**To a very large extent**
11R	To what extent do the benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job?	**To no extent**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**To a very large extent**
12	How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**All of the time**
13	To what extent does your current job have a negative effect on your personal well-being?	**To no extent**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**To a very large extent**

14R	To what extent does the "fear of the unknown" prevent you from quitting?	**To no extent**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**To a very large extent**
15	How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?	**Never**	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	**All of the time**

Note. From "Concept Redundancy and Contamination in Employee Commitment Research:

Current Problems and Future Directions," G. Roodt, 2004, *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*,

30(1), 82–90 (https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v30i1.135). Adapted with permission.

Appendix D: Authorization to Use the TIS-6

Inbox

 (a) De'Aira Holloway <xxxxx@acu.edu>   Nov 14, 2021,
                                                                    6:43 PM

To xxxxx@uj.ac.za

Hello Dr. Roodt,

My name is De'Aira, and I am a doctoral student at Abilene Christian University in Texas. I would like to conduct a study on millennial turnover intention in higher educational workspaces and would like permission to use your TIS-6 instrument.

Thank you for your consideration,

De'Aira Holloway

(b) xxxxx@gmail.com   Nov 15, 2021, 3:32
                                                                          AM

To me

Dear De'Aira,

You are welcome to use the TIS for your research (please accept this e-mail as the formal permission letter). For this purpose, please find the TIS-15 attached for your convenience. This TIS-6 (version 4) consists of the first six items highlighted in yellow. You may use any one of these two versions. The TIS is based on the theory of planned behaviour.

The only two conditions for using the TIS are that it may not be used for commercial purposes (other than for postgraduate research) and second that it should be properly referenced as Roodt, 2004 as in the article by Bothma and Roodt (2013) in the SA Journal of Human Resource Management (open access).

It is easy to score the TIS-6. Merely add the item scores to get a total score. The midpoint of the scale is 18 (3 x 6). If the total score is below 18, then it indicates a desire to stay. If the scores are above 18, it indicates a desire to leave the organisation. The minimum a person can get is 6 (6 x 1), and the maximum is 30 (5 x 6). No item scores need to be reflected (reverse scored).

It is recommended that you conduct a CFA on the item scores to assess the dimensionality of the scale. We found that respondents with a matric (grade12) tertiary school qualification tend to understand the items better, and consequently, a unidimensional factor structure is obtained.

If you wish to translate the TIS in a local language, you are welcome to do so. It is recommended that a language expert is used in the translate-back translate method. I wish you all the best with your research!

Best regards,

Prof. Gert Roodt

Appendix E: IRB Approval Letter

ABILENE CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY
Educating Students for Christian Service and Leadership Throughout the World

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
320 Hardin Administration Building, ACU Box 29103, Abilene, Texas 79699-9103
325-674-2885

December 16, 2021

De'Aira M. Holloway
Department of Graduate and Professional Studies
Abilene Christian University

Dear De'Aira,

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I am pleased to inform you that your project titled
"A Quantitative Examination of Factors Causing Millennial Turnover Intention in Higher Educational Workplaces",

(IRB# 21-177   )is exempt from review under Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects.

If at any time the details of this project change, please resubmit to the IRB so the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable.

I wish you well with your work.

Sincerely,

Megan Roth

Megan Roth, Ph.D.
Director of Research and Sponsored Programs