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Examining the Relationship of Social Inclusion on Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions of US Post-9/11 Veterans

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Walden University

College of Psychology and Community Services

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Shereé LaTone Peters

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Walden University

2023

Abstract

Examining the Relationship of Social Inclusion on Job Satisfaction and Turnover

Intentions of US Post-9/11 Veterans by

Shereé LaTone Peters

MS, Walden University, 2011

BA, University of Oklahoma, 2001

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Industrial-Organizational Psychology

Walden University

February 2023

Abstract

Many American veterans return to the civilian workforce and report having problems reintegrating into society, as well as finding their role in the new corporate social realms. Over 80% leave their civilian jobs within the first two years of employment, and over 70% report experiencing feelings of loneliness. Recently, the World Health Organization reported that the lack of perceived social inclusion also has a significant economic impact on both individuals and societies. A quantitative, nonexperimental methodology was used to examine the moderating relationship of social inclusion on the relationship between job employee turnover intentions of post-9/11 enlisted veterans. This study used the job satisfaction survey (JSS), the revised 10 question social provision scale (SPS-10R), and the turnover intention scale to survey the turnover intentions and perceptions of job satisfaction, loneliness, and social isolation ($N = 58$) of self-reported enlisted post-9-11 enlisted veterans. Based on data analysis, there was not a statistically significant moderating relationship between the variables. However, the results did reveal that there was a strong positive correlation between social inclusion perceptions and job satisfaction. Although not related, it should be noted that participants reported ambivalent feelings ($M = 132.00$, $SD = 12.697$) towards their current jobs and nearly 60% reported planning on leaving in the future and female veterans, ages 27-32 report higher levels of perceived loneliness. The results of this study have the potential to lead to improvements in the transition process for veterans, improved hiring and retention practices, as well as create an opportunity for open dialogues to dispel misconceptions between civilians and veterans.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

In one form or another, job satisfaction and the retention of valued employees have been popular topics since before industrial-organizational psychology was a legitimate field of study. Employers have long sought to keep the knowledge and skills of valued employees (Baldonado, 2018). As social media has become an increasingly large entanglement in the everyday lives of humans, a social dichotomy has emerged (Cigna, 2018). A contradictory construct has emerged that has left many people reporting that even though they are more connected electronically through devices and social media, the research found that many also reported feeling lonelier and less interpersonally connected to others than ever (Cigna, 2018). This loneliness phenomenon stems from a perceived lack of social inclusion or exclusion, depending on if there is a perceived deficit (Allman, 2013). Traditionally, the term has been used interchangeably with social connectedness or disconnectedness. As a result, more and more research has begun to be dedicated to studying the effects of socialization on various cultures.

The correlative effects of perceived social inclusion were and remained one of the more under-researched areas among the unique subculture of American veterans. Typically, when research has been done concerning veterans, it concerns mental health issues such as posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), traumatic brain injuries (TBI), or health care usage of the Veterans Administration (VA) services (Wilks et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2018; Zogas, 2017). In terms of work, researchers tend to stop at unemployment numbers, types of employment, higher education enrollments during the first year after discharge, or translating military job skills and

training (Morin, 2011; Watson et al., 2017; Wilks et al., 2018). Previous socialization research has concentrated on the changing intimate relationships with spouses, family, and children.

However, American veterans return to the civilian workforce by the hundreds of thousands yearly (Zogas, 2017). Many reported having problems reintegrating into society and finding their role in the new corporate social realms (Zogas, 2017). Yet, scarce research existed into how their social lives influence their work attitudes. Researchers have found that serving in the U.S. military provides members a substantial opportunity with a sense of community, belonging, and understanding; leaving means they often lose these bonds and sense of community (Wilson et al., 2018). A recent study found that a significant number of veterans have reported feeling socially isolated or lonely after losing the tight familial military bonds; once discharged, those relationships become broken or difficult to maintain (Wilson et al., 2018).

The transition from military to civilian is a complex process characterized by a series of adjustments unique to the veteran population (Keeling et al., 2018) that often involves mental, physical, and economic shifts for the service member(s) (Schafer et al., 2016). These life changes can include seeking employment in the civilian sector, adjusting to the structure of civilian organizations, establishing a new civilian identity, and creating new community bonds (Morin, 2011). It is usual for people to experience periodic episodes of disconnection after a trauma or significant life events like divorce, death, or the breakup of an intimate relationship (Cacioppo et al., 2011). Short-term incidences of feeling lonely or socially isolated are normal; everyone briefly experiences the emotions associated with social disconnectedness throughout their lifetime (Cigna, 2018).

A 2018 study found that over 9% of adults in Japan, 22% in the United States, and 23% in the United Kingdom reported that they always or often feel lonely or isolated (DiJulio et al., 2018). Currently, over 42 million adults experience chronic loneliness, with a majority of them not participating in any kind of social group or club, religious group, community group, or sports league (Holt-Lunstad, 2017). Regardless of age, gender, ethnicity, or cultural background, humans are social beings with a fundamental need for group inclusion (Marano, 2016), strong human-to-human social connections (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2017), emotionally significant relationships, and to feel like they are a part of their host communities (Cornwell & Waite, 2009). The studies concluded that social inclusion (SI) is vital to the well-being of humans (Allman, 2013; Cacioppo et al., 2011; Murthy, 2017).

These emotional bonds are vital to the survival of the species, communities, and nations (Williams & Braun, 2019). The absence of social inclusion of an individual can negatively impact groups within neighborhoods, workplaces, and communities and is the responsibility of clinicians, educators, colleagues, managers, community members, friends, and neighbors (Baumgartner & Burns, 2014). Wilson et al. (2018) suggested that although the effects of social inclusion have historically been studied in older adults and people with mental health disorders, younger people are now more at risk, citing veterans as particularly vulnerable. In Chapter 1, I will attempt to improve the reader's knowledge of the currently available research, background of the study, nature, the problem statement, theoretical framework, research questions and hypotheses, purpose of the study, definitions, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, scope, and significance to social change, theory, and the analysis itself.

Background of the Study

This study encompassed the current knowledge relevant to social inclusion, veteran reintegration outcomes, job satisfaction, employee motivation, and turnover intentions. Social inclusion is an umbrella term often used interchangeably with social connectedness when used to measure and conceptualize social relationships (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2017). The use of either term generally includes the constructs of both perceived social exclusion (loneliness) and the actual lack of social interaction (social isolation). Researchers have extensively studied social inclusion and humans' need to belong (Davey & Gordon, 2017). Recent studies by researchers such as Virick et al. (2007), Allman (2013), and Anchustigui (2016) on the relationship between work and employees' social life have prompted others to begin to expand the depth and breadth of research surrounding social inclusion (SI) and work.

Among the earliest to study the phenomena was Abraham Maslow (1943) listed belonging as a fundamental human survival need, positing that needs such as food, hunger, safety, and security were closely followed by belongingness (Alajmi & Alasousi, 2018). According to him, without the perception of belonging, humans lack the ability to be creative, solve complex problems, and were unable to accept facts (Alajmi & Alasousi, 2018; Maslow, 1943). Both creativity and complex problem-solving are traits that organizations find essential to quality employees (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011). Baumgartner and Burns (2014) found that a significant number of human psychological abnormalities (anxiety, depression, grief, loneliness, relationship problems, neuroticism, maladaptiveness, and other destructive behaviors) are the results of perceived threats to social bonds or people's failure to meet their belongingness needs.

The chronic absence of perceived social inclusion can cause an increase in the stress hormone cortisol. Sustained increases in cortisol levels can result in early death, cognitive decline, impaired decision-making, regulation of emotions, obesity, increased risk for cardiovascular disease, tissue inflammation, and suppression of the immune system (Wilson et al., 2018). There is also the danger of them experiencing depression, increased suicidality, isolating themselves in their homes for extended periods, participating in little or no communication with family, acquaintances, or friends, and avoiding contact with others when offered (Cacioppo et al., 2011). Holt-Lunstad et al. (2017) suggested that perceived social exclusion was an urgent global public health problem that affects people throughout their lives.

Wilks et al. (2018) found multiple intrinsic and extrinsic factors unique to veterans. These factors include military-related trauma and injuries, losing touch with fellow service members, lack of peer support, the struggle to understand civilians and their culture, and the loss of a sense of identity often contribute to feelings of loneliness or social isolation. When a person experiences prolonged feelings of loneliness and isolation, there are physical, cognitive, and emotional consequences (Holt-Lunstad et al., 2017) that can present as indicators of maladjustment (Cigna, 2018).

Further, there has been a significant global increase in the number of reported cases of perceived social disconnectedness, correlating the lack of connections to both mental and physical diseases and disorders (Anchustigui, 2016; Legerski & Cornwall, 2010; Michel et al., 2011; Naithani, 2010; Paiva et al., 2021; Virick et al., 2007). It has resulted in a demand for more information (Allman, 2013). Most of these newer studies have concentrated on the elderly, immigrants, and those with mental illnesses. Nearly all of the veteran reintegration and social

health research focuses on those with PTSD, traumatic brain injuries, aging seniors, military sexual trauma (MST) (Danish & Antonides, 2013; Sayer et al., 2015; & Zogas, 2017), veterans in higher education and professional training settings (Platt, 2017) or the effects on their spouses and families (Danish & Antonides, 2013).

In 1944 former President Roosevelt recognized that there was a problem with returning service members regarding jobs and social relationships and introduced the military-to-civilian socioeconomic movement (Ortiz, 2006). Nearly a century after Roosevelt introduced the concept of the need for programs to assist veteran reintegration back into the civilian sector remains an unsolved phenomenon. Numerous entities have researched and established transition programs, including military, governmental, and civilian organizations (Crocker et al., 2014; Elnitsky et al., 2017; Veteran Jobs Mission Coalition, 2015).

Currently, the American government spends over \$90 billion annually to support military transition programs (Zogas, 2017). Nevertheless, U.S. military armed forces members continue to experience problems during the transition (Sayer, et al., 2015) and often underestimate both the number and depth of life changes inherent to the process of transitioning from the Armed Forces and into the civilian world (Edwards, 2015; King, 2011). The transition from military to civilian is a complex process characterized by a series of adjustments unique to the veteran population (Keeling et al., 2018) that often involves mental, physical, and economic shifts for the service member(s) (Schafer et al., 2016).

The absence of social inclusion can negatively impact groups within neighborhoods and workplaces (Baumgartner & Burns, 2014). People who feel isolated or unaccepted by their group(s) are more likely to experience poor health, loneliness, depression, isolation, poor self-

esteem, job dissatisfaction, or disengagement (Hawley & Capitano, 2015). However, there was a lack of research on how reintegration into the civilian community can affect veteran career transitions (job satisfaction, employee motivation, and turnover intentions) (Sayer, et al., 2015).

Problem Statement

This study encompassed the current knowledge relevant to social connectedness, veteran reintegration, transition programs, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Few organizational leaders understand the effects outside influences can have on their businesses; most choose to concentrate predominantly on recruiting veterans and have few thoughts on veteran employee retention (Buchbinder & Shanks, 2012). As a result, most have no active management and retention practices in place or are not prepared to help civilian employees facilitate veteran employees in successfully transitioning into the civilian sector (Keeling et al., 2018).

Over 300,000 armed forces members are discharged annually (Zogas, 2017). Ford (2017) found that over 50% of veterans will leave their jobs within the first year of employment, and a further 33% of the remaining veterans will seek new employment within another 12 months (Maury et al., 2014). Recent studies by researchers such as Virick et al. (2007), Allman (2013), and Anchustigui (2016) on the relationship between work and employees' social life have prompted others to begin to expand the depth and breadth of research surrounding SI and work. The quality of an employee's personal life and productivity levels have been found to be significantly related to job attitudes (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012).

Further, a significant global increase in the number of reported cases of perceived social disconnectedness, especially during the recent pandemic, found significant correlations between social connections and mental and physical diseases and disorders (Anchustigui, 2016; Legerski

& Cornwall, 2010; Michel et al., 2011; Naithani, 2010; Pavia et al., 2021; Virick et al., 2007).

This resulted in an increased demand for more information.

Most of these newer studies have concentrated primarily on the elderly, immigrants, and those with mental illnesses. Nearly all veterans' reintegration and social health research concentrated on those with PTSD, traumatic brain injuries, aging seniors, and MST (Danish & Antonides, 2013; Sayer et al., 2015; & Zogas, 2017) or veterans in higher education, tradespeople training programs (Platt, 2017), as well as the effects on their spouses and families (Danish & Antonides, 2013).

Because of the lack of information on the socioeconomic transition experience of veterans in the workplace, discovering a connection between job satisfaction, the increased chances of turnover, and veterans experiencing social isolation and loneliness could allow human resource professionals, organizational leaders, managers, and trainers to be better prepared to evaluate and understand nuances among employees to design employee experiences. These targeted programs have the promise to continually promote performance, attract diverse talent, encourage participation, and foster innovation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and the perceived social (dis)connectedness factors of loneliness and social isolation in post 9-11 veterans. Often veterans of all ages, backgrounds, and genders find the conflict between military and civilian values and norms confusing or conflicting, becoming a barrier to overcoming the challenges inherent to transitioning from the service (Zogas, 2017) and finding their place and forming in the civilian

world (Cacioppo et al., 2011). The alternative purpose of this quantitative, correlational design study was to contribute information to the body of knowledge regarding the nature of perceived social inclusion of post-9/11 veterans concerning their workplace attitudes and behaviors.

The study used nonlinear regression and descriptive analysis techniques to examine potential relationships between the social inclusion variables of perceived social isolation (PSI) and loneliness (L) as moderators for the predictor variables of job satisfaction (JS), the criterion variable of turnover intentions (TI) among enlisted U.S. military veterans employed in civilian workplaces to address the gap in the literature. The determination was made using scores from the job satisfaction survey, turnover intentions scale, and social provisions scale. The objectives of this study were:

1. To determine if perceived social (dis)connectedness in post-9/11 veterans affects workplace attitudes and behaviors.
2. To add to the general body of knowledge regarding the nature of veteran transitional needs and experiences.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

After reviewing the available academic and trade literature (see Chapter 2), the following research questions and hypotheses were developed. It was essential to establish which, if any, of the variables produced significant results during analysis. Previous research indicated that job satisfaction, employee motivation, and social inclusion were multi-dimensional (see theoretical framework) variables. In this study I sought to address the overall research question of whether or not a person's perceived level of social inclusion moderates the relationship between job

attitudes and turnover intentions through the formulation of the following hypotheses and research questions:

Research Question 1: Does the level of perceived social isolation moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (H_01): Perceived social isolation does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{a1}): Perceived social isolation does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Research Question 2: Does the level of perceived loneliness moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (H_02): Perceived loneliness does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{a2}): Perceived loneliness does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

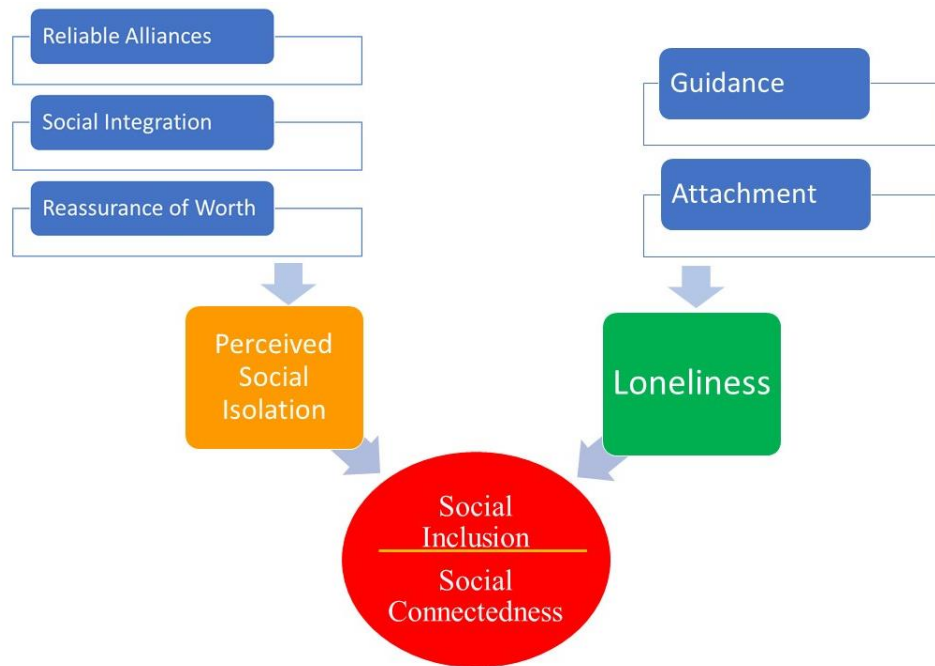
Theoretical Framework

This study was based on the theoretical framework of two well-established theories. The theoretical framework used in this study consisted of two theories: Herzberg's 2-factor theory of motivation and the social provision theory. This theory introduced ways to motivate employees by acknowledging and addressing the factors that cause job satisfaction or dissatisfaction in working adults (Hyun, 2009). This approach provided information on job motivators or demotivators in adults, resulting from both intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) cognitive factors (Hyun, 2009).

Figure 1*Herzberg's 2-Factor Theory of Motivation*

Note. A generic model of Herzberg's 2-factor theory will be tested, including a list of hygiene and motivation factors, showing the flow of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Reprinted from CSE Hub by K. C. Barman, Retrieved January 5, 2018, from <https://kazalbarman.wordpress.com/2015/06/22/herzberg-two-factor-theory>. Copyright 2015 by Kazal Chandra Barman. Reprinted with permission (see Appendix E).

Maslow (1943) posited that social need, the third level of human psychological needs, involves the feelings of belongingness and the need for positive interpersonal relationships. He theorized that SI is a vital aspect of an individual's ability and desire to move up the hierarchy of self-actualization (Gopalan et al., 2017). Herzberg (1959) agreed with Maslow (1943) that a person's relationship with the others around them plays a significant part in overall employee motivation (Malik & Naeem, 2013). His subsequent research found that while social inclusion did not create employee satisfaction, the absence of this vital factor would cause dissatisfaction and would leave the employee feeling unmotivated to make any positive changes within the organization (Malik & Naeem, 2013).

Figure 2*Social Inclusion as A Function of Loneliness and Perceived Social Isolation*

Note. Model of the social inclusion (social connectedness) construct showing it as a function of a combination of both loneliness and perceived social isolation and the five dimensions measured.

While social inclusion is a person’s perception of their membership in a social group and helps to answer the questions of “Who am I as a member of my group, and what is my role (Usborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014)?”

This current knowledge relevant to social inclusion, veteran reintegration and transition programs, job satisfaction, and motivation was used to provide insight into historical and contemporary perspectives. The purpose of the literature review was to aid in demonstrating the evolution and foundational significance of the topics included in this study and represented years of testable research on different aspects of behavior through scientific observation and experimentation (Creswell, 2009).

Effective leaders must understand basic human needs to motivate and engage their followers (Ogunsakin, 2015). Employees must feel as though they are both physically and psychologically safe and intellectually engaged (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012). People who feel isolated or unaccepted by their group(s) are more likely to experience poor health, loneliness, depression, isolation, poor self-esteem (Cigna, 2018), job dissatisfaction, or disengagement (VA, 2021). Thereby potentially negatively impacting the organization instead of acting as assets to the organization, workforce, and community-at-large. Effective leadership can be done by understanding the theories, concepts, and principles that lend those involved a better understanding of the organization and humans (Saari & Judge, 2004).

Nature of the Study

I chose to use a quantitative research method for this study. This design is often used to examine and determine relationships among multiple variables (Creswell, 2009). This research approach allows researchers to examine factorial relationships, test hypotheses, and make predictions by examining statistical analyses, correlations, and trends (Creswell, 2009). It can infer an unbiased measure of employee attitudes toward their job, management, and the overall organization (Groves et al., 2009).

Knowledge of this research method was also valuable in examining relationships between (a) independent (predictor), dependent (criterion), and moderating variables, (b) predicting variable reactions, (c) testing the strength of the different variable relationships, and (d) producing generalizable results (Creswell, 2009). In the past, researchers used this method because it allowed them to objectively examine phenomena by collecting numerical data and

seeking out inferences and meaning by asking each participant the same type and number of questions (Creswell, 2009).

Neither qualitative or mixed method designs would have been appropriate for this study. Qualitative design questions, settings, and processes are emergent, changing to suit individual responses and requiring researchers to reflect on their role, background, and culture to interpret and advance the meaning of data (Creswell, 2009). This method is appropriate for studies seeking to explore subjective personal experiences and interpret individual perceptions (Creswell, 2009). The purpose of this study was to examine objective variable relationships. These types of studies also require researchers to be well-versed and trained in interviewing techniques to avoid interjecting biases into the data collection and interpretation (Creswell, 2009).

In this study I examined the relationships between predictors, criteria, and moderator variables. The mixed method form of research would have involved combining elements of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies to provide an in-depth understanding of the research problem and provide insight, observations, and generalized results (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Because subjective observations were not appropriate for the study, the mixed-method design was an inappropriate means of answering the research questions posited within the study.

I chose a quantitative correlational design to answer the research questions objectively. Researchers use quantitative research designs in studies that seek (a) causal-comparative relationships, (b) utilize experimental groups, and (c) correlational interpretations (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Correlational research enables researchers to establish the

statistical pattern between two or more variables by observing their behaviors in their most natural states (Creswell, 2009). This also allowed the researcher to analyze the relationships among many people in a single study while at the same time not necessarily having to be in control of the variables (Creswell, 2009).

By using multiple linear regression analysis, researchers can determine the strength and direction of variable relationships, allowing for later studies to narrow findings or determine causation through experimentation (Groves et al., 2009). Both the causal-comparative and experimental designs require the ability to control and manipulate the independent variable, as well as to determine differential effects on the dependent variable. They are preferably conducted in a laboratory setting (Groves et al., 2009). I selected the correlational design of the others because I did not use control groups or try to manipulate any variables.

There are three types of correlational research: naturalistic observation, the survey method, and archival research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The naturalistic observation method involves observing and recording behaviors in natural settings without any interference or manipulation from the researcher (Groves et al., 2009). This method was well-suited to studies where researchers may have had access, resources, or ethical concerns, and the results are subject to the effects of researcher bias from both observation and interpretation of behaviors (Groves et al., 2009). Surveys and questionnaires are some of the most common data collection methods used in social science research (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Generally, this type of design involves a random sample of participants completing a survey, test, or questionnaire related to the variables of interest and allows researchers to gather a large amount of data in a short period (Creswell, 2009). For many researchers, utilizing a survey

is the fastest, easiest, most flexible, and cheapest option. Archival Research is usually derived from analyzing past studies and reviewing historical records, databases, libraries, or case studies that are publically accessible or accessible through their institution (Creswell, 2009). It offers researchers a way to view trends, relationships, and outcomes related to their research (Groves et al., 2009). No archival records were available, nor was naturalistic observation appropriate for answering the research questions presented in the study. Therefore, surveys were utilized to collect the data needed to infer and generalize results.

Using a quantitative design method along with online surveys allowed for access to a broader, more diverse audience, prevented the chance of introducing researcher bias into the study, and the ability to systematically and efficiently gather data for constructing quantitative descriptors of the larger population (Groves et al., 2009). Online surveys were used for this study because they are popular, electronic data collection is easier to administer than paper-based surveys, and participants could access them from any device with internet access and had a level of privacy as they answered (Groves et al., 2009). The results of the online survey were analyzed using SPSS version 28 to conduct correlational nonlinear regressions and descriptives analysis to investigate and evaluate the degree of relationships between the predictors (job satisfaction and employee motivation), the criteria (turnover intentions), and moderator variables (social isolation and loneliness).

Definitions

The following definitions were included to enhance the reader's understanding of both the overall information presented in the study and terms that may be unfamiliar to those not affiliated with the military.

Active duty: Those who are assigned to work the military full-time (365 days a year) and can be called to perform a task anytime during a 24-hour period (Cornell University Law School, nd).

Culture: Culture is defined as an interrelated set of values, tools, and practices that are shared among a group of people who possess a collective social identity, affecting perceptual, cognitive, personality, and social processes (Lehman et al., 2004).

Discharged: A characterization of service assigned when a service member is separated from military service as the result of completion or expulsion and severance from all military terms and statuses. At that time, the member is released from the obligation to continue service in the armed forces and relieved from future military service obligations. There are five military discharges general, honorable, other than honorable, bad conduct, and dishonorable. The quality of one's active duty service determines the type of discharge he or she receives, and the type of discharge a member receives determines the level of post-service benefits he or she is eligible for (Military Benefits, n.d.).

Job satisfaction: A comprehensive term that includes the feelings positive or negative an employee experiences as a result of the various aspects of their job and their satisfaction overall with companies' policies, company environment, and coworkers. The term job satisfaction includes attitudes toward one's job, affect, cognition, and behavioral tendencies, and it is related to many factors that are important for human resource management, such as performance, motivation, counterproductive work behaviors, turnover, and employee health (Meier & Spector, 2015; Spector, 1985)

Military Branches and Departments: The U.S. Department of the Army, the U.S. Department of the Navy (Navy and Marine Corps), the U.S. Department of the Air Force (Air Force and Space Force), (the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (Coast Guard) (Veterans Administration, 2020).

Military to civilian transition: The transition process of veterans who are about to retire or have retired from the military and plan to seek employment as a civilian. Starting at a minimum of 12 to 24 months prior to discharge (Military Advantage, n.d.). The individual process of resuming civilian life after having served in the armed forces. As part of this process, veterans must navigate relocating, changing jobs and daily routines, financial responsibilities, unemployment, or starting college (Zogas, 2017).

Military transitioning program: A program that provides information, tools, and training to help service members and their spouses get ready to successfully move from the military to civilian life (Military Advantage, n.d.). Congress established this program in the 1990s to assist members separating and retiring from the U.S. military and into civilian life by offering services such as job search and educational assistance (Military Advantage, n.d.). For this study, the shortened form “TAP” was used.

Military veteran: Title 38 of the Code of Federal Regulations defines a veteran as “a person who served in the active military, naval, or air service, for at least 181 days, and who was discharged or released under conditions other than dishonorable (Social Security Administration, n.d.). Members exit an institution that once trained them in specific skills, behaviors, values, weapons, technology, machinery; high-stakes situations; and institutional hierarchy operations (Zogas, 2017).

Retired military: Military service members who served 20 or more years on active duty and retired from active duty military service (Military Benefits, n.d.).

Social inclusion: Social inclusion can be defined as the number of affirmative actions undertaken in order to reverse the social exclusion of individuals or groups in our society. This includes positive acts (civic, social, economic, political activities, and decision-making processes) that make everyone in a given society feel valued by changing or eliminating limiting factors. Inclusive behaviors allow individuals and communities to participate fully in society and improve the abilities, opportunities, and dignity of those disadvantaged based on their identity to participate in society (Allman, 2013; Cutrona & Russell, 1987).

Transition services: Refers to the pre-separation counseling, Department of Labor employment workshop, Department of Veterans Affairs benefits briefing, pre-separation counseling, Department of Labor employment workshop, Department of Veterans Affairs benefits briefing, and a Department of Veterans Affairs Disabled Transition Assistance Program (Military Advantage, n.d.).

Turnover intentions: Turnover intentions are the extent to which someone plans to quit their current job (Spector et al., 1988).

U.S. Armed Forces (Military): A contracted group(s) with members who serve in one of the six service branches: Air Force, Army, Coast Guard, Marine Corps, Navy, and Space Force in either an active-duty (full-time), reserve (part-time) or veteran (discharged and retired) capacity (Military Advantage, n.d.)

U.S. Department of Defense (DoD): An executive branch department of the U.S. federal government that provides the military forces needed to deter war and protect the security of the United States (DoD, nd).

U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA): A U.S. federal government agency whose personnel administer a variety of benefits and services that provide financial and other forms of assistance to service members, veterans, and their dependents and survivors (VA, 2021).

Assumptions

Assumptions are the foci of any theory and need to be explicit and sufficient to describe the phenomenon and test theories (Nkwake, 2013). Assumptions included any unproven or unprovable details, persons, organizations, or situations that are potentially beyond the researcher's control but whose presence or lack of could affect both the validity and relevancy of the study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008, p. 5). This study included several assumptions. These assumptions included the following.

1. All participants were willing to participate and were truthful in self-identifying as post-9/11 American military enlisted veterans.
2. The participants wanted to share their post-transition community and work experiences.
3. All participating veterans received medical, honorable, or retirement discharges.
4. Responders met all the study's other demographic and literacy criteria.
5. Military transition experience and post-service employment were of interest to the reader and other veteran-focused organizations.

6. The research was conducted using quantitative methods, objectively observed and analyzed, with no interaction between the researcher and participants.
7. The selected instruments were appropriate and accurately measured the desired information.

Scope and delimitations are to follow.

Scope and Delimitations

This study's scope included male and female veterans who served and left the military following the September 11th event. The scope of this study was confined to a select group of enlisted veterans. Potential variations of integrated beliefs and attitudes inherent to veterans who served during different eras may have been overlooked. The results may not be generalizable to other populations because the study delimits enlisted veterans with access to the internet, over the age of 21, and primarily using social media. The collection period of this study was limited to less than three months. Any data obtained outside of the specified period was not considered within the scope of this study and was included in the statistical analyses. Based on the nature of the study, these restrictions seemed reasonable.

Limitations

Weaknesses of the study include the size of the sample and the limited collection period. As a result, inferences are not generalizable to a larger military population. The suggested sample size for this study was 138 veterans. Results from the study apply only to military personnel who transitioned through the redesigned transition assistance program. Also, 19 participants did not complete the questionnaire during data collection, and others did not meet

demographic qualifications, resulting in a much smaller sample size. Also, because this study is correlational and not experimental, causation inferences cannot be made.

There were certain limitations inherent to this study. The insights and findings that resulted from this study were limited by the sample audience's scope and the study's brevity. A more diverse longitudinal study that follows service members from enlistment to discharge may afford more detailed data on the cultural and corporate transition experience of service members that is more generalizable. As a veteran who served during multiple eras, including the post-9/11 era, there is a chance for researcher bias to be introduced to the study. Several validation strategies were used to limit further any potential threats to the study's validity, quality, or credibilities, such as peer-reviewed literature, limited involvement in recruiting for data collection, almost no contact between the researcher and participants, and the use of proven tools. Finally, because this is a non-experimental study with a particular sampling audience, random assignment of participants was possible. As a result, this study will not seek to find causal inferences.

Significance of the Study

Over 20 million veterans have entered the American civilian workforce since 2003 (National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics (NCVAS), 2021) 47.6% of them are under 34 years old (NCVAS, 2021), and over half report feeling socially isolated (Wilson et al., 2018). However, there was very little information on the social or economic impact of the isolating perceptions of this unique population. The context of current veteran studies tended to focus on those with physical or mental trauma, and work studies focused heavily on intangible employer benefits.

This study was intended for the general veteran population and will not ask participants to self-identify as mentally or physically disabled veterans. Instead, it drew attention to the potential organizational impact of employee perceptions of social inclusion and loneliness. The overall goal of this study was to enhance the understanding of veterans' mindsets and the corporate interest in cultural and community cohesion through concrete, practical, relevant, and valuable quantitative data that could aid hiring and retention programs and practices.

Significance to Practice

Frequent voluntary turnover can be unhealthy and costly for any organization (Suharti & Sulyanto, 2012). Turnover can have a negative impact on employee morale, productivity, and revenues (Suharti & Sulyanto, 2012). People who feel isolated or unaccepted by their group(s) are more likely to experience poor health, loneliness, depression, isolation, and poor self-esteem (Weissbourd et al., 2021), job dissatisfaction or disengagement, and are more likely to leave their employer for one that is more likely to satisfy more of their intrinsic and extrinsic needs (Lawler, 2006).

By examining the factors that determine and promote veteran employee job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, business leaders can assess strategies, avoid unwanted turnover intentions, and better aid current or future veteran employees. The results of this study may also provide them with a means to save revenue, establish more meaningful organizational policies that encompass the needs of both civilian and veteran staff, and potentially decrease the more than 50% of veterans who leave within the first year of employment (Ford, 2017). The results of this study may provide value to business professionals by allowing them to find ways to create a satisfied and engaged veteran workforce, generate a more cohesive and inclusive organizational culture,

increase organizational profit and sustainability, and recoup some of the estimated \$1 trillion lost annually, by US businesses, from voluntary turnover (McFeely & Wigert, 2019). On average, organizations invest 10 to 24% of an employee's salary in training and recruitment for low (< \$30,000) and midrange (\$30,000 to \$50,000) paying jobs. Positions demanding high education levels, such as executive and high-level manager positions, can cost up to 213% of the annual salary (Marsden, 2016).

Many business and HR leaders have found veterans to be a value-adding element of their workforce because of their inherent skills and experience (Hall et al., 2014). In turn, the business will have a much smaller initial investment in training and recruitment (Hall et al., 2014). The quality of an employee's personal life and productivity levels have been found to be significantly related to job attitudes (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012). It may also encourage the military and other organizations to create effective transitional programs that teach military members how to be civilians. It may also help business leaders to educate other employees and managers on how to incorporate returning military members effectively and sensitively.

Significance to Social Change

Veterans who experience transitional problems are more likely to experience depression, unemployment, underemployment, job dissatisfaction, disengagement, mental health problems, criminal behaviors, and drug or alcohol abuse (VA, 2021). By studying what influences job satisfaction and turnover intentions in separated veterans, I/O professionals, researchers, recruiting, transition professionals and organizations, organizational leaders, HR professionals, and community leaders can begin seeking a way to decrease misunderstandings between veteran and civilian staff members and help improve relationships amongst both coworkers and

community members. The results of this study were intended to aid military organizational professionals in creating effective post-military networking programs that can allow veterans to transition and reintegrate over an extended period, helping to alleviate the shock and stress of the discharge process. The results of this study might also aid professionals and policymakers in decreasing the number of homeless veterans, suicides, and other negative social or criminal behaviors.

Summary and Transition

This quantitative study aimed to understand the possible relationship between community integration and support, post-military service, work attitudes, and turnover in post-9/11 enlisted veterans. Understanding the effect of perceived social acceptance on job attitudes and behaviors in veteran employees may aid mental health professionals and business leaders in changing and improving practices and policies, improving organizational commitment, post-service job satisfaction, minimize turnover intentions.

Chapter 1 introduced information on the background of the study, nature, the problem statement, theoretical framework, research questions and hypotheses, purpose of the study, definitions, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, scope, and significance to social change, theory, and the study itself. Chapter two presented a review of the existing literature. Chapter 3 described the research design and methodology used to collect and analyze the data collected for the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This study will encompass the current knowledge relevant to social connectedness, veteran reintegration and transition programs, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Few organizational leaders understand the effects outside influences can have on their businesses, most choosing to concentrate predominantly on recruiting veterans and little on retention (Buchbinder & Shanks, 2012). As a result, most have no active management and retention practices in place or are not prepared to help civilian employees facilitate veteran employees in successfully transitioning into the civilian sector (Keeling et al., 2018).

Few organizational leaders understand the effects outside influences can have on their businesses, most choosing to concentrate predominantly on recruiting veterans and little on retention (Buchbinder & Shanks, 2012). As a result, most have no active management and retention practices in place or are not prepared to help civilian employees facilitate veteran employees in successfully transitioning into the civilian sector (Keeling et al., 2018). The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and perceived social (dis)connectedness.

Most of the research on American veterans addressed either transition programs or the medical and mental outcomes of those diagnosed with PTSD or some other disability and only concentrated on Army and Marine Corps males and ignored females, that make up more than 10% of the military population. Any potential emotional effects the transition from military life had on veterans in the civilian workplace were also ignored (Wilson et al., 2018; Zimbardo et al., 2015; Zogas, 2017). Social inclusion research addressed the adverse mental and physical

outcomes and focused primarily on seniors, those with mental disabilities, and immigrants but not working-age veterans who may not possess any disabilities (Crocker et al., 2014; Elnitsky et al., 2017; Sayer et al., 2015; Veteran Jobs Mission Coalition, 2015; Zogas, 2017). The review of social inclusion literature also revealed that regardless of age, gender, or culture, negatively perceived social inclusion was highly associated with adverse mental and physical health outcomes.

Presented is a review of research work by leading scholars and practitioners in the field of motivation, military culture, veteran transitions, employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and human social needs. Included were seminal works and journal articles of Herzberg (1959) on motivation and hygiene theory, Spector's (1985) job satisfaction and turnover intentions, Cacioppo and Berntson's (1992) social inclusion, and Zimbardo et al.'s Social Intensity Syndrome (2015). Because of the lack of directly related empirical research, the review used the publications of leading researchers' literature to expound on the background of the research problem's key themes (theoretical framework, military culture, veteran transition, work-life conflict outcomes, social inclusion (perceived social isolation and loneliness).

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and perceived social (dis)connectedness in post-9/11 enlisted veterans. Often veterans of all ages, backgrounds, ranks and genders find the conflict between military and civilian values and norms confusing or conflicting, becoming a barrier to overcoming the challenges inherent to transitioning from the service (Zogas, 2017) and finding their place and forming in the civilian world (Cacioppo et al., 2011). This literature

review presented an examination of the current professional and academic information relevant to the effect of perceived social inclusion on the work attitudes and behaviors of American U.S. military veterans. Also presented is a review of the search strategies used to gather knowledge on the topic.

Literature Search Strategy

The search for literature resources was conducted using a three-step process. The first step utilized the online database search engines Google Scholar and Researchgate. The initial investigation was performed using the Google Scholar search engine and included peer-reviewed articles, trade publications, and books. Over 47,000 items concerning veteran reintegration were initially identified. These dated back to the 1940s and revealed that much information concentrated on military transition programs designed to help veterans prepare for civilian jobs. Further, the transition programs included information about educational benefits and other benefits available for veterans with disabilities, such as posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) or physical injuries (Crocker et al., 2014; Elnitsky et al., 2017; Sayer et al., 2015; Veteran Jobs Mission Coalition, 2015; Zogas, 2017).

Table 1*Literature Review Strategy*

	2014 and newer references		Older references	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Total number of references	19	83	5	20
Number of peer-reviewed references	20	87	3	13

Additional searches using social inclusion, perceived social isolation, and loneliness literature searches, limited from 2010 through 2022, reduced that number to 1425. Of these, excluding non-English, citation only, and repeats, only 15 sources were relevant. The majority of these resources focused primarily on seniors, those with mental disabilities, and immigrants but not working-age veterans who may not have disabilities. However, when used in combination with keywords such as job satisfaction, work attitudes, and employee behaviors yielded no results. Under the umbrella of Walden University's online library, the following databases were also used for the search: (a) Thoreau Search, Ed), (b) Educational Research Information Center (ERIC), (c) JSTOR, (d) EBSCOhost Online, (e) PsycArticles, (f) Science Direct, (g) and ProQuest. Each of these online databases was used to seek out empirical research specific to the research topic.

The literature review was organized around the major themes of the research problem, the lack of information on the effects of perceived social inclusion in post-9/11 US enlisted veterans in the workforce. The most current, available, and relevant empirical studies were examined, analyzed, and synthesized to research the hypotheses noted in this study. The researcher attempted to focus on veterans in civilian workplaces using keyword combinations and phrases such as *hiring and retaining veterans, military to civilian, veteran civilian reintegration, veteran*

employee behaviors, and veteran-civilian employee relationships. A complete list of terms was included in Appendix A. The next step entailed a manual search. Each article was visually inspected for repeated sources. Finally, once all duplicated resources were removed from the available research listing, the reference lists of each of the resources were visually cross-checked and examined for seminal references.

The next stage of the data mining process involved using the academic search engines available through the Walden University library website. Document searches through the Walden library website included peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, and conference papers. The resource searches here were done using the same keyword combinations. As noted previously, when other keywords were combined with *job satisfaction, work attitudes, or employee behaviors*, the literature search revealed that no resources matched. When organizational keywords such as the ones mentioned above were eliminated, search results yielded 211 sources, four of which were relevant and seven that repeated those found on Google Scholar.

This search also yielded the same lack of information for combined results when using organizational attitude or motivation keywords. Following these searches, to ensure that the full breadth of available literature had been explored, each resource's reference list was manually checked for other potentially critical sources not found through online virtual searches. Researchgate.net was then used to find, request, and download these resources.

As shown in Table 1, the literature search and review utilized for this study included 87% peer-reviewed resources, with one trade article specific to veterans in the workforce and backed by the JP Morgan organization and two dissertations comprising 13% of the discrepancy. The same is true for the information's timeliness; four literature resources were published before

2015. Further, 80% of the chosen professional and academic documents were published between 2015 and 2021.

Over 47,000 articles were revealed using the keywords *social connectedness*, *social capital*, *social inclusion*, *social isolation*, *loneliness*, and *social networks*. These sources were narrowed by excluding articles published before 2014, were not peer-reviewed, non-empirically evidence-based, citations only, not available in English, repeated or republished articles, and finally, inserting the keyword *veteran*. In total, there were 24 sources found, including seminal research works on the themes of social inclusion, social connectedness, veteran reintegration outcomes, employee motivation, and job satisfaction, which were identified by visual inspection of the reference sections of all documents identified as fitting the theme and keywords searches.

As noted, there was a lack of professional and academic articles available on the work attitudes of reintegrated, working-age veterans in conjunction with employee motivation and perceived social inclusion. The literature review concentrated on the germane resources on the major themes presented in the study (social inclusion, job satisfaction, turnover, and military-to-civilian transition problems). A total of six seminal works were found in the literature search for the major themes presented in the study. These seminal research studies included the works of Weiss et al. (1975), Cutrona and Russell (1987), Cacioppo and Berntson (1992), Spector (1985), The Pew Research institute (2011), and Zimbardo et al. (2015).

Seminal Research Studies

As part of the literature process, I found several studies that either directly inspired other studies or were consistently listed in the references of thematic journal articles. These seminal works included those of Weiss et al. (1975), Russell et al. (1984), Cacioppo and Berntson (1992),

and Zimbardo et al (2015). These studies have helped many researchers, students, and other professionals to understand the nature of perceived loneliness and the vital role it plays in a person's ability to thrive in a given place.

Social Provisions Theory (SPT)

The first was the 1975 study of loneliness by Robert Weiss et al. Weiss' team (1975) posited that people exhibited two distinct types of loneliness, emotional and social. He said emotional loneliness resulted from a lack of close, intimate attachments to others. Most commonly, those who have recently been newly single (divorced, widowed, or in a broken relationship) experience this form of loneliness. He found that perceived loneliness resulted from the lack of social relationship networks in which the person is part of a group of friends who share common interests and activities. Individuals who have recently moved to a new social environment (e.g., to a new city, job, or college) should experience this form of loneliness.

His research revealed that the concept of social support was multidimensional, involved the perception of the availability of different types of interpersonal relationships through social ties and that most researchers and professionals failed to recognize the reciprocal nature. He posited that there were six types of social attachments between people necessary to meet an individual's different social support needs during critical life disruption events (change in health status, death of a spouse, or retirement). Weiss et al. further posited that people need all six social provisions (attachment, social integration, opportunity, reassurance of worth, reliable alliances, and guidance). He found that if a person perceived themselves deficient in any one or more type of provision, they were at risk for experiencing social or emotional loneliness that could result in poor concentration, distress, tension, disturbed sleep, and disengagement with

depression and generalized dissatisfaction. He also found that most professionals failed to recognize the magnitude of loneliness because of the lack of standard measurement tools.

Weiss et al. (1975) defined these provisions as follows: (a) attachment refers to feelings of intimacy, peace, and security (similar to emotional support); (b) social integration denotes the sense of belonging to a group with whom they share common interests and social activities; (c) opportunity for nurturance represents the support receiver providing care to others, such as children or senior family members; (d) reassurance of worth refers to having others validate one's competence and value; (e) reliable alliance has to do with perceived access to assistance in times of need from others; and finally, (f) guidance refers to having people available who can provide suggestions, solutions, and advice when needed. This inspired the work of Russell et al. (1984).

Dual Nature of Loneliness

To further enhance the academic and professional understanding of the effects of social inclusion or social connectedness and further define the provisions introduced by Weiss et al. (1975), Russell et al. (1984) performed a groundbreaking study in the early 1980s. In their work, they found there were two issues creating barriers to reliable, consistent, and lasting research concerning social inclusion. First, researchers at the time, and many current ones, failed to understand the true nature of social inclusion.

A further review of the available literature found a lack of concrete scientific, operational definitions for social inclusion (Allman, 2013; Russell et al., 1984). Instead, there was a tendency to conceptualize social inclusion as a societal collection of practices that resulted from various degrees of intimacy and interactions between friends, strangers, families, colleagues,

kinship groups, communities, and cultures that were not dependent on whether or not a member perceives themselves to be welcomed, fairly represented, and accepted by the mainstream, or if the member felt that they are ostracized, ignored, or stigmatized (Allman, 2013). Often, these societies used social inclusion as a means of reward for the members or as a blueprint for acceptable values, beliefs, and behaviors. In contrast, others used the constructs as a way to punish (Russell et al., 1984).

Weiss et al. (1975) defined the provisions and vitality of human social inclusion. They revealed that people who perceived deficiencies in vital social or emotional connections were at risk of exhibiting signs of poor concentration, distress, sleep problems, and depression. The earlier research of the 1970s showed that many academics and other professionals were interested in efforts to understand social inclusion and were able to link social support to health consistently. Many of these early studies included factors such as marital status, community involvement, and availability of confidants. In contrast, others analyzed social inclusion in terms of functions or emotional sustenance (self-esteem building, provision of information and feedback, and tangible assistance) (Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Cohen & McKay, 1984; Kahn, 1979; Kahn & Antonucci, 1980; Schaefer et al., 1981; Weiss et al., 1975). However, these researchers also tended to conceptualize the construct unidimensionally and had inconsistent operationalized studies (Russell et al., 1984).

Russell et al. (1984) worked to expand on and standardize the study of the provisions of social inclusion. Although the group agreed with Weiss et al.'s (1975) SPT concerning the bi-directional relationship nature of social inclusion and the need for social support at critical life disruptions, as well as social provision points, the researchers argued that Weiss et al.' (1975)

theory took a viewpoint of social inclusion lacked depth. Russell et al. argued that perceptions of social connectedness were not only about feeling “lonely.” But it was a dual-natured construct consisting of perceived social isolation and loneliness.

In their research, Russell et al. (1984) found loneliness to be an adversely affective experience, similar to depression or anxiety. An experience that was distinct from social isolation and reflected an individual's subjective perception of quantitative or qualitative deficiencies in their network of social relationships. They found that to accurately study the perceptions of inclusion; researchers had to include both loneliness and social isolation as factors in their research. They also found a lack of reliable instruments to measure social inclusion, citing that few researchers could provide adequate evidence of the reliability or validity of their tools because of a lack of both test-retest reliability and sensitivity to actual changes in available support.

This led to the development of the Social Provisions Scale (SPS), which measures perceptions of both loneliness and social isolation. A revised version, the SPS-10, was used in this study. The original and revised versions have proven their validity and reliability in numerous studies since their inception. This SPS-10R is discussed in more detail later in this section. Russell et al.’s work successfully showed that social inclusion or social connectedness was an issue that potentially touched other aspects of human lives. These touchpoints should be critical to more than social workers' mental health professionals and academics. Later studies were further investigated and supported by Cacioppo and Berntson's 1992 Ohio State University work.

Multidisciplinarity of Social Connections

Cacioppo and Berntson (1992) led early research into the associations between social connections, neural development, and evolution. They were the first to look at neuroscience as a multi-disciplinary field of research and medicine. There were three essential concepts noted in this seminal work. The first was the reciprocal nature of the relationship between social psychology and neurophysiology. Cacioppo and Berntson (1992) indicated that the fundamental assumptions of psychology included the basis for adaptive and maladaptive psychological phenomena that could be found in neurophysiological processes, which were influenced by environmental, biological, developmental, and sociocultural factors. In short, what happens to or in the brain will influence social behaviors and vice versa (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1992).

Second, they also noted that constructs such as prejudice, stigmas, worker satisfaction, productivity, and family [community] discord were products of social and neurophysiological phenomena (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1992). Cacioppo and Berntson (1992) also noted that there were attributes of behavior and attitude that were both critical and fundamental to understanding the mechanisms needed to differentiate hostile and nurturing environmental stimuli vital to both species' survival and the viability of social units (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1992).

Finally, although the researchers acknowledged the massive scientific contributions of other psychologists over the years, these early studies tended to use reductionistic foci. These exclusionary analysis tactics also had the potential to limit, if not mask, other contributions or constrain theoretical explanations of phenomena (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1992). The researchers noted that reductionism was counterproductive to the abstractions inherent to the field of psychology and that integrative analysis was essential to enrich the comprehension of

constructs such as behavioral processes, mental health, and disorders (Cacioppo & Berntson, 1992). Their groundbreaking study continues to spark new interest and scholarly articles. The finding of Cacioppo and Berntson (1992) inspired the work of other researchers, including the more recent work of Phillip Zimbardo.

Social Intensity Syndrome

In January 2015, Zimbardo et al. proposed a new theory to explain why many veterans, specifically males, have problems fitting into civilian life and work. He called this phenomenon the social intensity syndrome (SIS). Zimbardo's team sought to describe and normalize the effects military culture has on the socialization of male military members. Zimbardo et al.'s (2015) theory introduced the SIS term to posit an explanation for the complex system of values, attitudes, and behaviors exhibited by male veterans, which were found to be organized around personal attractions and desires to maintain associations with male-dominated social groupings.

According to the SIS theory, military culture deemphasizes emotion and the sense of self instead encouraged the formation of a brotherhood steeped in self-sacrifice, which they find difficult to shed as a civilian (Zimbardo et al., 2015). The researchers theorized that those suffering from self-reported high levels of this syndrome were more likely to a) report experiencing high levels of boredom and tedious after separating from the military, b) recall a disproportionate amount of positive aspects of their military time, c) responded to the negative effect of disengagement from the military by engaging in arousing other intense activities, d) choose male military group activities over civilian ones, e) tended to choose all men groupings over mixed-gender ones, f) typically experienced abrupt military-to-civilian transitions that lacked proper training to deal with as independent, socially responsible civilian adults, and h)

reported feeling inadequate or incompetent and socially isolating themselves (Zimbardo et al., 2015). The research team surveyed over 300 active duty and veteran participants using a 5-point Likert scale (Zimbardo et al., 2015). This study was the first to focus on the difficulties many veterans experience when attempting to function in civilian relationships using the effects of the military's intense organizational socialization and social context (Zimbardo et al., 2015). Their theory was proven, and the SIS scale showed to be a reliable and valid tool, the theory. The study research results and scale have yet to be widely accepted, tested, and validated by others. So, a deeper understanding of the themes was needed to understand the reasoning behind the proposed study.

Literature Themes

As noted, the association between social connections is a multi-disciplinary construct connected to job satisfaction, health, productivity, and relations with others (Cacioppo. & Berntson, 1992). It is essential to understand the unique influence the role cultural context has on the men and women who serve to create effective interventions. At the same time, Zimbardo et al.'s (2015) research offered a chance for more insight into what effects the military culture and other intense action vocations (police, firemen, emergency medical personnel) could experience while serving and later transitioning back into civilian.

Social Inclusion Outcomes

According to the literature, prolonged isolation can adversely affect physical and emotional health (Ahern et al., 2015; Cacioppo et al., 2011; Russell et al., 1984; Weiss et al., 1975) and could also result in perceptions of profound disconnection among those with inadequate social networks and increase the likelihood of emerging or worsening depressive

symptoms (Cacioppo et al., 2011). Social isolation has been linked to cognitive impairment, reduced immunity, increased risk of cardiovascular disease, and a 26% increase in the risk of premature death (Cacioppo et al., 2011). Social disconnectedness, regardless of the socio-economic background, was a growing concern in many industrialized countries, severely affecting nearly 1% of the total global population, a number that is expected to grow in the coming years due to disease, lifestyle, and environmental stressors; cognitive-based treatments have had poor results so far (Williams & Braun, 2019). The literature posits that the enforced social isolation, especially for socially vulnerable populations, brought on by the COVID-19 virus was an excruciating factor, persisting beyond the pandemic as the levels of environmental stress rise and social relationships deteriorate (Pietrabissa & Simpson, 2020).

There is an increasing interest among Industrial-organizational psychology researchers in the areas of diversity, inclusion, and elimination of adverse impact in personnel decisions to aid in understanding how implicit/unconscious bias affects how you perceive and interact with others, the need to be more inclusive, and issues arising from an increasingly global workforce and organizational customer base (DeNisi & Smith, 2014). Agarwal (2014) found that organizations that recognize the value of human assets recognize that innovative employees are crucial to organizational success and sustainability. This suggested that social support resources (coworkers, supervisors, and corporate leaders) play essential roles in encouraging and fostering innovation and sustained engagement.

Workforce diversity is the total of individual differences and similarities among the people working in an organization (Kreitner & Kinichi, 2004; Ogbo et al., 2014). This implies that workforce diversity is not a matter of demographic characteristics such as age, ethnicity, or

gender (Ogbo et al., 2014). Instead, workforce diversity includes the collective integration of all the differences and similarities of an organization's workers. Diversity should involve understanding and appreciating the interdependence of humanity, culture, and the natural environment, practicing mutual respect for qualities and experiences that are different from ours (Patrick & Kumar, 2012).

Social Connectedness/Disconnectedness

People with high perceptions of connectedness tend to have a more positive outlook and higher empathy, are physically and emotionally healthier, feel more bonded with other people, readily identify with others, perceive others as friendly and approachable, and participate in social groups and activities, have a greater tolerance and respect for interpersonal differences and more resilient to temporary lapses in perceived belonging (Cacioppo et al., 2011). Conversely, adults who experience abandonment, peer rejection, isolation, and criticism are more likely to incorporate negative relationship experiences into their sense of self, feel socially disconnected from others, see themselves as misunderstood outsiders, and are often uncomfortable in social situations (Allman, 2013). The literature posited that social connectedness results from past and present social experiences and that social disconnectedness contributes to feelings of loneliness and distress.

Perceived Loneliness Outcomes

Loneliness is defined as distress due to the perception of unmet social needs from the lack of quality and quantity of social relationships. The literature revealed that a duality existed in terms of loneliness. Some people were able to live relatively solitary lives and experience loneliness, while others with rich social lives reported feeling lonely. A person's cultural identity

is formed within the broader/community's shared set of social values, norms, and beliefs (Oyserman, 2001; Pacheco et al., 2016).

The literature revealed that people often experience feelings of loneliness after geographic relocation or emotional loss. As many as 40% of adult Americans reported experiencing chronic loneliness, with the lack of connection, feelings of loneliness, and not belonging found to be unrelated to the amount of time spent alone (Cordier et al., 2017). Loneliness was found to be weakly correlated with social network size and frequency of interaction with network members (Cordier et al., 2017). The literature posited that the formation and maintenance of positive, strong social connections was a genetic imperative for survival.

The literature found that chronic loneliness had serious adverse effects on the cognition, emotions, behaviors, and health of people and posited that perceptions of social disconnectedness were the same as feeling unsafe and could result in implicit hypervigilance of additional environmental and social threats that produced cognitive biases (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Lonely people tend to have a more negative outlook on social interactions and actively distance themselves from others while simultaneously craving connections. This was often accompanied by feelings of hostility, stress, pessimism, anxiety, low self-esteem, and diminished self-regulation (Allman, 2013). Self-regulation affects a person's ability to control their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, accomplish personal goals, and comply with social norms (Allman, 2013).

The literature found that in middle-aged and older adults, social disconnectedness was associated with a myriad of problems which included: experiencing less positive emotions, decreased physical activity, lower self-esteem, decreased health-promoting behaviors, weight -

gain, substance abuse, sleep disorders, elevated cortisol levels, personality disorders, and psychoses, suicide, increased risk for dementia or Alzheimer's Disease, increased depressive symptoms, stress, fear of negative evaluation, anxiety, and anger issues (Cornwell & Waite, 2009). The literature found that researchers use several methods to measure loneliness. People who feel connected to those around them tend to have better resiliency.

Understanding Military Culture

Nearly three centuries ago, the military was formed as an essential tool for maintaining the longevity of the political system and the safety of US citizens. Since then, the American Armed forces have had to take on more of a global protection purview by maintaining a worldwide physical land and maritime presence (Ahern et al., 2015). Hall (2011) noted that in order to effectively work with and help veterans, it was essential that the civilians understand the worldview, mindset, and impact of military culture. From the time they entered boot camp, military personnel were trained to constantly be prepared for disaster or battle by adhering to the physical fitness requirements, career education, situational practices, weapons training, and suppressing weaknesses and emotions such as fear, anxiety, or pain (Zogas, 2017).

The military is a sub-culture with unique language and belief systems, behavioral norms, dress, class systems, and rituals. The core values ingrained in the military members as part of cultural indoctrination of integrity, honor, respect, courage, devotion to duty, and selflessness create a psychological identity that helps maintain order in war or other catastrophes (Ford, 2017). The military was identified as a cultural entity in its own right. It consisted of an inherent blend of different ethnicities, religions, and cultures.

Some military members have reported feeling trapped, particularly those from multi-generational military career families (Hall, 2011). After separating from the military, re-entering civilian society can be an emotionally difficult and socially traumatic experience for many. The literature review found that It is often difficult to shed this identity once veterans return to civilian life (Hall et al., 2014). Marine recruits reported that, as soon as they completed boot camp, they felt alienated from their home communities and were not able to perceive previous social connections as positively, found that they no longer shared the same goals or values, and chose to begin avoiding civilian relationships (Zimbardo et al., 2015).

A review of the literature revealed that the mental aspect of getting over career hurdles, particularly in veterans, was something that few organizational leaders, human resource professionals, or researchers were well versed in. Hall (2011) suggested that employers must be sensitive to what is not being said by veterans and other military members and understand the restrictive nature of the military with its many boundaries, rules, regulations, and habits. Many veterans have had difficulty socially reintegrating into civilian life, especially among younger soldiers who transition directly from high school, spending their formative adult years in the military (Hall et al., 2014).

The literature revealed that although women comprise over 10% of the armed forces (Veteran Jobs Mission Coalition, 2015), the US military remains a male-dominated warrior culture that punishes those who fail to embody traits codes of secrecy, sacrifice, and stoicism while at the same time staying at a constant high level of battle-readiness (Ahern et al., 2015). The military institution's culture was maintained by a very rigid authoritarian leadership system that demanded conformity to the established rules, boundaries, and class structures (Zogas,

2017). The military, as a whole, was based on a strict authoritarian hierarchal class system determined based on rank and observed through appearances, task quality, and the pay scale of its members (Zogas, 2017).

Military personnel are responsible for various jobs ranging from medical, intelligence, tactical specialties, and food services (Holder, 2007). Each enlisted member signs a contract that compels them to have at least four years of active service. In return for their service, while in active service, the organization provided for each member's housing, food, medical, social, and political structure, clothing, and companionship needs (Department of Defense, nd). However, these vital needs are discontinued once the veteran is separated from the military (Zogas, 2017). At that time, they become responsible for earning enough fiscally to provide for all these needs for themselves and their families. This can be a difficult process for many (Zogas, 2017)).

A review of the literature revealed that veterans generally tend to be older, less formally educated, and have less civilian-related job experience than their civilian counterparts (Holder, 2007). Research has found that 90% of military personnel and veterans enlist right out of high school (McBain, 2008), never advancing academically beyond a high school diploma or equivalent diplomas (Morin, 2011). Veterans like this are more likely to experience mental and fiscal transition-related issues (Morin, 2011).

This, in turn, can lead to them being unemployed and underemployed, despite the leadership, teamwork, and other practical skills they have learned and developed over time (Holder, 2007). Those who do find employment often report experiencing job dissatisfaction, organizational disenchantment, and disengagement with their civilian jobs, which results in negative behaviors such as absenteeism or reduced productivity (McFadden, 2017). Research

evidence found that military personnel often participate in high-risk activities (heavy drinking, drugs, and violence) that can potentially influence the life of military personnel and veterans (Ahern et al., 2015). This extended alertness can often lead to members presenting the same symptoms as someone who experienced Type II trauma (Ahern et al., 2015).

Identity Strain

The review of the literature found that nearly half of returning veterans have reported difficulties reintegrating back into the civilian work sector. Researchers posited that because of the training military personnel receive, there might be associated stress from incongruences between their military identities and civilian work environments (McAllister et al., 2015). It is believed that identity strain can affect employability and workplace outcomes such as productivity, motivation, and citizenship.

It is common for people with associations among multiple social and cultural groups to have multiple identities (McAllister et al., 2015). Men and women who live and work within the strict boundaries of military life tend to have strong bonds of camaraderie and family (Ahern et al., 2015). These bonds often cannot be found in civilian staff members or workspaces (Zogas, 2017).

The review of the literature revealed that although most employers believe veterans potentially add organizational value because of leadership talents, honest and loyal mentality, task achievement drives, process-driven approaches, and tendency to perform well under pressure (Ford, 2017), many also tend to associate veterans with mental instability and anger issues. This could result in veteran employees devoting a lot of energy towards managing their cohorts' perceptions and attempting to "fit in" by hiding aspects of their personalities and

causing them to feel as though they are “outsiders” amongst their coworkers (McAllister et al., 2015). The literature found that veterans with strong support resources tend to experience less identity strain.

According to the literature, the hierarchal structure of the military tended to lack the social cues and organizational politics common to civilian workplaces (McAllister et al., 2015). Veterans with strong support resources tend to experience less identity strain (McAllister et al., 2015). Research has found that personal identity is a set of unique combinations of individual values, goals, attitudes, behavioral styles, and characteristics and answers the question of “Who am I?” (Taylor, nd; Osborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014). Development and maintenance of a defined, continuous sense of personal identity are essential to the foundation of a person’s psychological well-being and health (Erikson, 1950; Osborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014). Low self-concept clarity has been found to be associated with poor psychological well-being and higher levels of negative affectivity, anxiety, and depression (Campbell et al., 1996; Teo et al., 2018; Osborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014).

Many researchers theorized that a lack of defined knowledge and understanding of the collective identity prevents the establishment of a normative template that would, in turn, create a point of reference for defining and understanding an individual’s identity (Ashmore et al., 2004; Williams & Braun, 2019; Zimbardo et al., 2015). This was important because a person’s sense of inclusion in a given society/community is a vital determinant of mental and physical health – without inclusion, people are more likely to experience poor health, loneliness, depression, isolation, and poor self-esteem (Murano, 2016; Murthy, 2017; and Weissbourd et al., 2021).

Further, personal identity was also closely related to collective cultural identity, which is also essential to a person's sense of identity (Taylor & Osborne, 2010; Wilks et al., 2018). Culture is a critical element of an individual's identity (Osborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014). Collective cultural identity was found to be a person's beliefs about their membership in a social group and involves an explicit internalized connection to a group of people with shared traits, norms, values, history, and experiences and answers the question of "who am I as a member of my group" (Osborne & De La Sablonniere, 2014)? Moving from one group to another was found to have the potential to cause a person mental distress because of an unclear understanding of the new host group's norms, values, and behaviors (Cigna, 2018; DiJulio et al., 2018; Zimbardo et al., 2015). Societal stress may cause them may respond with increased criminal activity, rebellion, retreatism, drug and alcohol use, or experience mental health issues (DiJulio et al., 2018; Holt-Lunstad et al., 2017; Wilks et al., 2018)

Military Heritage

A review of the literature found that the men and women who dedicate their lives to supporting and defending the multiple missions of the military all joined for different reasons. Generally, recruits join the military because of family tradition, benefits, or warrior identity. A 2008 study of military families found that many members of the military have numerous other family members who have also served in the military (Hall et al., 2014).

The literature found that the masculine nature of the military also attracts young men looking to impress the male parental figure in their lives and take on the persona of a warrior fighting for something good (Holder, 2007). The literature review found that many young people join the armed forces because they are attracted to the structured lifestyle or negative issues

related to their civilian lives (Holder, 2007). Others joined because they sought a sense of escape. For them, the guaranteed benefits may not be otherwise available to them.

The literature found that the military also offered some lower-income level Americans, such as those from small towns or ghettos, a transitional vehicle that offers them an equal chance to achieve status, security, a career with high-earning potential, prestige, and travel opportunities; as well as housing and health care for both themselves and their family members (spouses, children, long-term partners) (Holder, 2007). The military offered these people a chance to escape from the circumstances of their upbringing while providing them a sense of purpose, positive identity, predictability, and an extended family. Others saw the military as an option to explore the world while figuring out their path in life (Holder, 2007).

Finally, because the majority of their lives are spent encapsulated by the military culturally and physically, the children of military members, also known as brats, know little or nothing about civilian societies and tend to experience anxiety about living in the civilian world. Most of these children spent most of their formative years living and going to school on or near military bases with other children who experienced the demands of military family life. A review of the literature found because of the restrictive and secluded nature of the military, many of these children felt disconnected from their civilian cohorts and uncomfortable when attempting to relate or socialize (Ahern et al., 2015). They reported confusion and discomfort when experiencing common social phenomena, such as racism, for the first time as adults (Ahern et al., 2015). As a result, often many brats later join the military because of the comfort they found in the structure and regimentation that they grew up around (Ahern et al., 2015).

Post-transition Social Support

A review of the literature found that social support can have a protective function against depression, loneliness, as well as emotional and physical disorders. Connectedness was the actual and potential participation in social, community-based activities, organizational activities, social networks, and relationships (Cordier et al., 2017; Tasket et al., 2009). A review of the literature found that there was a lack of empirical research or guideline for understanding veteran employees' emotional needs or developing and nurturing positive effective, and comprehensive civilian-veteran employee relationships.

For many, the VA offered access to valuable benefits and resources that could help ease the financial burden that many veterans experience during their transition. Since 2001, more than twenty-one million veterans have returned to the American civilian workforce. Over 26% of these returning veterans have some degree of service-connected disabilities and reintegration problems (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2021). Combat veterans are automatically eligible for five years of cost-free medical, dental and mental health care; this includes medications. This also includes full access to VA's Medical Benefits Package (in-patient care, emergency care, transport services, and home health care) (VA, 2021).

Upon separation, service-connected, wounded combat veterans are also qualified for full retirement pay (Military Advantage, n.d.). The literature found that, unless they had a service-related injury or retired, they were not eligible for free medical, dental, vision, or mental health care through the VA. A high number of veterans that sought care at VA facilities within the first year of transitioning often reported experiencing problems in romantic relationships, lower perceptions of social support and functioning, problems connecting and relating to friends and

family, and lower levels of life satisfaction (Zimbardo et al., 2015). The exact number of veterans dealing with socialization issues is unknown.

This was in part due to the lack of standardization in study designs, the timing of the studies, and veterans' distrust of the VA system and providers (Zogas, 2017). This lack of trust has caused many veterans not to seek mental or physical health care post-transition. The literature proposed that resilience served as a protective mechanism, mediating depression, anxiety, and PTSD in veterans (Zogas, 2017).

It was found that perceived social support was highly correlated to resilience, physical health, and psychosocial functioning (Cacioppo et al., 2011). The literature found that social support was also a multi-dimension concept that included familial support, friends, intimate partners or spouse, military peer support, civilian peer, and community support (Cacioppo et al., 2011), and can include online social media support as well (Allman, 2013). This support can be financial or emotional (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). The transformative socialization patterns and situational pressures of military culture reprogrammed recruits into a cohesive unit ready and willing to defend their country and die for one another could extend beyond active service and into civilian lives and may also cause some to be unable to reintegrate into a civilian culture ultimately (Ahern et al., 2015).

Research Variables and Supporting Theories

The literature suggested that thanks to the internet and modern communication methods, businesses have been forced to compete for talent on a global level, which has led to new challenges for HR practitioners, and interest in research on cross-cultural organizational issues (Surji, 2013). The literature found that in order for a management model to be effective and

result in sustained organizational productivity, management teams must make great efforts to discover organizational weaknesses, address them and then come up with solutions in which management, human resource departments, and employees work as a cohesive team to manage initiatives, respond to requests, ideas and the needs of employees (Garr et al., 2017).

Theoretical Support

In the 1950s, Frederick Herzberg began asking questions about employee job satisfaction. Herzberg based his theory on employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Malik & Naeem, 2013). He believed that some job factors resulted in satisfaction, while others could prevent dissatisfaction (Malik & Naeem, 2013). Herzberg (1959) theorized that there were two factors that must be present within the organization for an employee to feel motivated and satisfied. These factors are both intrinsic and extrinsic.

He set out to prove his theory by asking people to describe positive and negative emotions toward given situations (Tan, 2013). He proposed that these two sets of categories, hygiene, and motivation, determined employee job attitudes (Herzberg, 1959; Tan, 2013). He looked at both internal and external factors by asking questions based on financial compensation, security, positive relationships with co-workers, and opportunities for growth and advancement (Hyun, 2009). The intrinsic factors (monetary compensation, security, positive relationships with co-workers, opportunities for growth and advancement) he grouped into a term he called hygiene factors (Tan, 2013).

While the intrinsic characteristics (achievement, recognition, growth possibilities, career advancement, level of responsibility, the job itself) that, when absent, caused job dissatisfaction were called motivators (Tan, 2013). Intrinsic motivation is the individual's internal desire to

perform well at the workplace because the results are in accordance with their belief system, which is usually among the strongest motivational factors (Herzberg, 1962; Malik & Naeem, 2013). Many people who are intrinsically motivated show common qualities like acceptance, curiosity, honor, and desire to achieve success (Malik & Naeem, 2013).

American employers are required to offer all full-time employees health care benefits; they can also withhold access to these types of benefits for up to 90 days (U.S. Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services, nd). According to H2FTM, compensation and benefits such as health insurance may not necessarily result in employee job satisfaction. If compensation is perceived to be inadequate, it is possible for an employee to be dissatisfied with their job (Herzberg, 1962; Hyun, 2009; Malik & Naeem, 2013).

Organizations focused only on improving hygiene factors are likely not to see an increase in employee satisfaction but may observe an increase in job satisfaction. According to this theory, to avoid employee dissatisfaction, both hygiene and motivation factors must be present, along with stimulating work, job enrichment, and the maximum utilization of employees' skills and competencies to improve in order for optimum employee performance and production (Malik & Naeem, 2013). Herzberg (1962) referred to these extrinsic factors (financial compensation, security, positive relationships with co-workers, opportunities for growth and advancement) as motivation factors (Tan, 2013).

The extrinsic characteristics associated with job dissatisfaction (company policies, supervision/leadership, relationship with supervisors and peers, work conditions, salary, status, and security) are called hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1962; (Malik & Naeem, 2013). For many military veterans, it is their first time encountering the challenge of finding jobs that offer

adequate compensation and benefits (Zogas, 2017). Extrinsically motivated individuals were stimulated by external factors such as rewards and recognition (Herzberg, 1962; Malik & Naeem, 2013). Research revealed that extrinsic rewards, like bonuses, perks, and awards, can sometimes promote a person's willingness to learn a new skill set or provide tangible feedback (Herzberg, 1962; (Malik & Naeem, 2013).

The literature revealed that motivated employees benefit organizations by helping to ensure there was a positive and safe work environment, superb customer service efforts, and acting as competitive markers for co-workers (Malik & Naeem, 2013; Spector, 1985). The literature found that employee motivation is a critical aspect of the workplace, which lead to the performance of the department and even the company. This was primarily because it allowed management to meet the company's goals, motivated employees could lead to increased productivity, and enabled organizations to achieve higher output levels. Motivated employees take the initiative, are eager to take up additional responsibilities, are innovative, and are driven to succeed.

According to Herzberg (1959), intrinsic motivators and extrinsic motivators have an inverse relationship. He theorized that intrinsic (hygiene) factors tend to inspire motivation when they are present, while extrinsic factors (Motivation) tend to reduce motivation when they are absent (Malik & Naeem, 2013). This is because of expectations. He determined that while intrinsic factors are necessary for employee satisfaction and motivation, they are not sufficient enough on their own. Instead, he posited that extrinsic motivators were needed and expected by employees and would result in dissatisfaction if they were absent. Motivation factors (financial compensation, security, positive relationships with co-workers, opportunities for growth and

advancement) help to encourage employees to work harder and enjoy their jobs, increasing overall productivity.

Theory Application

Over the last 60 years, Herzberg's (1959) theory has been applied and tested innumerable times by researchers in multiple fields, subjects, languages, countries, and work environments (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Stefanovska-Petkovska et al., 2014; Tan, 2013). One of the most common and accepted ways of measuring employee job satisfaction is using John Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Spector (1997) used H2FTM to create the JSS. The JSS was originally designed to measure satisfaction among employees who work in the human service, public, and nonprofit sector organizations but has been applied to other industries as well (Spector, 1997). The concept of job satisfaction was defined as the extent to which an employee feels self-motivated, content in their task, stable in their position, career growth, and comfortable with work-life quality (Spector, 1985).

The JSS is a 36-question, nine-faceted, scale-based survey. The nine facets are pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, performance-based rewards, leadership, coworker relations, the nature of the work, and communication. Each item included in the JSS is scored from 1 to 6; results from responses could vary from 36 to 216, with high scores indicating job satisfaction (JS) and low scores indicating job dissatisfaction (JD). The literature found that the nine facets/sub-scales had a moderate relationship to each other and a total internal average of consistency score, supporting Herzberg's (1959) theory that it was necessary for both intrinsic and extrinsic factors to be present to ensure job satisfaction among employees.

Another study using H2FTM as a framework was that of Baldonado (2018). The researcher explored the motivational and management needs of Gen Z workers using Air Force recruits using H2FTM as a framework. Participants responded to a Likert-based questionnaire regarding the importance of the 16 hygiene/motivator factors. He concluded that Gen Z highly valued both hygiene and motivator factors, reporting growth as the highest source of motivation. This was followed closely by achievement, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. In comparison, factors such as status, recognition, and work conditions were found to be less important to the respondents (Baldonado, 2018). The limitations of this study included a small, unknown sample size, a limited audience, and the development and use of his questionnaire rather than using one that had been tested and validated by other researchers. However, his study was able to conclude that H2FTM adequately explained employee motivation and satisfaction.

Most recently, Alzailai et al. (2021) explored the reasons for burnout and job satisfaction among nurses. Although not military, nurses are also extensively trained people who have high-stress, high-demand jobs that often call for them to perform tasks seamlessly during crisis situations (Alzailai et al., 2021). This study also used H2FTM as a framework. Unlike the other studies listed, Alzailai et al. (2021) used the published data from seven databases and synthesized literature that examined and measured burnout and job satisfaction among intensive care unit nurses in the United Kingdom and Saudi Arabia.

The researchers concluded that among the participants, there were three significant factors associated with burnout and job satisfaction. These included: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and extra-personal factors (Alzailai et al., 2021). The study ultimately explained job satisfaction and motivation using Herzberg's (1959) theory. This was because hygiene and motivation

factors were present among the main factors associated with participants' reported levels of burnout and job satisfaction. However, the study's limitations included a lack of depth of information, specifically surrounding the factors affecting nursing burnout and job satisfaction. Also included in the potential limitations was researcher bias, which included language misinterpretation among the two reviewers

Relation to the Study

A review of the literature found that prior to the pandemic of 2020, on average, over 52 million people voluntarily separated from their jobs each year (D'Aniello Institute for Veterans & Military Families (DIVMF), n.d.). Although a 10-15% annual turnover is normal in organizations, helping to remove low performers, problem staff, unengaged or unqualified employees, and making room for new talent (Marsden, 2016), frequent, voluntary turnover can be unhealthy and very costly for any organization (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012). Frequent turnover can result in increased unemployment rates, talent exodus, and drains on other public assistive services, as well as present significant financial and workforce loss to the business (Marsden, 2016).

According to the literature, in the modern global marketplace, employee satisfaction was found to be vital to organizational viability and sustainability (Malik & Naeem, 2013). Employees who are content with both their work environments and job responsibilities tend to be more productive, loyal, and invested in the success of their organization (Alajmi & Alasousi, 2018; Saari & Judge, 2004; Spector, 1985). Understanding job satisfaction, especially in underrepresented cultures and populations, is essential for employers to understand because of the potential positive organizational effects that include increased profits, corporate

contributions, decreased turnover, aided organizational growth, increased employee efficiency, increased employee loyalty and citizenship, increased perceptions of organizational support (POS) and employee investment (Lizote et al., 2014).

Perceived organizational support is the belief employees have that the organization will support them, their values, contributions, and goals (Suharti & Suliyanto, 2012), and is derived from the employee's drive to satisfy their need for approval, esteem, and social inclusion/acceptance. This construct has been found to be a motivational tool for encouraging organizational loyalty and overall satisfaction (Leitera et al., 2015). An employee's perception of POS is usually established within the first three months of employment (Lizote et al., 2014). During this period, new employees begin to learn their roles and establish social bonds and organizational expectations (Lizote et al., 2014).

Over 70% of civilians reported that they do not understand the challenges veterans face and that fewer and fewer Americans have personal ties to the military (Zogas, 2017). Those who do not have immediate family members in the service are less likely to offer support to families who do. These gaps can lead to military veterans and their families feeling isolated from their civilian communities, which could interfere with their ability to reintegrate into civilian society (Elnitsky et al., 2017).

Herzberg theorized that in order for an employee to be satisfied with their job and employer organization, both hygiene and motivation factors must be present. While in service, these factors were all inherent to the organization's structure and effectiveness. Hygiene factors and requirements were transparent and openly published for all members to observe, as well as many of those of motivation (growth potential, career advancement, responsibility, and job

expectations). The clear standards, demands, and camaraderie found inherent in the military do not exist in many civilian organizations.

Summary

This section included a synthesis of the literature used to support the research topic based on the research questions. The literature included information on military culture, study themes, and seminal studies. Also included was a synthesis of the history surrounding theoretical frameworks used in the study. The dual aspects of social connectedness have been identified as potentially valid and measurable work performance factors. The literature review indicated the study's relevance and confirmed the validity of the variables (job satisfaction, employee motivation, turnover intentions, loneliness, and social isolation) chosen for the study. The literature review was presented in the context of prior relevant research surrounding the themes of the study.

The study was designed to identify possible issues for military veterans who may be dealing with perceived social disconnectedness. However, the literature review revealed that there was a lack of research concerning the actual extended forced social isolation of remote and brick-and-mortar employees. Following the Covid-19 pandemic of 2020, which required an unnatural extended social isolation period, an estimated quarter of the American workforce will be working remotely (Senz, 2020). However, because there is a lack of information on the impact of social connectedness on work attitudes, the framework to create training methods and leadership policies to deal with the impending potential crisis was missing.

Chapter 3 includes a detailed description of the intended research methodology and design. Discussed in the chapter will be sampling and population, data collection and analysis techniques, instrumentation, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This section of the study expounded on the topics presented in Chapter 1. Included was a restatement of the study's purpose, the role of the researcher, and an in-depth description of the chosen methodology processes. These processes included participant selection, organization and analysis of the data, instrumentation, and ethics.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this proposed quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and the perceived social (dis)connectedness factors of loneliness and social isolation in post-9/11 enlisted veterans. Often veterans of all ages, backgrounds, and genders find the conflict between military and civilian values and norms confusing or conflicting, becoming a barrier to overcoming the challenges inherent to transitioning from the service (Zogas, 2017) and finding their place and forming in the civilian world (Cacioppo et al., 2011). The alternative purpose of this quantitative, correlational design study was to contribute information to the body of knowledge regarding the nature of perceived social inclusion of post-9/11 enlisted veterans in relation to their workplace attitudes and behaviors.

Research Design and Rationale

The research design used the quantitative correlative methodology to determine whether there is a difference in employee satisfaction and retention intentions for veterans working with civilian employers when statistically compared to perceptions of loneliness and social isolation. A nonexperimental design that utilized questionnaires was the most appropriate for this study because there was no need to manipulate workforces, employers, perceptions, or participants.

The aim of the study was not to provide the ultimate truth about the research topic. Instead, the study explored and sought to derive meaning from the phenomenon the researcher investigated.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Does the level of perceived social isolation moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Research Question 2: Does the level of perceived loneliness moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

A quantitative research approach was chosen as the methodology for this study because this approach involves a process of collecting and analyzing numerical data, which allows researchers to find patterns, and averages, make predictions, test relationships, and generalize results to wider populations (Creswell, 2009). Data was collected using three anonymous online questionnaires from veterans who opted in. The data represented a cross-sectional sampling of those who chose to self-identify as veterans and decided to participate and complete the questionnaires.

A genuinely in-depth and exhaustive study would require longitudinal research that followed service members from the time of enlistment through to veterans' first 5 to 10 years of their transition. It would also include other special populations that it would be hard for me to access and may include other factors such as dishonorable discharges, prisoners of war, or non-U.S. Citizens post service veterans. However, as a student, I was limited to a cross-sectional sampling of those who chose to identify as veterans and participate in the study. The data offered information on civilian-employed, postservice US military veterans who were recruited using veteran ran, veteran-focused organizations and social media.

Role of the Researcher

My role as a researcher in this quantitative study was to facilitate data collection and analysis and provide information that explained the process(es) required to complete the questionnaires (JSS, SPS-10R, and TIS), expected completion time, privacy policy, and context of the study. The survey was available via a web-based survey host. The data was collected and compiled for analysis using the tool available through the SurveyLegend website and analyzed using SPSS v28. As a veteran, I do have a relationship with the topic. However, I had almost no direct contact with any of the participants in the study. The lack of direct communication ensured that potential ethical conflicts, such as personal or professional relationships, were avoided.

Population

There are an estimated 3.5 million post-9/11 US military enlisted veterans working in US civilian jobs (National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics (NCVAS), 2021). The projected sample size ($N = 138$) was based on the total working military veteran population of approximately 2.4 million. The total collected sample size was less than expected ($N = 58$). As a student, I was limited by time and resources.

The ideal sample population composition should have reflected that of the United States' military population, which is 81.7% male and 18.3% female (Military Community and Family Policy (MC&FP), n.d.) The planned sample population was males ($n = 113$) and females ($n = 25$). It may have also included other special populations, such as those with mental or physical disabilities. However, participants will not be asked to self-identify as such.

The target population consisted of the following: honorably discharged or retired post 9/11 US military veterans, consisting of both males and females, former enlisted and non-

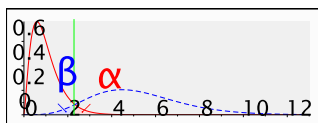
commissioned officers, adults ages 21 to 50 years, various levels of education, employed at least 25 hours a week, and must have access to the internet. As commissioned officers must have at least a 4-year college degree and often find it easier to transition into high-paying and manager or above-level positions (Morin, 2011), they were excluded from this study.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Using the G*Power analysis tool for multiple linear regression, fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero, the minimum sample size, based on a 2-tail distribution, $\alpha = .5$, and a *CI* of .95 was calculated to be 138 when the effect size was 0.15, and the actual power was 0.95. Participants can complete the online questionnaires and gather data using secured, self-paced computer-aided surveys delivered via the online survey/data-gathering agent.

Figure 3

G*Power Sampling Distribution Chart



Note. The above chart shows how sampling size was derived using the G*Power tool using 2-tailed distribution, $\alpha = .5$, and a *CI* of .95.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The study used a snowball collection process. This type of sampling method involved using one or a group of participants to nominate other participants (Creswell, 2009). This referral system usually rapidly gathers data in a cost-effective manner. In turn, allowing the researcher(s) to analyze to draw conclusive results that can help an organization make informed decisions (Dusek et al., 2015). It was also helpful in gathering information on populations who prefer to remain confidential or may be difficult to contact (Dusek et al., 2015).

The recruitment process began by contacting SIOP members who identified themselves as veteran transition professionals, owners, or senior members of such organizations and asking for permission to contact clients as potential participants using organizations' internal databases via email communication, each potential participant to take part in this study. Further, the researcher contacted several other governmental and non-governmental associated agencies that have pre-screened veteran employees who have worked at least part-time for over 90 days.

This data for the study was collected using SurveyLegends as an online data collection tool. The total time to complete the questionnaires was less than 5 minutes (Callaway et al., 2016; Van Saane et al., 2003). Although identifying information was not collected, demographic information (age, gender, education levels, current income, and ethnic identification) was gathered to ensure that participants represented the targeted population. These data remained on a secured online SurveyLegends GDPR Compliant server. A secondary copy was downloaded onto an encrypted USB device and will be kept in a secure fireproof location for a period of 5 years and then destroyed thereafter.

A consent form accompanying the questionnaire was made available online to each participant. The consent form presented a clear explanation of the intent and purpose of the study, notified each participant that there were no direct personal benefits from participation, and informed the participants that they were not under any pressure to complete the survey. The consent form also contains a notification that participants were free to withdraw their consent at any time, and reminded the participants that their identity and confidentiality would remain anonymous during this process. As this is a cross-sectional study, there was no need for follow-up interviews, treatments, or contact of any kind with participants.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

To examine any potential effects SI might have on the relationship between JS, EM, and TI among post-9/11 US military veterans. The study used an online survey composed of three different questionnaires. These questionnaires were Spector's (1997) JSS, Cutrona and Russell's (1987) SPS-10R, and Spector et al.'s. (1988) TIS. Spector's (1997) JSS was also used to assess and measure the dimensions of Herzberg's (1959) motivation and hygiene factors (pay,

promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, performance-based rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication).

Job Satisfaction Survey

The study used Spector's (1997) JSS questionnaire to look at human group behaviors as it relates to the workplace and how these behaviors were connected with the multiple needs of the individual, using post-9/11 US military enlisted veterans as the target sample population. The JSS assessed Herzberg's (1959) motivators and hygiene factors by asking participants to respond to 36 items (Spector, 1997). An example of the items included in the survey is "When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive." Each item was rated on a 6-point (1 = "strongly disagree" to 6 = "strongly agree") scale (Spector, 1997).

The reliability of the JSS has been reported to be 0.86 using the Cronbach's Alpha method and relative Chi-square=1.18, RMSEA=0.04, GFI=0.93, AGFI=0.91 (Gholami-Fesharaki et al., 2012). Further, the nine facets/sub-scales had a moderate relationship to each other, and a total internal average of consistency score, using a sample size of 3,607, of 0.70 to 0.91 and 0.37-0.74 was calculated when used on a smaller sample size of 43 individuals. Further, a correlation of 0.61 for coworkers to 0.80 for supervision was calculated between five of the Job Satisfaction sub-scale.

Social Provison Scale

The scores of social inclusion factors of loneliness and social isolation, combined and separately, acted as moderator variables and were measured using the five dimensions identified in the Social Provisions Scale (SPS-10R). The SPS-10R asked responders to answer support questions based on the areas of guidance, reassurance of worth, social integration, attachment,

and reliable alliance. Participants were asked to answer statements such as “There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.” Each of the ten items on the questionnaire uses a 1 to 4 Likert-like scale. Answers will vary from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

This instrument examined participants’ perceptions of their relationships with those around them. The questionnaires have been used extensively with general audiences and have high validity scores (Callaway et al., 2016; Saane et al., 2003) by both I/O and mental health professionals. An example of the questions included is “There is no one who shares my interest.”

In previous studies (Callaway et al., 2016; Saane et al., 2003), the SPS-10R was a reliable and valid instrument for measuring the availability of social support. The analysis found that the SPS-10R dimensions were independent, with moderate correlations between the subscales ranging from 0.469 to 0.632 and its five subscales. The SPS-10R explained 14.1% of the variance in psychological distress. It also explained 25.4 quality-of-life variants and retained 95% of the predictive power of the SPS-24 items. All its subscales were negatively correlated with psychological distress.

Turnover Intentions Scale

The criteria variable of turnover intentions was measured using Spector et al. (1988) single-item measure. The Turnover intention scale (TIS) was a simple 1-item scale that measures six levels of turnover intentions (never to exceptionally often). Although it has been used in numerous studies, no published reliability scores could be found. It asks participants to question, “How often have you seriously considered leaving your current job?”

Data Analysis Plan

After the data collection process was completed, the process of data cleaning and analysis began. The data was exported to SPSS (IBM© SPSS® Statistics, version 28) using the tools provided by SurveyLegends online data collection website. Following that, summary statistics and demographic information were generated. This included calculated mean and standard deviations for continuous variables. All analyses were run using a 2-tail distribution, $\alpha = .5$, and a *CI* of .95.

A moderator analysis was used to determine whether the relationship between two variables depends on (is moderated by) the value of a third variable (Lund Research Ltd, n.d.). The goal of analyzing the data was to test whether the prediction of a criterion variable, Y, from an independent variable, X, differs across levels of a third variable, W (Lund Research Ltd, n.d.). In this case, the researcher tested the moderator's variable effect for strength, the direction of the relation, and the outcome of the relationship(s) using the PROCESS model of analysis techniques. The basic moderation model equation was:

$$Y = i_5 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 W + \beta_3 XW + e_5.$$

β_1 is the coefficient relating the predictor variable, X, to the outcome, Y, when $W = 0$, β_2 is the coefficient relating the moderator variable, W, to the outcome when $X = 0$, i_5 , the intercept in the equation, and e_5 the residual in the equation (Lund Research Ltd, n.d.). The regression coefficient for the interaction term, β_3 , provided an estimate of the moderation effect. If β_3 is statistically different from zero, there is significant moderation of the X-Y relation in the data (Lund Research Ltd, n.d.).

To statistically analyze the collected data, the researcher used IBM's SPSS Version 28 in conjunction with Hayes' PROCESS version 4.1. Both gender and age were used as covariates to prevent potential confounding effects. This is because studies have consistently shown that age affected job satisfaction, while gender affected job satisfaction reports have been inconsistent across countries, industries, and cultures (Andradre et al., 2019).

First, the researcher planned to perform a range of multivariate analyses, including correlations, cross-tabulations, trend analysis, and general descriptive statistics. Additionally, aggregated and singular loneliness and social isolation PROCESS regression models were used to examine the differences between the impact of job satisfaction characteristics on turnover intentions. One of the models was to include the regression of job satisfaction on the individual turnover intentions to examine how much variance each intrinsic and extrinsic factor accounted for any variances in results. The validity of the results was determined by observing the significance of each model's p-values for percentile interaction effects.

The analysis results calculated the main and interaction effects between these variables. This analysis technique allowed each variable's effects to be considered separately and interactively (Lund Research Ltd, n.d.). Any p-value $\leq \alpha$: associations were considered statistically significant, and the null hypothesis was rejected (Groves et al., 2009). The moderator variable's effect was analyzed using plot analysis to look for center interactions among the plot lines and normal distribution (Groves et al., 2009).

It was necessary to prevent the possibility of gender confusion in the research results. Males were defined as any participant that self-identified as male, and females will be any participant that self-identified as female at the time of service. The study's participants were

coded as zeros for males and ones for females. Age was coded as a continuous variable, and factors were scaled. Data will be generated using count and frequency statistical data for categorical variables. Categorical variables such as ethnicity will be coded as 1= Hispanic, 2 = Asian, 3 = African American/black, and 4 = white. The same was done for each branch of service. Since each of the instruments utilizes a Likert-like scale, they were coded and measured using the details provided by the creators. The data was checked for errors by running frequency distributions, and the results were sorted in descending order. Any errors in the data will be deleted and treated as missing entries.

Operational Definitions

For the purpose of clarity and retesting, the researcher used the following identifiers when coding and analyzing data.

Social Inclusion Variables

1. Loneliness (Lonely)
2. Social Isolation (SocIso)

Social Inclusion Predictors

- a. Reliable Alliance (RelAli)
- b. Reassurance of Worth (RWorth)
- c. Social Integration (SocInt)
- d. Attachment (Attach)
- e. Guidance (Guide)

Turnover Intentions (TurnInt Total) – coding will coincide with the numbering below

1. Never

2. Rarely
3. Sometimes
4. Somewhat Often
5. Quite Often
6. Extremely often

Job Satisfaction Total (JSTotal)

1. Compensation (JSWages)
2. Promotion (JSPromo)
3. Supervision (JSSupe)
4. Communication (JSComm)
5. Non-wage Benefits (JSBen)
6. Other Rewards (JSRew)
7. Organizational Rules & Regulations (JSRules)
8. Co-worker Relationships (JSWork)
9. Job/Task Engagement (JSJob)

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question1: Does the level of perceived social isolation moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (Ho1): Perceived social isolation does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Hypothesis (H1): Perceived social isolation does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Research Question 2: Does the level of perceived loneliness moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (Ho2): Perceived loneliness does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Hypothesis (H2): Perceived loneliness does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Threats to Validity

Anticipated threats to the validity of this study included the following:

1. Not enough participants completed the survey
2. Participants gave false responses
3. The Covid-19 epidemic may have negatively affected how employees perceive their employers and biased responses.
4. Data incorrectly entered when coded
5. Researcher inexperience with analysis systems.
6. Data could not be normally distributed or have significant outliers

Ethical Considerations

I contacted all the persons and business organizations willing to be for permission to use internal personnel databases to get their employees, invite them to participate in the study, and post notices on their social media pages. I also contacted the creators of the SPS-10R, JSS, and TIS and requested permission to use their instruments. These letters or emails indicated both the organizations' managerial and owner's awareness of the study to avoid potential ethical and copyright issues. These were included in the appendices. As stated before, although there may be

participants who qualify as a “protected population,” they were asked to self-identify as one, for example, disabled or criminal status.

Although participants were encouraged to share the survey link with others, the researcher will not utilize participation requests through these types of outlets on their personal social media, such as LinkedIn, Facebook, or Twitter. The decision not to use social media was made for multiple reasons. The first was to avoid any conflict of interest. The researcher is a veteran and a member of at least 20 veteran-oriented or ran social media groups. Some of these group members lead or are a part of local government, school, and employment advisory boards that have ties with the researcher's current employer. It was also done to prevent any biases or feelings of obligation or the need to be dishonest on the part of participants.

Summary

This section expounded on the researcher’s intended methodology. This section included a restatement of the study’s purpose, the role of the researcher, and an in-depth description of the chosen methodology processes, population, sampling procedures, data analysis, instrumentation, and ethics. The purpose was to investigate potential relationships between community integration and support, post-military service, work attitudes, and turnover in post-9/11 veterans to expand the current empirical knowledge. The findings of this study will allow the researcher to accept or reject the presented hypotheses. A deeper understanding of the effect of community acceptance on motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction for veterans may help change transition practices and policies and supply information for employers, organizational leaders, and human resource departments. The next chapter will present and discuss the data collected and analyzed findings.

Chapter 4: Results

Purpose

This proposed cross-sectional, quantitative correlational study was aimed at examining the potential effect of perceived social (dis)connectedness factors of loneliness and social isolation of post-9/11 enlisted veterans. The study focused on the relationship between employee job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Chapter 4 reviews the data collection process, statistical analysis, and study results. An explanation for discrepancies in the data collection was included in the following section.

Data Collection

The goal was to obtain and analyze 138 unique responses for this short survey. That sampling goal was not met; only 77 responses were gathered between February 3rd, 2022, and April 26th, 2022. Of these responses, only 58 were usable for analysis and used convenience snowball sampling to recruit participants. Initial collection proceeded as described in Chapter 3. I adhered to the plans stated in the previous chapter, with two exceptions. I used both convenience and snowball recruiting methods. I started by emailing my contacts at four organizations. I received immediate confirmation from two of the four organizations that agreed to work with me. One of the four eventually contacted me to decline participation due to organizational changes. The other failed to respond to any of my calls or emails.

For the first 20 days, as word of mouth spread, others posted the link with a comment on their social media websites and had cohorts complete the survey responses. Over 60 entries were counted. After a week of no responses, I called my contacts to request reminders be sent out and posts refreshed on their social media pages. I also contacted non-affiliated universities, and at the

request of a former coworker. I sent the survey link and invitation to the local veteran workforce development specialist. The invitation was then sent to his boss, who then sent it out to all specialists in the state. It is important to note that the former coworker is neither a veteran nor in direct supervision of any veterans.

I also posted the invitation on three dissertation data-gathering websites to attract more respondents. Since the survey was an anonymous product, I was unable to quantify how this benefited the data-gathering efforts. Although the option was available through the collection website to remain within IRB mandates, no contact data was collected from participants or sources, and no follow-up emails were sent out to participants.

The data collection website was left open for approximately 40 days before the lack of responses made it evident that I needed to use more aggressive means within the set boundaries. In my free time, I circulated among the four major local shopping areas: grocery stores, home improvement stores, pet care stores, and restaurants. I sent out weekly reminders to the participating agencies to increase survey responses. I continued to repost to the dissertation data collection websites daily and continued monitoring the collection site for new responses.

In response, I contacted ten other veteran employment reps in other states that had access to a broader pool of veterans and only got a response from two that said they were no longer in those positions. I also attempted to contact the veteran committee of SIOP through personal emails, LinkedIn messages, and Facebook. I continued this practice through the month of April when it became apparent that despite my efforts, no more new responses would be submitted to the collection website. At that time, I chose to close response access to the survey.

It should be noted that due to the recent pandemic and the increase in online shopping, foot traffic in shopping areas has decreased significantly. As a result, fewer people could be found in and around shopping areas than usual. Many patrons in my area also avoided stores because of mask mandates and limited allowable occupancy rates. Online shopping and curbside pickup have become the norm (Erdly, 2022). Further decreasing the possibility of in-person contact at these locations. A recent study found that 92% of shoppers used options that let them pay online and pick up their purchases curbside or have them delivered, only dropping to 75% post-pandemic (Erdly, 2022).

This resulted in a completion rate of 75.32%. Abandoned responses to the survey answers were treated as missing cases. A total of 77 (N=77) people initiated the study, 67 (n= 67) completed the demographics part of the survey, and 58 (n=58) completed the questionnaire. This means that 75.32% of the potential participants completed the study, and 86.57 % of those who passed the qualification questions continued to complete the study

Sample Demographics

Table 2

Summary Table Participant Sociodemographic Data (N = 77)

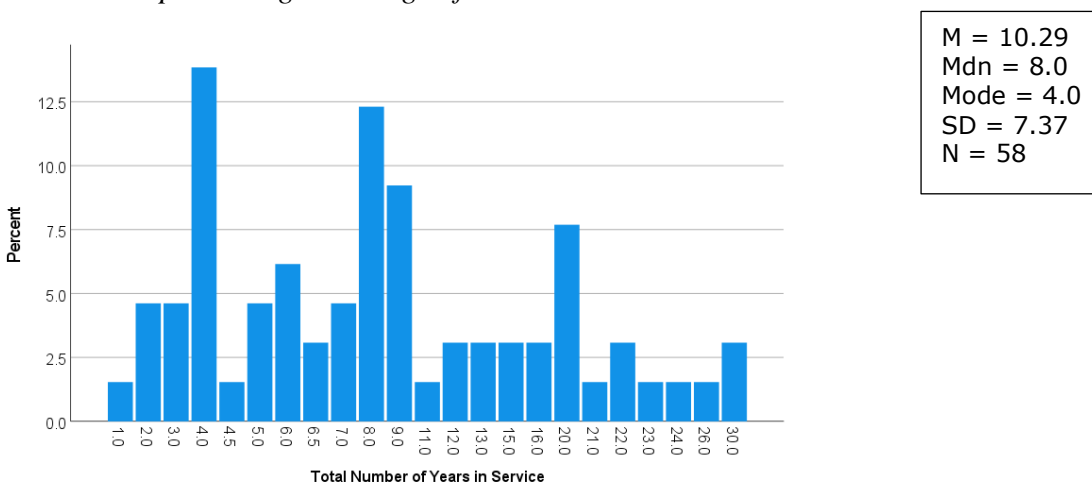
Factors	M	Mode	SD	n	Percent
Gender		Male			
Male				48	62.3
Female				19	24.7
Missing				10	13.0
Participant Age	33-39	46-50	1.26		
21-26				4	5.2
27 -32				12	15.6
33-39				17	22.1
40-45				14	18.2
46-50				20	26.0
Missing				10	13.0
Marital Status	Married	Married	.295		
Single				13	16.9
Married				42	54.5
Divorced				11	14.3
Widowed					
Missing				11	14.3
Education	4-Year	Grad +	1.26		
High School				20	26.0
2yr Degree				8	10.4
4yr Degree				14	18.2
Graduate Degree				24	31.2
Missing				11	14.3
Highest Rank	NCO	NCO	.558		
Enlisted				9	11.7
NCO				45	58.4
SNCO				11	14.3
Missing				12	15.6

The demographic data for the study was analyzed based on participants' self-selected responses to eight basic items (see table 2). These items included ethnicity, age, gender, marital status, highest education level, the branch of service, highest achieved rank, and the number of

years in service. The demographic information for the study sample is summarized in table 2. On average, the study participants were married white male Navy NCO veterans between the ages of 33-39 (SD = 1.25) with a 4-year college education (SD = 1.57). While in service, more than half (67.2%) of the veterans had earned NCO ranks (E4 to E6). This cohort was well-educated. Nearly 50% of the respondents had earned at least a 4-year degree or higher.

Figure 4

Bar Chart Representing the Range of Time in Service



Approximately 20% could be considered career service members (see figure 4), having served between 20 to 30 years in the military. On average, respondents had served in the Armed Forces for 10.29 years (SD = 7.370).

Results

Sample Descriptives

Table 3

Summary Table of Variable Descriptive Analysis

		Total SPS				
		Turnover	JobSat	Scores	Lonely	Isolate
N	Valid	58	58	58	58	58
	Missing	19	19	19	19	19
Min		0	111	12	5	6
Max		5	156	40	20	20
Mean		2.19	131.98	30.10	15.07	15.03
Median		3.00	132.00	30.00	15.00	15.00
Mode		3	132.00	39.00	15.00	19.00
Std. Deviation		1.58	12.70	7.11	3.79	3.68
Range		5	45.00	28.00	15.00	14.00
Chronbach's α		**	0.525	0.916	0.850	0.855

Note. Chronbach's α is not available for the turnover intentions scale because it consists of a single question. Therefore, there is no way to check for internal consistency.

Aggregate scores for the variables were first analyzed using descriptive statistics (see table 3). The predictor variable was assessed using the JSS ($\alpha = 0.53$, $M = 132$, $SD = 12.7$). Specter et al.'s (1988) TIS was used to assess the criteria variable, turnover ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.58$). The moderator was assessed using the SPS-10R ($\alpha = 0.523$, $M = 30.00$, $SD = 7.11$). Also looked at were the theorized dual component of loneliness ($\alpha = 0.850$, $M = 15.07$, $SD = 3.79$) and perceived social isolation ($\alpha = 0.85$, $M = 15.03$, $SD = 3.68$).

Tests of Assumptions

Test of Normality

Normality was visually assessed using histogram charts and observing how the data was distributed across the given variable.

Figure 5

Job Satisfaction Scale Distribution Curve

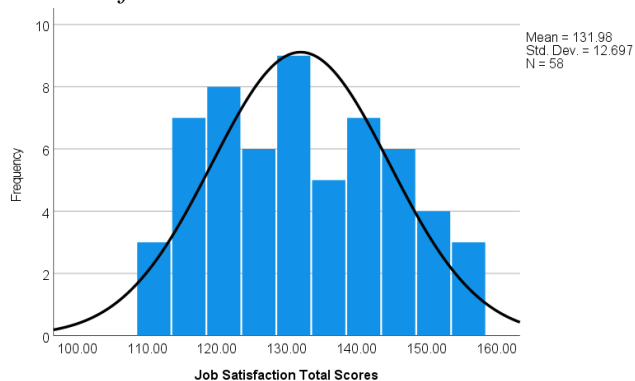


Figure 6

Frequency Distribution Curve for SPS-10R Scores

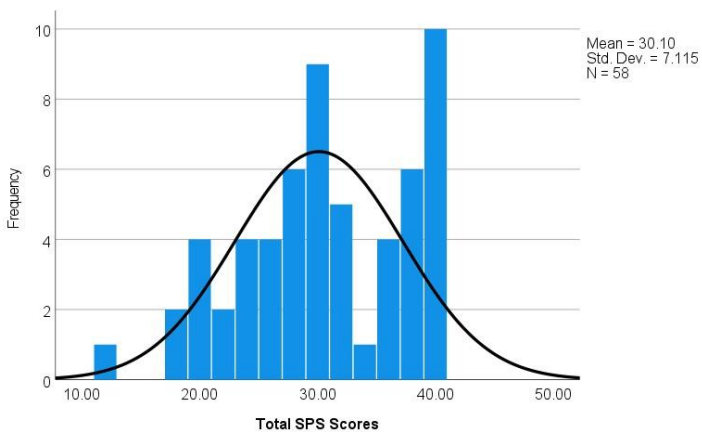


Figure 7

Suggested Score Result Norms For SPS-10R Including 1 Standard Deviation

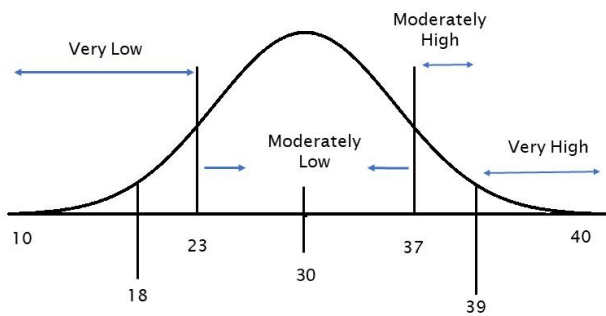


Figure 8

Distribution of Reported Perceived Social Isolation Levels

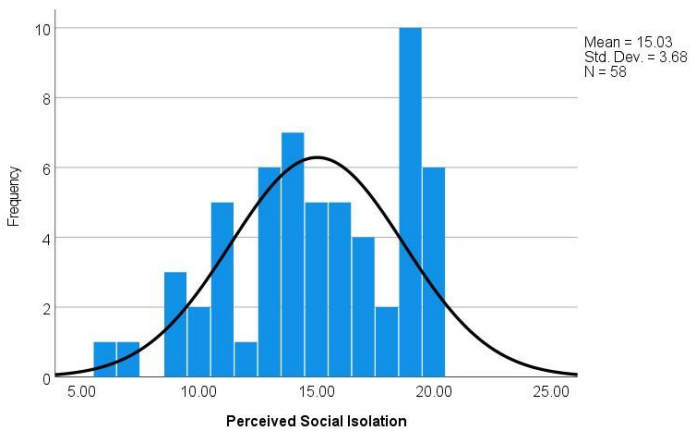
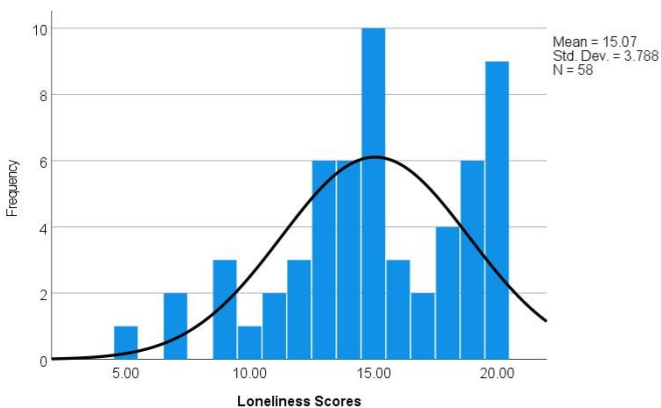
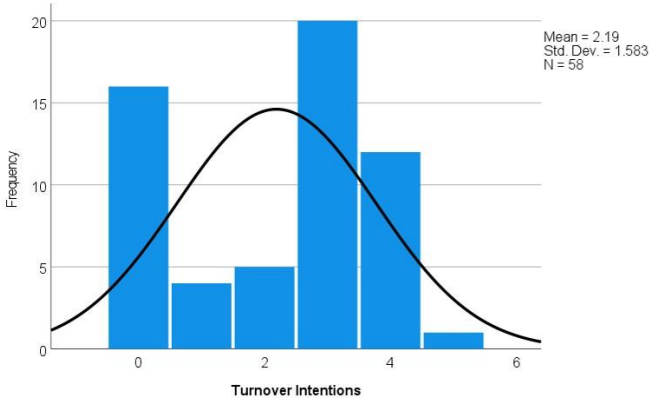


Figure 9*Distribution of Reported Loneliness Levels***Figure 10***Frequency Distribution of Turnover Intention Scores*

Visual inspection of the histogram for Job satisfaction scores (see figure 5) appeared to be normally distributed. The histogram for the total SPS-10R scores also appeared to be normally distributed. Russell et al. (1984) suggested that normal distributions for the resulting SPS-10R scores should follow a normal curve ($SD = 1$), with “moderate” scores falling approximately in the middle (see figure 7). The histograms for both perceived social isolation

(see figures 8 and 9) appeared to be slightly skewed but normally distributed. The histogram for turnover intentions did not appear to be normally distributed.

Table 4

Summary Table of Normality Assumption Tests for Main Variables

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total JSS Scores	0.088	58	0.200*	0.965	58	0.088
Total SPS Scores	0.110	58	0.080	0.947	58	0.013
Loneliness	0.109	58	0.084	0.938	58	0.005
Social Isolation	0.135	58	0.010	0.944	58	0.009
Turnover Intentions	.265	58	<.001	.840	58	<.001

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The Shapiro-Wilk test is recommended when there is a small sample size (see table 5). Results of this test showed a significant departure from normality, $W(58) = .840$, $p < .001$ for the data distribution of veterans' turnover intentions. A Kolmogorov-Smirnova test also confirmed this conclusion. The test indicated that the turnover intentions of participants did not follow a normal distribution, $D(58) = 0.265$, $p < .001$.

Test of Linear Relationship

Figure 11

Linear Assumption Test for Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions

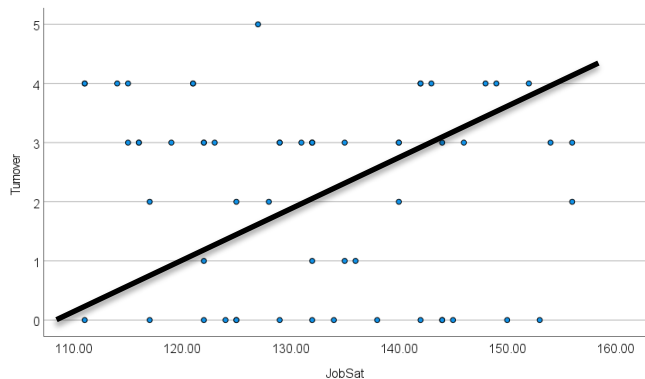


Figure 12

Linear Assumption Test for SPS-10R Scores and Turnover Intentions

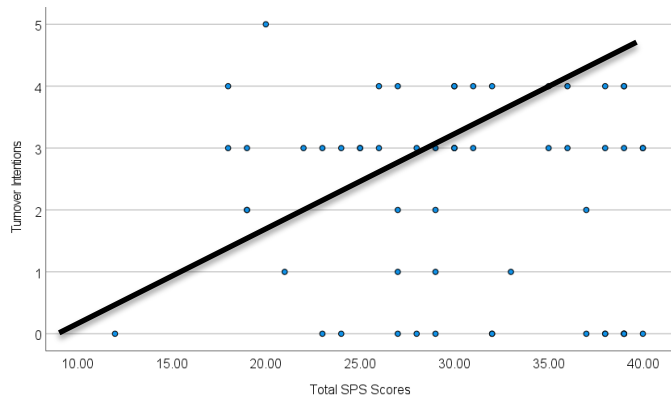
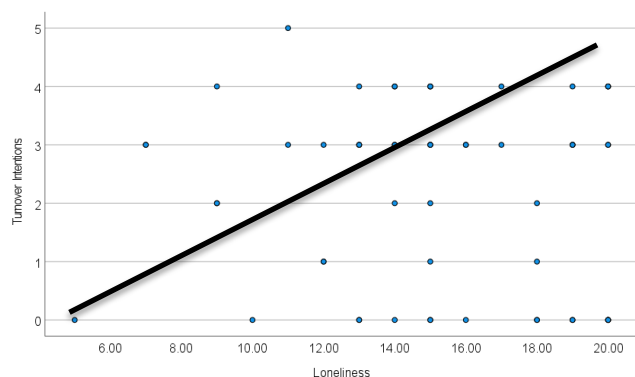
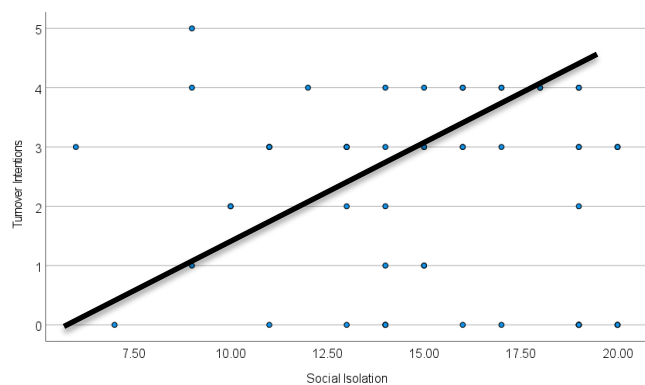


Figure 13

Linear Assumption Test for Loneliness Scores and Turnover Intentions

**Figure 14**

Linear Assumption Test for Social isolation Scores and Turnover Intentions



Next, the assumption of linear relationship was tested (see figures 11 through 14). This assumption states that the variables in question should have a linear relationship between the predictor(s) and other variables (Forst, 2020). This analysis tests whether the observed data fit a straight line (Frost, 2020). This assumption is tested by visual observation of scatter plot analysis results. Visual analysis of these graphs revealed that a linear relationship among the variables did not exist.

If the data do not follow a straight line, a transformation can be applied to the variables, or a polynomial regression analysis method, such as quadratic regression used instead (Forst, 2020). Because of the smaller-than-expected sample size ($N = 58$), the criteria variable's violation of normality, a non-parametric bootstrap, and Spearman's test were included when conducting scatterplot analysis. However, even with these additional tests, no linear relationships were found among the variables.

Test of Homoscedasticity Assumption

The next assumption tested was that of homoscedasticity. This assumption is based on the residuals of x having constant variance at every level (Frost, 2020). An analysis of standard residuals was carried out, which showed that the data contained no outliers (Std. Residual Min = -1.544, Std. Residual Max = 1.535) (see table 5).

Table 5

Summary Table of Collinearity and Homoscedasticity Assumption Analysis Tests Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		β	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
Turnover	3.192	2.280		1.400	.167	-1.378	7.762		
JobSat	-.003	.020	-.025	-.152	.880	-.044	.038	.678	1.475
Lonely	.042	.098	.099	.426	.672	-.154	.237	.334	2.995
Isolate	-.081	.106	-.189	-.764	.448	-.294	.132	.299	3.346
Total SPS Scores	-.022	.030	-.098	-.739	.463	-.081	.037	1.000	1.000

The next assumption tested was that of homoscedasticity. This assumption is based on the residuals of x having constant variance at every level (Frost, 2020). An analysis of standard

residuals was carried out, which showed that the data contained no outliers (Std. Residual Min = -1.544, Std. Residual Max = 1.535) (see table 5).

Test of Collinearity

The final assumption of regression is collinearity. Tests to see if the data met the assumption of collinearity indicated that multicollinearity was not a concern (see table 5) (JSS Scores, Tolerance = .537, VIF = 1.00; Loneliness, Tolerance = 1.00, VIF = 1.00; Social Isolation, Tolerance = 1.00, VIF = 1.00) (see table 11); SPS Scores, Tolerance = 1.00, VIF = 1.00 (see table 12).

Hypotheses Testing

Table 6

PROCESS Moderator Model Analysis Summary Table

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
1. JobSat*SPS_All	--	.011	--	.584	1.00	54.00	.448
2. JobSat*Isolation	-	.001	--	.071	1.00	54.00	.791
-							
3. JobSat*Lonely	-	.023	--	1.279	1.00	54.00	.263
-							
Model 1	.146	.021	2.590	.394	3.00	54.00	.758
Model 2	.128	.016	2.603	.299	3.00	54.00	.826
Model 3	.175	.031	2.565	.570	3.00	54.00	.637
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	
*constant	-6.937	9.489	-.731	.468	-25.961	12.086	
JobSat	.074	.075	.984	.330	-.077	.224	
SPS_All	-.024	.037	-.646	.521	-.098	.050	
Isolate	-.052	.072	-.716	.477	-.197	.093	
Lonely	.632	.575	1.099	.277	-.521	1.786	
Int 1	-.002	.002	-.764	.448	-.007	.003	
Int 2	-.001	.005	-.267	.791	-.012	.009	
Int 3	-.005	.004	-1.131	.263	-.014	.004	

**Turnover intentions used as a constant variable*

To further investigate, a moderator analysis was performed using the PROCESS v4.1 extension in SPSS v28 (see table 6). The criteria variable for analysis was turnover intentions. The predictor variable for the analysis was job satisfaction, and the moderator evaluated was

perceived social isolation. After the overall model was analyzed, it was necessary to observe how the different dimensions of social inclusion affected the relationship between turnover intentions and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1

RQ1: Does the level of perceived social isolation moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (Ho1): Perceived social isolation does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Hypothesis (H1): Perceived social isolation does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

The outcome variable for analysis was turnover intentions. The predictor variable for the analysis was job satisfaction scores, and the moderator evaluated was total perceived social inclusion scores. The interaction between the three variables was not found to be statistically significant $\Delta R^2 = 0.011$, $\Delta F(1, 54) = 0.071$, $p = 0.791$, ($\beta = -0.001$, $p = 0.791$). Because there was not a statistically significant relationship found, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Hypothesis 2

RQ2: Does the level of perceived loneliness moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans?

Null Hypothesis (Ho2): Perceived loneliness does not moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Hypothesis (H2): Perceived loneliness does moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in veterans.

Like the previous research question, RQ2 was analyzed using the PROCESS model and turnover intentions as the outcome variable (see table 6). The interaction between the three variables was not found to be statistically significant $\Delta R^2 = 0.023$, $\Delta F(1, 54) = 1.279$, $p = 0.263$, ($\beta = -0.005$, $p = 0.263$). Because there was not a statistically significant relationship found, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Statistical Analysis

Table 7

Variable Effect Correlation Matrix (N=58)

		<i>Correlations</i>				
		Turnover	JobSat	Total SPS Scores	Lonely	Isolate
1. Turnover	Pearson Correlation	--				
2. JobSat	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.083	--			
3. Total SPS Scores	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.098	.553**	--		
4. Lonely	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.067	.490**	.954**	--	
5. Isolate	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	-.122	.565**	.951**	.815**	--

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

In order to answer the research questions and associated hypotheses, initial statistical tests were conducted. To start, separate bivariate regressions were conducted to examine the existence of a relationship between the predictor variable, job satisfaction, and the criteria

variable, turnover intentions, which was first tested. This was followed by an assessment of any relationship between the moderator, social inclusion, and the criteria variable, as well as the predictor variable (see table 7).

There was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between total job satisfaction scores and total social inclusion scores, $r(56) = 0.55$, $p < 0.001$. Also included in this analysis were the two dimensions of social inclusion. There was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between total job satisfaction scores and perceptions of both loneliness, $r(56) = 0.49$, $p < 0.001$, and a strong positive correlation for that of social isolation, $r(56) = 0.57$, $p < 0.001$. However, no statistically significant relationship was found between turnover intentions and job satisfaction or social inclusion.

Summary

The primary purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental study was to explore how perceptions of social inclusion/connectedness affected post-9/11 Veterans working for civilian employers. The goal was to discover whether or not one or both of the dual dimensions of social inclusion, perceived social isolation, and loneliness played a significant role in how satisfied they were at their current employers and their intentions to find new opportunities. At the same time, the relationship between job satisfaction was explored.

A moderating relationship could not be found between the predictor variable of job satisfaction and the criterion variable, turnover intentions. Therefore, the null hypothesis for both research questions was accepted. The results of the non-parametric analyses at $p < .05$ indicated that there was not a statistically significant correlation between perceived social connectedness and turnover intentions. Nor was there a direct relationship between job satisfaction and turnover

intentions. However, there was a statistically significant relationship between job satisfaction and social inclusion and its dimensions. It should also be noted that, unlike previous studies surrounding veterans experiencing social intensity syndrome or post-service reintegration issues, marital status, the branch of service, or the number of years served had any correlation to perceptions of loneliness or social isolation. Chapter 5 will provide an interpretation of the findings, the limitations of the current study, recommendations for future research, and implications for professional practice and social change.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

Introduction

Due to the scarcity of information on the socioeconomic transition experience of veterans in the workplace, few organizational leaders understand the effects these outside influences can have on their overall businesses and employee retention. Most of these newer studies have had a very limited scope. These studies have centered around the elderly, immigrants, and those with mental illnesses such as PTSD.

This has also been true for veteran reintegration studies (Danish & Antonides, 2013; Sayer et al., 2015; & Zogas, 2017). The exceptions have been those researching veterans in higher education, tradesperson training programs (Platt, 2017), and familial relationships (Danish & Antonides, 2013). These studies offered little to no information on veteran employee retention challenges, such as the differences in civilian and military organizational cultures, employee satisfaction, or how veteran integration can affect retention efforts. As a result, most have no active management and retention practices; nearly 80% of veterans leave their jobs within the first two years of employment (Maury et al., 2014). Therefore, there is still a need to aid employers in supporting valuable veteran employees entering civilian organizations.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was twofold. The first is to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and the perceived social (dis)connectedness factors of loneliness and social isolation in post 9-11 veterans. The second was to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between the perceived social inclusion of post-9/11 veterans and their workplace attitudes and behaviors.

Findings

This study's primary purpose was to examine and analyze the potential correlational effect of perceptions of social (dis)connectedness factors post 9-11 veterans. The two proposed hypotheses asked the reader to consider whether the perceived level of connection or acceptance veterans have to their civilian communities could affect their attitudes, perceptions, and in civilian workspaces. Analysis of the gathered data revealed that the moderators of loneliness, perceived isolation, and overall social inclusion had no statistically significant correlations to the relationship between satisfaction and turnover intentions. Therefore the null hypotheses could not be dismissed.

Interpretation of Findings

The study's original intent was to evaluate whether perceptions of social inclusion influenced the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. The data did not support either of the previously proposed hypotheses. This could possibly be attributed to the small sample size. While not found to be a direct influence on the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions, the results did reveal a significant, strong, and positive relationship between job satisfaction and overall perceptions of social inclusion, as well as between the separate dimensions.

The results both supported and contradicted previous studies. The results revealed that perceptions of social integration, isolation, and loneliness played a significant role in the work aspects of veteran lives. The research also supported previous studies about social inclusion (Allman, 2013; Morin, 2011; Zimbardo et al., 2015). Zimbardo et al.'s (2015) proposed SIS syndrome, as well as Morin's (2011) and Allman's (2013) studies, many veterans experienced

difficulties in shedding their military identities and familial bonds after re-entering civilian society.

The study also found that, in general, the participants felt that there were few civilians they could depend on, share social activities, and have positive, supportive relationships. Also, similar to Weiss' (1974) and Russell et al.'s (1987) research, this study found that perceptions of social isolation and loneliness had a significant impact on both the individual factors of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. A considerable number of participants were found to be ambivalent about their jobs and experiencing moderately low levels of social connectedness. More than half were actively looking for other positions

Unlike previous job satisfaction research, this study did not find any significant associations with age or gender. Unlike the other studies that utilized Spector's seminal studies, this research specifically sampled veterans. Also, more recent studies, such as that of Vanderschueren and Birdsall (2019), have focused primarily on veterans employed in civil service jobs and did not include social factors. The studies found that female veterans were more likely to experience job dissatisfaction. Unlike these studies, this research was based on a generalized veteran population and did not find gender or age to be significant predictors of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. These factors were also not found to be significant predictors for perceptions of social connectedness among veterans working in civilian workplaces.

Contribution to Body of Knowledge

Previous I/O psychology research (Alzailai et al., 2021; Herzberg, 1959; Spector, 1997) has traditionally all but ignored unique factors that are inherent to unique populations. In this study, the researcher attempted to shift the focus from models that observe what happens within

the physical confines of civilian offices to one that includes the social and emotional needs of employees, particularly veteran employees. The findings show that the social inclusion experience is not only associated with decreased community interaction and mental or physical health problems but that the construct is also associated with how people perceive their work environments and coworkers—revealing that there is a viable need for more research surrounding the importance of social inclusion in veterans of all ages and genders.

Limitations

One of the first limitations that should be noted concerning the study presented was the timing of the research. The emotional, psychological, and economic toll that the pandemic had on the veteran populations may have introduced a level of unconscious bias into participant responses. At the time of the study, the world was amid a global pandemic that had millions out of work, with little to no contact with others. However, as the pandemic wore on, veterans reported record increases in feelings of loneliness and isolation, with many reporting that they felt like they were experiencing combat-like emotions and worsening PTSD conditions (Na et al., 2022).

A recent national study just before the Covid-19 pandemic sampled 4,069 US military veterans and found that 70% of veterans reported experiencing feelings of loneliness (Na et al., 2022). Another contemporary study also found an increased prevalence of general anxiety disorder (GAD) positive screens and reports of PTSD (Hill, et al., 2021). Over 50% of post 9-11 veterans have reported a decline in their mental and physical health, and 61% reported feeling more disconnected from friends, family, and community (Hill et al., 2021).

Also, Veterans in rural areas, like the one I live in, were and continue to be much more likely to refuse Covid-19 vaccinations, choosing to avoid physical contact with others than their civilian counterparts (Der-Martirosian et al., 2022). Added to this is the shift in shopping behaviors as a result of the pandemic. Accompanying these mental and emotional struggles were the record numbers of people out of work during the pandemic. Over 150 million adults were out of work with little to no intimate social contact with others (BLS, 2021). Nearly 10% of those unemployed were veterans (BLS, 2021). Since then, the “great resignation” has become a huge challenge for employers. Research has found that today’s workers are more self-aware of their personal and professional goals and are not afraid to leave if employers fail to meet their emotional, fiscal, and career desires (National Veteran Foundation, 2021).

The second limitation was the sample size. The intended sample size was 138 unique participants with fully completed questionnaires. However, the study only got 77 participants, and of those, only 58 completed all the items included in the study. This may have affected both the linearity and distribution curves of the data. It also prevented the researcher’s ability to perform multilinear regression analysis. Several organizations offered to support the research but did not make any efforts to recruit veteran participants. As a result, the number of eligible participants that saw the research website was limited. To date, this study is the first of its kind that looks at the social and emotional aspects of transitioning from the military and its effects on job satisfaction and turnover with a mixed sample. A longitudinal mixed-method study that begins gathering data from the time members exit the military and follows them throughout an extended period would yield more robust information that is more likely to apply to the general veteran population.

The third was that the study failed to ask how long the participants had been employed with their current employer. Research for this study found that 50% of veterans leave their jobs within the first six months and a further 25% a few months later (Ford, 2017). It also failed to learn at what point the “honeymoon” phase of their employment ended. Every organization struggles with retaining valuable employees once the honeymoon turns into the hangover period (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Most turnover occurs after the first few months on the job, the honeymoon to hangover phase (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Learning the technical and social aspects of their job and the organization's culture is vital for any employee to become and remain a functioning business member (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Organizational leaders and supervisors need to socialize new employees with administrative processes and co-workers. This should be an ongoing process that represents the organization and helps new hires adapt, form work relationships, and find their place in the organization (SHRM, 2006).

Finally, the study was limited by the broadness of ethnicity and branch of service distribution. While there were many responses by black and white participants, others were not well represented in this study. For example, only one Latino responded. The military is a melting pot of ethnicities. Because of the under-representation, it is likely that results cannot be generalized to all individuals. Rather, a snapshot of information was collected. The same could be said about the services included in the study. Most were Army or Navy, leaving the other three services (excluding the space force) under-represented.

Recommendations

There are several recommendations for continuing and evolving the current research of this dissertation. The first recommendation would be to repeat the study on a much larger scale.

Although participants were required to self-identify as post-9/11 veterans, there were several areas where the study could be expanded to make it more robust. One example is that the survey did not ask how long they had been separated from the service. Most transition studies concentrate on the first year after discharge. Also, officers were not included in the study. Therefore, a lot of valuable information is missed out on, such as

1. Is the time out of service a factor
2. How many jobs and what types of jobs have they had since separating? Research has found that over 33% of veterans are underemployed and are 15.6% more likely to be underemployed than their civilian counterparts (BER Staff, 2020).
3. Is there a difference between different cohorts (eras) of veterans
4. Is there a difference between enlisted and officer ranks?

The following recommendation would be to conduct this longitudinal study that begins the day the service member completes basic training and continue to survey their attachment perceptions to civilians periodically. This would give researchers a baseline measurement and alert them when feelings of isolation begin to increase or decrease. This would also be especially valuable when dealing with children of military members who then go into the services themselves. This literature mentioned how this subgroup of veterans often felt disconnected and confused by their civilian counterparts, noting that this was often the reason they joined the military (Ahern et al., 2015).

This information would allow transition program creators and facilitators to create more tailored, applicable, and effective programs to help make the transition more seamless and less traumatic. This would also help researchers studying the effectiveness of organizational veteran

support programs use this study as the foundation for a mixed-method or qualitative research to replicate the current study. Either of these methods may clarify the depth of the veteran civilian workforce's retention challenges. Analysis of this kind might provide a better, more robust picture of the emotional, social, and psychological portrait of the veteran-to-civilian experience and highlight key areas that need to be incorporated into support programs

Implications

There has been scant research on the transition process and military-to-civilian employment, which factors in veteran success in the civilian workplace as it relates to retention or other workplace support programs. This research constitutes one of the first studies to focus on the role of social, psychological, and emotional connections that veterans form with their coworkers and other community members and the relationship to job satisfaction or retention. Although the results did not highlight the intended information, the data highlighted an additional research gap.

The main strengths of this study are the timeliness and the recognition and addressed a knowledge gap in the literature concerning work satisfaction among veterans. The survey items on social and job perceptions included a spectrum representative sample of veterans who served during the post 9-11 era. However, the findings only represent a single cohort of US veterans and cannot be generalized to all veterans. Indeed, further research in this area could help to more concretely identify the areas where veterans experience identity strain and the related trauma. It is hoped that researching and understanding how perceptions of loneliness and social isolation affect veterans under 50 could help mental health professionals increase veteran retention rates and job satisfaction. Factors such as military occupation, combat status, work skills, and

financial security were not included or analyzed simultaneously with comparative civilian data. Further study could examine the significance of these kinds of factors and offer more precise information on the differences between civilian social perceptions and work satisfaction.

Conclusion

Spreading awareness and education are critical to improving the quality of life, reducing risk factors, and alleviating perceptions of social exclusion among veterans. This study explored the interaction between job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and social connectedness among enlisted post-9/11 veterans working for civilian organizations. It also revealed that veterans were a unique and underserved population who often experienced identity strain after discharge. A continued focus on veteran transition issues and understanding support programs' impact on their social, emotional, and psychological health and job attitudes are necessary.

The implications of using veteran-centric support programs to improve perceived social inclusion rates, retain employees and increase job satisfaction rates within organizations potentially have many far-reaching impacts. Stronger community bonds among veterans, civilian coworkers, and community members would decrease perceptions of social isolation, thereby decreasing unemployment incidences and reducing the loss of valuable talent and other negative organizational burdens experienced when valuable veteran employees leave their positions.

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Appendix A: Literature Search Keywords

acceptance, assimilation, belonging, community acceptance, community intergration, community relations, civilian-veteran leadership, civilian and veterans at work, civilian-veteran work teams, civilian and veteran relations, civilian intergration, culture, community intergration, cultural conflict, employee attitudes, employee behaviors, employee citizenship, employee conflict, employee emotional conflict, employee emotional needs, employee organizational, employee relationships, employee retention, employee social needs, employee turnover, engagement, environmental health, group acceptance, hiring and retaining veterans, holistic leadership, holisitic organizational health, homecomeing theory, influence, influence of social isolation, intergrative leadership, isolation, internal customer service, job satisfaction, loneliness, loneliness at work, loyalty, mental health, military to civilian, organizational climate, organizational cultural health, organizational cultural support, organizational conflict behaviors, organizational engagement, organizational environmental health, organizational health, organizational loyalty, organizational relationships, organizational stability, organizational turnover, perception, percieved isolation, percieved loneliness, percieved social isolation, psychological outcomes, qulaity social relationships, reintergration, relationship value, retention programs, social acceptance, social cohesion, social connection, social connectedness, social exclusion, social disconnection, social disconnectedness, social inclusion, social intensity, social intensity syndrome, social isolation, social needs, social networks, social perticipation, social relationships, talent management, transition, turnover, turnover intentions, veteran, veteran-civilian conflicts, veteran-civilian work conflicts, veteran employee behaviors, veteran organizational citizenship, veteran organizational turnover, veteran reintergration, veteran

retention, veteran social needs, veteran workforce readiness, work relationships, workforce relations, workforce readiness, workforce diversity, work climate, work conflicts,

Appendix B: Social Provisions Scale

Request Letter: Carolyn Cutrona

Sheree' L. Peters
Sheree.peters@waldenu.edu

January 10, 2020

Carolyn Cutrona
Associate Dean
Dept: Graduate College
Email: ccutrona@iastate.edu
Office: 515-294-5990

Dear Carolyn Cutrona,

I am a doctoral student from Walden University writing my dissertation titled The effect of social disconnect and job attitudes in post-9/11 veterans (working title), under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Derek Rhode. He can be reached at 858-692-6704 or derek.rhode@mail.waldenu.edu. The Walden University IRB Committee Chair can be contacted by email at IRB@mail.waldenu.edu or by mail at Walden University, 100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 900, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55401; and by phone at 855-646-5286.

I would like your permission to use the Social Provisions Scale-10 survey/questionnaire instrument in my research study. To make sure that those attached to the study are aware of my request, I will be sending a copy of this letter to Dr. Cutrona as well. I would like to use and print your survey under the following conditions:

- I will use the surveys only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensation or curriculum development activities.
- I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- I will send a copy of my completed research study to your attention upon completion of the study.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail: sheree.peters@waldenu.edu

Sincerely,

Doctoral student

Copyright Request: Daniel Russel
January 10, 2020

Daniel W. Russell
Dept: Human Development & Family Studies
2222 Osborn Dr
2352 Palmer
Ames, IA 50011-1084
Email: drussell@iastate.edu
Phn: 515.294.4187

Dear Daniel Russell,

I am a doctoral student from Walden University writing my dissertation titled The effect of social disconnect and job attitudes in post-9/11 veterans (working title), under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. Derek Rhode. He can be reached at 858-692-6704 or derek.rhode@mail.waldenu.edu. The Walden University IRB Committee Chair can be contacted by email at IRB@mail.waldenu.edu or by mail at Walden University, 100 Washington Avenue South, Suite 900, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55401; and by phone at 855-646-5286.

I would like your permission to use the Social Provisions Scale-10 survey/questionnaire instrument in my research study. To make sure that those attached to the study are aware of my request, I will be sending a copy of this letter to Dr. Cutrona as well. I would like to use and print your survey under the following conditions:

- I will use the surveys only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensation or curriculum development activities.
- I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- I will send a copy of my completed research study to your attention upon completion of the study.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail: sheree.peters@waldenu.edu

Sincerely,
Doctoral Student

Sheree' L. Peters

Permission to use SPS for study - Message - Mail

[↶ Reply](#) [↶ Reply all](#) [→ Forward](#) [📁 Archive](#) [🗑 Delete](#) [🚩 Set flag](#) [⋮](#)**RE: Permission to use SPS for study****Russell, Daniel W [HD FS]** <drussell@iastate.edu>

1/19/2020 12:05 PM

To: Sheree Peters

You have my permission to use the UCLA Loneliness Scale in your research project.

Daniel W. Russell, PhD
Professor, Department of Human
Development & Family Studies
Iowa State University
Palmer Building
[2222 Osborn Drive](#)
[Ames, IA 5011-1084](#)
[\(515\) 294-4187](tel:(515)294-4187)
Fax: [294-2502](tel:294-2502)

From: Sheree Peters <sheree.peters@waldenu.edu>
Sent: Saturday, January 18, 2020 4:14 PM
To: Cutrona, Carolyn E [G COL] <ccutrona@iastate.edu>
Cc: Russell, Daniel W [HD FS] <drussell@iastate.edu>
Subject: Permission to use SPS for study

Hello,

I am a doctoral student studying the effect of loneliness on veterans at work. I contacted you previously through Facebook and email. I am writing you again from my school account to request permission to use the scale you developed for my study. I have attached a letter requesting permission to this email. If you have any questions please contact me by either phone [812-589-5400](tel:812-589-5400) or email.

Thank you for your consideration,

Permission to use SPS for study - Message - Mail

- ☰ X

↶ Reply ↷ Reply all → Forward 🗳 Archive 🗑 Delete 🚩 Set flag ⋮

To: Sheree Peters

[Save all attachments](#)

Dear Ms. Peters,

You have my permission to use the 10-item Social Provisions Scale.

Best regards,

Carolyn Cutrona

Carolyn E. Cutrona, Ph.D.

Associate Dean

Graduate College

1137 Pearson Hall

Iowa State University

[515-294-5990](tel:515-294-5990)ccutrona@iastate.edu

From: Sheree Peters <sheree.peters@waldenu.edu>**Sent:** Saturday, January 18, 2020 4:14 PM**To:** Cutrona, Carolyn E [G COL] <ccutrona@iastate.edu>**Cc:** Russell, Daniel W [HD FS] <drussell@iastate.edu>**Subject:** Permission to use SPS for study

Hello,

I am a doctoral student studying the effect of loneliness on veterans at work. I contacted you previously through Facebook and email. I am writing you again from my school account to request permission to use the scale you developed for my study. I have attached a letter requesting permission to this email. If you have any questions please contact me by either phone [812-589-5400](tel:812-589-5400) or email ccutrona@iastate.edu.

Social Provisions Scale-10R

Copyright by Daniel Russell and Carolyn Cutrona, 1984

STRONGLY DISAGREEDISAGREEAGREESTRONGLY AGREE

1

2

3

4

Rating

1. There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it. _____
2. I feel that I do not have close personal relationships with other people. _____
3. There is no one I can turn to for guidance in times of stress. _____
4. There are people who enjoy the same social activities that I do. _____
5. I do not think other people respect my skills and abilities. _____
6. If something went wrong, no one would come to my assistance. _____
7. I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being. _____
8. I have relationships where my competence and skills are recognized. _____
9. There is no one who shares my interests and concerns. _____
10. There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems. _____

Scoring:

A score for each social provision is derived such that a high score indicates that the individual is receiving that provision. Items that are asterisked should be reversed before scoring (i.e., 4=1, 3=2, 2=3, 1=4).

1. Guidance: 3*, 10
2. Reassurance of Worth: 5*, 8
3. Social Integration: 4, 9*
4. Attachment: 2*, 7
5. Reliable Alliance: 1, 6*

Appendix C: Job Satisfaction Survey & Turnover Intentions

Copyright Permission located at:

<https://paulspecter.com/assessments/pauls-no-cost-assessments/conditions-for-using-these-assessments/>

Conditions for Using These Assessments

All of the assessments in the [Paul's No Cost Assessments](#) section of paulspecter.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 paul@paulspecter.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 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 name if it is sensitive.
4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., 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: paul@paulspector.com

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, 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	
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5

16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5
				6		

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D: Turnover Intentions Scales

Spector, Dwyer, and Jex 1988 Single-Item

How often have you seriously considered leaving your current job?

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Never | <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Rarely | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite often |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> Extremely often |

Spector, P. E., Dwyer, D. J., & Jex, S. M. (1988). Relation of job stressors to affective, health, and performance outcomes: A comparison of multiple data sources. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 73*(1), 11-19. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.1.11>

Appendix E

Direct message copied from researcher's LinkedIn account.

JAN 5, 2019



Sheree Peters 10:28 PM

reprint permission

I want to use your graphic of Herzberg 2 factor theory of motivation in a paper. Do I have your permission to use it? Here is a reminder of it. I found it online through a google image search.



JAN 9, 2019



KAZAL CHANDRA BARMAN 12:51 PM

Yes of course :) It's my pleasure :)

FEB 12, 2019



Sheree Peters 1:03 PM

thanks so much. Is there an email I can send you a formal permission request to? Also Sorry that I took so long to respond. I have been sick with the actual flu and trying to catch up with class work. Again, thanks.