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Generational Age Differences and Employee Motivation in the Public Sector

Peter C. Akwuole
Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Peter Akwuole

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2017

Abstract

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Motivation is rarely used as a diversity management strategy, and as a result, little academic research explores the relationship between generational age differences and motivation in public sector management. Using Deci's intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory as the foundation, the purpose of this correlational design study was to evaluate the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation in a Maryland government agency. Data were collected through an online survey using the Work Preference Inventory from 35 of the agency's 5585 employees, born between 1946 and 2000. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance with post-hoc tests to assess the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. Findings of the ANOVA revealed that there were no statistically significant associations between the 3 generational cohorts regarding intrinsic or extrinsic motivations suggesting that there are no differences among the 3 generations in terms of preferences. However, an analysis of correlations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for both Baby Boomers and Generation X were strongly positive at $r = .862$ and $.602$ respectively, but strongly negative for Generation Y at $r = -0.856$. One of the social change implications stemming from this study is the recommendation for public organizations to explore a blend of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to attract and enhance the longevity of members of each generational group in the public sector. This provides a more balanced and cost effective approach in sustaining generational diversity in the sector through employee motivation. This will benefit the general public because they could receive efficient services offered with minimal personnel cost.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my late parents, Bernard and Regina Akwuole, for their investment in my early education. They gave me an opportunity they were not fortunate to have. Despite neither of them having the opportunity of a western education, they had the wisdom and foresight to imbibe, and to inculcate in me, the value of education. They believed strongly in my abilities and encouraged me to reach my full potentials.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The importance of motivation and diversity, the two broad concepts addressed in this dissertation, has long been established. Each of them is critical in ensuring organizational success. According to Aamodt (2010), motivation (Aamodt, 2010) is “the force that drives a worker to perform well” (p. 328). While it is true that knowledge, skills and ability (KSA) determine whether an employee can perform a job, Aamodt (2010) argued that it is motivation that determines whether the employee will do the work properly. Gozzard, as cited by Sherman and Bohlander (1992), recognized that the most important resource in any organization is its people and that it is the motivation of these people that makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence. Conversely, unmotivated employees can constitute a constraint on the success and progress of organizations. The tendency is for such employees to show less interest and spend less time on their jobs, produce less in terms of quantity and quality of products and services, avoid the workplace as much as possible, and leave the job at the slightest opportunity (Amabile, 1993). Ultimately, motivation is a factor not only central to an organization’s performance and success, but also to the success of its workforce, both as a group and as individuals (Lockwood, 2010).

Although the relationship between employee motivation and job performance has not been conclusively established empirically, there is a general agreement among organizational psychologists that an increase in employee motivation results in an increase in job performance (Aamodt, 2010; Manzoor, 2011). As Guha (2010) succinctly

asserted, motivation is so crucial that no performance discussion can be complete without it. In other words, employee motivation correlates positively with employee job performance and, by extension, organizational productivity.

Despite its importance and benefits, employee motivation remains a central problem for managers and leaders (Amabile, 1993; Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). Over the years, notable theorists have sought ways to motivate employees effectively (Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012). Despite their strengths, none of the theories provided a comprehensive explanation of motivation (Aamodt, 2010). The theories failed to address adequately the dynamics of the workplace and the key workforce motivational issues. The workforce has become more heterogeneous demographically (Brooke & Tyler, 2010; Johnson, 2009; Salahuddin, 2010; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). This development poses great challenges for leaders and managers of organizations. A major challenge associated with this development has to do with the management of workplace diversity.

It is also yet to be proven empirically that a diverse workforce essentially increases productivity, and this is particularly true in the public sector (Bell, Villado, Lukasik, Belau, & Briggs, 2011; Pitts, 2009; Pitts & Jarry, 2007). In the Society for Human Resource Management's (SHRM's) Workplace Diversity Practices Survey Report, Esen (2005) noted that enormous benefits could be derived from diversity initiatives. For example, Leonard (2011) reported that presenters at a Diversity in Higher Education Conference concluded, based on experience, research, and statistics, that the

most competitive and successful businesses and institutions are those that have adopted diversity as a core value.

Diversity manifests itself in many ways in the workplace. It covers a broad spectrum of human attributes such as gender, age, race, ethnicity, generations, religion, disability, culture, language, marital status, parental status, education, class, sexual orientation, veteran status, national origin, citizenship status, color, and work experience.

This dissertation focused on generational differences because this is the first time organizations have as many as four generations working together and also because fewer academic research studies have been conducted on the topic than most of the other dimensions of diversity (Pitts & Wise, 2010). The study examined the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation. Members of each generational cohort have different characteristics, values, and perceptions of work that arise from the shared experiences of their formative years (Fyock, 2009). Each group arrives to work with its own characteristics and expectations regarding authority and hierarchy, work ethic, work behaviors, and life issues (Fyock, 2009). In addition, each group brings different experiences, perspectives, work styles, and strengths to the workplace (Lockwood, 2009). I attempted to determine how the motivations of employees in the public sector relate to their different generational ages.

Research Background

Between 2004 and 2005, the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) conducted two important surveys on diversity: The 2004 survey on generational differences and the 2005 survey on workplace diversity practices. The generational

differences survey explored both the negative and positive issues associated with managing an intergenerational workforce, recognizing the different characteristics and values of each generation, informed by the differences in their life experiences (Burke, 2004). Similarly, the 2005 workplace diversity practices survey focused on the diversity practices adopted by different organizations. The results of both surveys were striking. The generational differences survey found that having a variety of generational perspectives resulted in better quality of work, and the advantages of an intergenerational workforce far outweigh any disadvantages. The survey concluded that, in spite of the existence of an intergenerational workforce in most workplaces, the occurrence of generational conflict is limited. Furthermore, organizations are reaping the benefits of the diversity resulting from workers of different generations working effectively together and learning from one another (Esen, 2005).

Another important issue raised by the Human Resource Professionals surveyed, and which has received little or no attention, is the need to design benefits packages that meet the needs of multiple generations of workers in the workplace. As Esen (2005) aptly concluded in a survey of workplace diversity practices conducted under the auspices of SHRM, managing a diverse workplace can be challenging. Part of this challenge is the design and implementation of motivational packages and strategies that would meet the needs of a multigenerational workforce.

In this study, I aimed to provide the foundation for tackling this challenge. First, I tried to confirm SHRM's findings that there is a need to design benefits packages that meet the needs of different age cohorts in the workplace, by determining whether the

motivational orientations of these age generations differ. I then proffered potential measures towards achieving this goal.

Statement of the Problem

Diversity has become a strong characteristic of the U.S. labor force. Michaels (2006) said diversity has become so embraced and revered by Americans to the extent that it is difficult to find anyone who is against it. The only difference in people's attitude to diversity (Michaels, 2006) is as it relates to their degrees of enthusiasm about it and ingenuity in pursuing it. Diversity covers such issues as gender, race, ethnicity, disability, religion, culture, language, marital status, parental status, education, class, and work experience. It also includes age and generational age difference.

The impact of diversity on both private and public businesses underscores the need for diversity management. Myers (1999) described diversity management as the steps taken to motivate employees with different demographic identities and backgrounds in ways that promote interpersonal communication and cooperation for a unified effort towards optimizing the organization's performance and success. In the area of human resource management, in particular, it has notable implications for staffing management, employee benefits, and organizational development (Fyock, 2009).

Despite this, researchers in public administration—including public personnel administration—have not addressed diversity issues and management adequately, especially in the area of generational differences. An overview of public administration research on workforce diversity published from 2000 to 2008 (Pitts & Wise, 2010) revealed 89 articles, an average of approximately 11 articles per year. Of this number,

only nine addressed age in the workplace, and only 24 examined diversity empirically at the organizational level (Pitts & Wise, 2010). These statistics support the conclusion by Chugh and Brief, in Brief (2008), that many topics or dimensions of diversity are neglected in the management literature, both private and public. In public administration, generational age difference is one of the dimensions of diversity grossly neglected by researchers.

Earlier, Wise and Tschirhart (2000) suggested that greater attention should be paid to public sector diversity issues. They called for more research in this area of knowledge and practice. Drawing from recent developments in the private sector, the situation does not appear different. A Forbes Insights report by Rizy, Feil, Sniderman, and Egan (2011) titled “Fostering Innovation through a Diverse Workforce” indicated that the majority (54%) of the respondents (executives from large companies around the world) identified gender as a component of workplace diversity where their organizations have made significant progress. Ethnicity/national origin followed with 42% while race/color occupied the third position with 39%. Despite the consensus that significant progress has been made to build and retain diverse workforces, the respondents agreed that disability and age took the first and second positions among the diversity areas needing the most improvement. Sexual orientation was the third. No specific mention was made in the study about generational age differences. The paucity of research and apparent management neglect of generational age differences as a dimension of diversity is a source of concern and the basis for this research.

Age differences have been suggested to correlate with differences in individual motivation. Crawford and Raines (2009) asserted that older and younger workers differ in what motivates them. From a generational viewpoint, Magnuson and Alexander (2008) and Twenge (2010) also asserted that generations are motivated differently. However, as important as motivation is in diversity management, little research was located that examined how public sector employees of different generational ages respond to motivational factors, strategies, and stimuli. No further research was located that specifically examined the association between generational age differences and employee motivation in the public sector since Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) published their article “Generational Comparisons of Public Employee Motivation.”

Guided by the consensus among organizational psychologists, that increased work motivation results in increased job performance, this research I examined the relationship between generational age differences, as a dimension of diversity and employee motivation in the public sector. My goal was to understand how generational age differences and employee motivation are related, as well as the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of public sector employees in the different generational age groups. As stated previously, most theories of motivation cannot address adequately the increasing diversity of the contemporary workplace, especially in terms of generational age differences. Kooij, Jansen, de Lange, and Dikkers (2007) described research on age and motivation as limited and conceptually ambiguous, with little known about what motivates older workers to work and to remain active in the labor market. Kooij, de Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers (2011) explained that modern theories of

work motivation have not shifted their focus away from younger workers or new entrants. Hence, they still emphasize intrinsic rewards related to learning and extrinsic rewards related to pay and promotion.

Nature of the Study

For this research, I used a quantitative approach that was based on the post positivist philosophy. Quantitative research is used when the researcher's intention is objectively to test a theory or theories by examining the relationships among variables (Creswell, 2009). This type of research makes use of surveys and experiments as its strategies of inquiry. Characteristically, as its name suggests, it makes use of quantitative (numeric) data, predetermined approaches, and close-ended questions. It is based on quantitative data and employs statistical procedures and techniques for the purpose of data analysis (Vogt, Gardner, & Haeffele, 2012; Vogt & Johnson, 2011). I used this approach for this research due to its numerous advantages, which I discussed in Chapter 3. It is important to state that the quantitative approach is objective and seeks precise measurement and analysis of target concepts using surveys, questionnaires, and computational techniques for data analysis (Neill, 2007).

This dissertation used the correlational method and the survey design for its data collection. This method uses quantitative or numeric values to describe the trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). Based on the sample results, a generalization or claim can be made about the population. This approach employs questionnaires for data collection.

The use of a correlational research method, such as a survey design, is popular within social science disciplines. Surveys may be the most commonly used research design in the social and behavioral sciences (Vogt et al., 2012). This study examined the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation. Therefore, this design was chosen because of its ability to establish the degree of co-occurrence of the variables being examined or investigated. It is important, however, to note that it does not imply causation. Apart from its usefulness in exploring relationships among variables, correlational research is also relatively simple to design.

The questionnaire that I used in this study has 30 items with close-ended questions adopted wholesale from the Work Preference Inventory (WPI) developed by Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, and Tighe (1994) for assessing workers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations, which is the theoretical framework for this study. The questionnaire was self-administered electronically using SurveyMonkey, which is widely embraced as a convenient, cost effective, and expeditious online survey tool (Buchanan & Hvizdak, 2009). The online survey method of data collection has many advantages (Bernard, 2013). It is simple to administer and analyze. It saves time and cost. Most importantly, it eliminates the problem of accessibility to respondents in remote or unsafe areas, and ensures uniformity of questions received by all respondents (Vogt et al., 2012). Given that the respondents possess some functional level of education of at least high school diploma or GED, they found the questionnaire easy to complete.

I presented the data from the survey in the form of distribution of scores. The data were analyzed by using the SPSS software. The statistical tools employed for the analysis

are standard deviation (SD), the correlation coefficient, *t*-tests, and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The standard deviation described the variation in the distribution of group scores, while the correlation coefficient described how pairs of the distributions of scores are related to each other thereby measuring the association between the variables (Vogt, 2007). These two statistics are so important that they can hardly be ignored in any meaningful quantitative study. In fact, they are considered to be the basis foundation on which much of statistics is built (Vogt, 2007). The *t*-tests compared the scores of different pairs of groups on intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. In addition, because the dissertation involved two dependent variables (intrinsic and extrinsic motivations), a series of ANOVAs were conducted to compare the mean scores of the three groups. Despite the benefit of robustness associated with MANOVA, which is , by design, meant for the simultaneous study of two or more related independent variables (Vogt & Johnson, 2011), conducting a series of ANOVAs was preferred instead. This is the option many researchers choose, considering the complexity of MANOVA procedures (Pallant, 2013), and the stringent condition that a minimum sample size of 20 is required in each cell for a study to benefit from the robustness of MANOVA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

The staff of the Department of Human Resources (DHR), the third largest state agency in the State of Maryland Personnel Management System (SPMS), constituted the population for this research. The staff population of this agency was large enough to provide adequate samples from each generational age group covered in this study. As of June 30, 2015, the department had 5,868 full-time employees (Department of Budget and Management [DBM], 2016). I used the stratified sampling technique, a form of

probability sampling, in drawing the sample. This sampling technique (Vogt, Gardner, & Haefele, 2012) begins by dividing the population into groups or subpopulations called strata. The strata are usually based on key independent variables such as ethnicity, race, gender, age, generational grouping, educational attainment, social class, and other demographic characteristics from which random samples are drawn (Bernard, 2013).

The outstanding commitment of the agency to workplace diversity made it suitable for this research. As a diversity sensitive organization, the department recognizes that the differences and similarities among its employees, management, and stakeholders, offer a wealth of possibilities and opportunities. The organization believes that a workforce rich in diversity allows the department to benefit from the many different racial, ethnic, religious, educational, cultural, generational, and social backgrounds the employees possess (DHR, 2010). In turn, the benefit of a diverse workforce enhances the agency's ability to provide quality service to its customers and opportunities to its employees (DHR, 2010). The agency's commitment to diversity is captured in its organizational principles and values. One of its cardinal principles is to provide assistance to people while honoring individual and group differences; and, as a core principle, it values every one of its employees, management, clients, and stakeholders (DHR, 2010). All local branches (aka locals) of the department embrace this commitment. In its annual report for the 2009 fiscal year, the Charles County Department of Social Sciences, one of the department's local agencies, reemphasized that its members of staff and other stakeholders respect the value, confidentiality, dignity, and differences of both their customers and themselves.

The agency's Office of Human Resource Development and Training (HRDT) provides training in workplace diversity for the employees while the Office of Employment and Program Equity (OEPE) is responsible for its employment diversity initiatives. The office oversees several distinct but reinforcing programs. They include the Minority Business Enterprises (MBE), Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), and Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) programs. This office (OEPE) also sponsors and co-sponsors programs and activities that are dedicated to understanding, appreciating and promoting a diverse workforce. Through one of its units, the Maryland Office of Refugees and Asylees (MORA), the agency provides support and services that help federally recognized refugees and political asylees of different nationalities, cultures, languages, and religious backgrounds to quicken and smoothen their integration into the American society. Some of MORA's programs designed to ease the socio-economic integration of its clients into the American Society are the Refugee Transitional Cash Assistance (RTCA), Initial Refugee Health Screening (IRHS), Employment Assistance (EA), English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), and Language Interpretation Program (LIP).

The workplace, whether in the public or private sector, currently comprises four different generations (Eisner, 2005; Guha, 2010; Haynes, 2011). So far, the workplace is one of the most diverse social structures in contemporary society in terms of generational age groups, culture, values, and other demographic characteristics (Guha, 2010).

According to Burke (2004), while this mixing of generations adds valuable diversity to

the workforce, it can also contribute to conflicts and complications as workers from different generations try to work together.

The four generations co-existing in the workplace today and the differences among them are presented in Chapter 2 as part of the literature review. The Veterans, born before 1946, are the first of the four generations, followed by the baby boomers, born between 1946 and 1964. Generation X, born between 1965 and 1980, comes immediately after the baby boomers, while Generation Y, the fourth of the generations, is situated between 1981 and 2000.

In 2004, a survey on generational differences conducted by SHRM indicated that, on average, Veterans constituted approximately 10% of the workforce while 44% were baby boomers. Generation X made up 34% and 12% were Generation Y (Burke, 2004). As of the first quarter of 2009, the percentages of baby boomers and Generation Xers remained at 44% and 34%, respectively, while the number of Veterans dropped to 8% and Nexters increased to 14% (Lockwood, 2009). Evidently, the Nexters are replacing the Veterans, who now constitute the smallest percentage of the workforce (Crampton & Hodge, 2011). However, there are strong indications that many boomers were compelled to postpone their retirement due to the recent economic downturn. Because few members of the Veterans' generation are in the workplace today, the dissertation was based on the three generations with large representations in the workplace, namely, the baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. Table 1 shows the estimated workforce participation for each generation in the year 2011.

Table 1

U.S. Estimated Workforce Composition in 2011

<i>Generation</i>	<i>Birth Years</i>	<i>Current Ages (As of 2011)</i>	<i>Est. Workforce Participation in 2011</i>
Veterans	1922 - 1945	66 - 89	5% (7M)
baby boomers	1946 - 1964	47 - 65	38% (60M)
Generation X	1965 - 1980	31 - 46	32% (51M)
Generation Y	1981 - 2000	11 - 30	25% (40M)

Source: Johnson, J. H., Jr. (2011). *Managing and leading in the multigenerational workplace*. Unpublished manuscript. Kenan-Flagler Business School, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA.

Research Questions

Because it is not, at present, feasible to design motivational strategies capable of satisfying each individual's values, the study of employees' motivational preferences or orientations based on identified groupings that share common values provides a useful beginning towards a shift from traditionally motivational strategies that do not consider individual and group differences. Fyock (2009) explained that each generation or age cohort has certain values and perceptions of work that are common among its members arising from the shared experiences of their formative years. This means that each group is different and brings its own expectations regarding authority/hierarchy, work ethic, work behaviors, and life issues (Fyock, 2009; Stanley, 2010).

Based on the above, I sought to answer the broad question: Do generational age differences matter in employee motivation? To investigate the relationship between generational age (independent variable) and motivation (dependent variable), I developed the following research sub-questions.

1. Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector? In other words:
 - (a) Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of baby boomers in the public sector?
 - (b) Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X in the public sector?
 - (c) Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y in the public sector?
2. Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?
3. Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were developed based on the research questions (RQs) listed above and the identified characteristics and beliefs associated with each of the generational age cohorts. The hypotheses provided testable answers to the research questions.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?

H₀1a: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H_a1a: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H₀1b: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1b: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H₀1c: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1c: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

RQ2: Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

RQ3: Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

H₀3a: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H_a3a: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H₀3b: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H_a3b: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation Y.

H₀3c: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_a3c: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H₀3d: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_a3d: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine and understand the relationship between employee motivation and generational age differences. Employee motivation was the dependent variable and generational age was the independent variable. Understanding this relationship is important in order to realize the goal of diversity management. This goal is to enable all employees to attain their full potential and contribute to the success of the organization regardless of their ethnicity, age (including generational age), gender, sexual orientation, or physical ability.

The fact that this is the first time in history (Fraser-Beekman & Morris, 2011) that individuals from four different generations coexist in the workplace made this study not only important but also necessary. As Dewhurst, Guthridge, and Mohr (2009) reported, many organizations all over the world are experiencing a steady decline in employee motivation, coupled with the fact that many organizations are rethinking and cutting back on their financial incentive programs (an extrinsic motivator) as a result of the recent economic crisis. A study of this nature is also necessary as a response to the call by Wise and Tschirhart (2000) for increased attention and research on public sector diversity issues.

Theoretical Framework

The study was based on the framework of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Scholars have conducted a great deal of research on the subject of motivation. Due to its complexity, both in theory and practice, motivation remains a central problem for leaders and managers (Amabile, 1993). The complexity of motivation renders most of the existing theories either inadequate or irrelevant for purposes of practical application. Moreover, researchers believe that many of the theories are difficult to test (Pynes, 2009).

The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory, first propounded by Deci (1971), provided a guiding framework for this study. This theory is based on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation. Intrinsic motivation represents the natural desire or propensity for individuals to engage in activities that are of interest to them (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Thus, an intrinsically motivated behavior is performed out of interest and requires no reward other than the spontaneous experience and enjoyment that accompany it (Deci, 1971). On the other hand, extrinsically motivated behaviors are performed for the external rewards or consequences that accrue from their performance (Deci, 1971).

According to Deci (1971), an individual's intrinsic motivation to engage in an interesting activity decreases following the introduction of an incentive—extrinsic motivation—to reward the person for doing the activity. In other words, extrinsic motivation has an undermining effect on intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971). The investigation leading to this conclusion by Deci (1971) was first conducted with college students who were offered monetary rewards for participating in an academic activity. Since then, other researchers,

including Amabile (1993), have conducted numerous experiments supporting or opposing Deci's (1971) theory. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985), as well as Lepper and Greene (1978), suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are diametrically opposite.

Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999) opined that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations cannot mix well to produce a positive result. Rather the introduction of extrinsic motivation (especially tangible rewards) has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). In moderating the theory, Amabile (1993) argued in favor of a positive interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. She contended that, while it is true "extrinsic motivation can work in opposition to intrinsic motivation, it can also have a reinforcing effect" (Amabile, 1993, p. 187). Individuals, as Amabile (1993) explained, are "intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work, and extrinsically motivated when they engage in the work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself" (p. 188).

The theory of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation provides a strong foundation for studying the relationship between motivation and generational age differences. Scholars from different disciplines have used the theory to study human behavior. The theory is used in psychology, education, law, administration and management, among others. The theory continues to be relevant in social and behavioral research, and thus, form the framework for this dissertation.

Definition of Terms

Age Generation

A generation is an exclusive group of people that share birth years, age, location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages (Tolbize, 2008). Researchers differ on the years that define each age generation. For example, as shown in Table 2, SHRM (2005) and Ahlrichs (2007) differ in their descriptions of the different age cohorts.

Table 2

Examples of Variations in Time Frames Ascribed to Generational Age Cohorts.

<i>Age Cohorts</i>	<i>Age Bracket as ascribed by SHRM</i>	<i>Age Bracket as ascribed by Ahlrichs</i>
Veterans	Born before 1945 (WWII)	Born before 1946
baby boomers	Born between 1945 & 1964	Born between 1946 & 1964
Generation X	Born between 1965 & 1980	Born between 1965 & 1977
Generation Y	Born between 1980 & 2000	Born between 1978 & 1987
Generation Z	N/A	Born between 1988 & 2001

The discrepancy in periods associated with different generational age groups widens more with Leonard's (2010) description. The Veterans, according to him, were born 1920 – 1942, baby boomers 1943 – 1960, and Gen X born 1961 – 1981. Bolton's (2010) description of generational cohorts varies only slightly from the way SHRM describes them. Bolton (2010) described Veterans as seniors born between 1900 and 1945, baby boomers (1946 – 1964), Generation X (1965 – 1980), and Generation Y

(1981 – 2000). In addition to the variations in the beginning and end dates ascribed to these generations, they (generations) have been given different names by different scholars and practitioners. The Veterans, for example, are also called traditionalists, silents, or greatest generation, and Generation Y is known as echo boomers, millennials, internet generation, or nexters (Eisner, 2005).

For the purpose of this dissertation, the categorization by Bolton (2010) was adopted for its specificity and lack of time overlaps. Also for consistency in nomenclature, the names Veterans, baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y were used for the four generations namely, those born between 1900 – 1945, 1946 – 1964, 1965 – 1980, and 1981 – 2000 who are mostly found in the workplace today.

Workplace Diversity

For the purpose of this research, *workplace diversity* is adopted as broadly defined by SHRM and reported by Esen (2005), being an inclusive corporate culture that strives to respect variations in employee personality, work style, age, ethnicity, gender, religion, socioeconomics, education, and other dimensions in the workplace.

Motivational Orientation

Motivational orientation refers to the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action. It explains the reason for an action.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

This study adopted the definitions offered by Amabile (1993) that intrinsic motivation is derived when individuals seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work, and extrinsic motivation is derived

when they engage in the work to be able to achieve other goals different from the work itself.

Assumptions

By grouping respondents based on their age generations, this study ignores the shortcomings of stereotyping; a process that only considers perceived similarities, and not individual differences, in classifying group members (Johnson, 2009). It is likely that one or two respondents might have values and characteristics different from others in the same age cohort. As the literature review will reveal, stereotyping is one of the barriers to embracing diversity. For the purpose of this research, stereotyping was assumed not to exist among the study participants. However, if it exists, it was assumed not to have any significant negative impact on the outcome of the research.

As noted previously, diversity is a multifaceted concept, and, to a varying degree, each of the dimensions of diversity can be associated with different motivational orientation. Everyone characteristically manifests more than one dimension of diversity, such as age, gender, race, sexual orientation, and religion. The study did not address these differences and preferences within generational groups. It was assumed that the results from this study can be generalized.

Limitations and Delimitations

Like other personally funded research, the first limitation to this study was inadequacy of time, funding, and other material resources. As a result, the number of respondents was restricted to 107. Although this number was adequate to support a generalization of the research findings to the research population, there was no doubt

that, as a quantitative research, the validity of these findings would have been enhanced with a larger sample size and more respondents. The paucity of literature that was located on the relationship between employee age and work motivation further stretched the effort and time required to complete this study. In terms of methodology, the correlational design used for this research does not establish a causal relationship. There were also constraints associated with the use of the SPSS for the data analysis. I am a first-time user of this software for research purposes. As Green and Salkind (2008) acknowledged, the SPSS software is easy for experienced users, but complex for many students and first-time users. It takes time to become proficient in SPSS skills. As delimitation, the research population for the study was comprised of only employees from one Maryland State department. Federal and local public service employees were not included in the population.

Ethical Issues

The three major issues usually covered in most ethical guidelines (Sue & Ritter, 2012), namely, informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, and interpretation and reporting of results were addressed in this research. The introductory section of the questionnaire introduced the researcher to the participants. The section also informed participants about the general nature of the survey, how they were selected to participate in the study, how the data were used, and the average length of time required to complete the questionnaire, and the potential risks of participating in the research (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

The participants' confidentiality was protected by ensuring that neither their participation nor the information they provided were disclosed to third parties. Because this research was about cohorts, the results were also presented to reflect participants as group members and not as individuals. This way, the report did not lead to the identification of individual participants (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

The measures taken to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality, and the institutional approvals received to conduct the study, were disclosed. Participants were also informed that they were not entitled to receive any compensation or special benefits for participating in the research. Participants were advised to read the consent form as part of the questionnaire, and those who proceeded to complete the questionnaire were considered to have given their consent to participate in the study. The consent form further explained to participants the voluntary nature of the study, the risks and benefits of participation, and the arrangements for protecting participants' privacy.

Minors or members of any other vulnerable group did not participate in the research. In addition, all documents consulted for the purpose of the study, whether print or electronic, were duly acknowledged and referenced to avoid the issue of plagiarism. Written permission was obtained to use copyrighted publications such as books, journal articles, published articles, and survey instruments.

Significance of the Study

This dissertation focused on determining the relationship of generations in the workplace with what motivates them. As stated earlier, there is considerable research literature on the subject of motivation, but because of its complexity, most of the theories are

either inadequate or irrelevant for purposes of practical application in the contemporary workplace. For example, the issue of workplace diversity has received little or no attention in either formulating motivation theories or designing motivational strategies for practical application. Similarly, as previously stated, research on workplace diversity has not kept pace with its rapidly increasing awareness and importance in contemporary organizational management. Still, Liebowitz (2009) advised cautiously that today's organizations must be concerned about tomorrow's workforce.

From a generational viewpoint, organizations will not be able to keep members of each cohort motivated and productive unless they show that they understand that the generations are motivated differently (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). Liebowitz (2009) also suggested that organizations must create enabling environments that promote cross-generational knowledge flows in order to take advantage of the changing demographics in the workplace. Given these necessities for organizational success and the paucity of research and literature on the interplay of generational age differences and employee motivation, this study contributed to the body of knowledge and practice in this area. This research will help public sector managers and leaders, especially human resource managers, to understand the workforce and their motivational orientations. In particular, the results of this study will help to redirect attention and emphasis away from the age-long and inadequate practices and strategies that have failed practically and effectively to address the complex issue of motivation in a diverse work environment.

The recent global economic downturn provides an opportunity for managers to begin to rethink their approaches to, and assumptions about, employee motivation for

improved productivity. It is anticipated that the results of this study will help to generate a new understanding of, and approach to workplace motivation to give managers, leaders, human resource practitioners, and administrators a new tool to effectively motivate and manage their employees for improved productivity, job satisfaction, and job retention. In general, research on motivation continues to be relevant and crucial because it has always been (Amabile, 1993; Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009), and will for a long time be a challenge for leaders and managers, and of interest to researchers. Further, because work motivation is not stable, it is more or less driven by organizational changes and trends (Amabile, 1993), including changes in workplace diversity. The research findings would be useful to public sector employers in designing appropriate strategies and policies for motivating their employees. It will also guide them in succession planning as baby boomers gradually retire from public service. These factors summarize the value of this study.

Social Change Implications

One of the reasons for this study was to contribute positively to social change. Positive social change is a “deliberate process of creating and applying ideas, strategies, and actions to promote the worth, dignity, and development of individuals, communities, organizations, institutions, cultures, and societies” (*Walden University Student Handbook*, 2011, p. 8). The implications for social change anticipated from this research include:

1. Better understanding of how generational age differences relate to workplace motivation in order to develop effective motivational strategies to harness each

employee's potential for improved productivity and quality of services, which will in turn improve public service.

2. Improvement in overall job satisfaction resulting in improved health and quality of life for employees. Schleifer and Okogbaa, cited by Aamodt (2010), observed that properly designed incentive systems induce improved performance. When not properly designed, however, incentive systems can have negative results such as increased stress and decreased health and safety.
3. Reduction in the cost of providing medical coverage to employees, making more funds available for other programs that could contribute to the provision of better services to the public such as staff development and training.
4. Improved productivity through effective people management and which, in turn, leads to overall improvement in the economy and wellbeing of the society.
5. Positive impact on all strata of the society at the individual, family, organizational, and national levels by helping to shape contemporary personnel policies as part of public policy, described by Cochran, Mayer, Carr, and Cayer (2009) as the collectivity of government activities and the objectives they are meant to achieve.

Ultimately, it will advance Walden University's mission of effecting positive social change, defined as a "commitment to improving human and social condition by creating and applying ideas, strategies and actions to promote the worth, dignity and development of society" (*Walden University Student Handbook*, 2011, p. 8).

Summary

This chapter introduced the research topic, the background, and statement of the problem, nature of the study, research questions and hypotheses, the purpose of the study, theoretical framework, and significance of the study. The chapter demonstrated that it is an auspicious time now to conduct a research that focuses on workplace diversity and employee motivation. The chapter highlighted the importance of such research at a time when the US workforce is becoming increasingly diverse with its attendant challenges for organizational leaders and managers, compounded by the paucity of research in this area of management.

Related literature on motivation, diversity, and generational age differences as a component of diversity are reviewed in Chapter 2, to build a foundation for the research. Chapter 3 is devoted to explaining the methodology and procedures for this research study, including characteristics and choice of the research population, the sample and sample strategies, as well as data collection and analysis. The results of the study are presented in Chapter 4 beginning with the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data. Finally, the study is concluded in Chapter 5 with discussions highlighting the summary and interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, implications of the study for positive social change, and recommendations for both academic and practical application.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In this study, I examined the relationship between employee motivation and generational age differences, which is a dimension of diversity. The purpose of this chapter is to review existing literature on these concepts based on previous related studies and to provide a summary of the foundation upon which this research was built. In this chapter, the importance of the key concepts in this study is further discussed in the context of organizational leadership and management. The gap this research is intended to fill is also identified. In addition, the research itself is put into proper perspective as a distinct, timely, invaluable, and fresh addition to the existing body of knowledge in this area of scholarship.

Before the literature review itself, I will revisit the theoretical perspective, which provided guidance for this study. The first segment of the literature review deals with motivation theory. This is followed by theories of diversity, with particular emphasis on generational age differences.

Theoretical Framework

The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory, first propounded by Deci (1971), provided a guiding framework for this study. This theory is based on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation. Intrinsic motivation represents the natural desire or propensity for individuals to engage in activities that are of interest to them (Rogstadius et al., 2011; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; Twenge et al., 2010). Thus, intrinsically motivated behaviors are performed out of interest and do not require any reward other than the spontaneous experience and enjoyment that accompany them (Deci,

1971). On the other hand, extrinsically motivated behaviors are performed for the external rewards or consequences that accrue from their performance (Deci, 1971). According to Deci (1971), an individual's intrinsic motivation to engage in an interesting activity decreases following the introduction of an incentive—extrinsic motivation—to reward the person for doing the activity. The investigation leading to this conclusion by Deci (1971) was first conducted with college students who were offered monetary rewards for participating in an academic activity. Since then, other researchers, including Amabile (1993) have conducted numerous experiments on this issue. The results of these experiments both supported and refuted Deci's (1971) theory. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985), as well as Lepper and Greene (1978), suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are diametrically opposed.

In addition, Deci et al. (1999) opined that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations cannot mix well to produce a positive result, but rather, the introduction of extrinsic motivation (especially tangible rewards) has a negative effect on intrinsic motivation. Deci et al. (1999) reached this conclusion after reviewing the effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation reported in 128 experiments conducted by different researchers. The reason, Deci et al. (1999) contended, is that the introduction of rewards undermines individuals' ability to take the responsibility for motivating or regulating themselves.

In modifying the theory, Amabile (1993) argued in favor of a positive interaction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. She contended that, while it is true “extrinsic motivation can work in opposition to intrinsic motivation, it can also have a reinforcing effect” (Amabile, 1993, p. 187). Individuals, as Amabile (1993) explained, are

“intrinsically motivated when they seek enjoyment, interest, satisfaction of curiosity, self-expression, or personal challenge in the work; and extrinsically motivated when they engage in the work in order to obtain some goal that is apart from the work itself” (p. 188). The theory of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation provides a strong foundation for studying the relationship between motivation and generational age differences. Scholars have used the theory for studies in different disciplines such as education, organizational psychology, management, and public administration.

Motivation

More than 5 decades ago, Ryan and Smith (1954) argued that motivation is the central problem in organizations that needs to be addressed by industrial psychologists. Bateman and Crant (n.d.) similarly described motivation as the heart of the field of organizational behavior. These assertions are still relevant and valid today (Amabile, 1993; Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009). They point to the importance of motivation in ensuring the success of any organization. In addition to the definitions already presented in Chapter 1, it is important at this point to recognize the simplicity and relevance of the definition of motivation as the “desire within a person causing that person to act” (Pynes, 2009, p. 218). Thus, motivation is the energy or drive that propels people to action and leads them to their goals (Singh & Tiwari, 2011).

Motivation is a multidisciplinary concept. It can be used in different contexts and disciplines, including public policy and administration. Regardless of the context in which the concept is used, motivation is not the same as job satisfaction or employee morale. A brief clarification on how motivation differs from these two concepts follows.

Motivation and Job Satisfaction

The concepts of motivation and job satisfaction are related, but not the same (Aziri, 2011). Both of them have an impact on an employee's performance (Singh & Tiwari, 2011). An individual can have a motive for accepting or doing a job, but may not necessarily derive satisfaction from the job. Job satisfaction occurs when the nature of work and the rewards derived from the work match the motivational needs of the employee (Srinivasan, 2008). Job satisfaction has been described as an individual's attitude and feelings about his or her work environment (Aziri, 2011; Robbins, Judge, & Vohra, 2012). Attitude itself is based on how an individual perceives one or a combination of variables. The variables (Aziri, 2011; SHRM, 2011) include (a) leadership, (b) opportunities for growth, (c) organization policies and procedures, (d) organization's commitment to diverse and inclusive workplace, (e) working conditions, (f) co-workers, (g) supervisor-subordinate relationships, (h) compensations, and (i) benefits. Hence, SHRM (2011) summarized that job satisfaction simply refers to how employees feel about their compensation, benefits, work environment, career development, and relationship with management.

An investigation of the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction by Singh and Tiwari (2011) revealed that there is a positive correlation between the two concepts. Motivation (Singh & Tiwari, 2011) increases with an increase in job satisfaction and vice-versa (Singh & Tiwari, 2011). A detailed discussion of the concept of job satisfaction, beyond this clarification, is outside the scope and purpose of this study.

Motivation and Employee Morale

Another concept closely related to motivation, and worthy of distinction, is morale. Employee morale is a reflection of how one feels about his or her job (Behm, 2009). In the same context, Bowles and Cooper (2009) described it as a general psychological state of well-being. Employee morale (Michigan Chronicle, 2013) is a composite concept, involving the feelings, sentiments, and attitudes of individuals and groups towards their work and other work related issues, such as their work environment, managers, and the organization. It encompasses other job related concepts, such as intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, work meaningfulness, organizational commitment, and work pride (Behm, 2009). Often, these related concepts are used as proxies for morale (Bowles & Cooper, 2009).

Employee motivation and morale are positively related, with the latter as a function of the former (Myeni, 2010). A high level of motivation results in a high level of morale (Myeni, 2010). Organizations strive to maintain a high level of morale among their employees, because it is a significant contributor to high productivity, employee retention, organizational efficiency, and competitiveness (Akintayo, 2012; Bowles & Cooper, 2009; Millett, 2010). Given the relationship between employee motivation and morale, Denka (2009) posited that a motivated workforce has a direct impact on the productivity and profitability of an organization. The concept of motivation, one of the two conceptual underpinnings of this study, will now be discussed in detail, beginning with the categorization of motivation and motivational factors.

Categories of Motivation

Motivation factors can be classified in different ways. For example, Matuziene and Gaidamaviciene (2009) grouped the factors into four categories: economic, juridical, psychological, and philosophical. Economic factors of motivation, they stated, include wages, premiums, and bonuses, while factors such as working hours, relaxation time, entitlement to holidays, and job safety instructions belong to the juridical category. Examples of psychological factors are work conditions, moral inducement, in-service training, and career. Involvement of employees in decision-making, communication, and feedback belong to the philosophical category of factors of motivation.

Aamodt (2010) noted that psychologists have since postulated that individuals vary in their predisposition to motivation. Explaining the reason for this difference in employees' predisposition to motivation has been a challenge to motivation theorists. Based on the understanding that motivation is what initiates, directs, and sustains human behavior over time, it has been suggested (SHRM, 2002) that motivation can best be understood by examining the three underlying principles of human behavior. The three principles are:

1. All human behaviors are caused, meaning that there is a reason for every human behavior. People have reasons for doing what they do.
2. All human behaviors are directed toward achieving certain goals. Behavior is not random, because people do what they do in order to accomplish something.

3. Each person is unique because of differences in heredity and environment. This principle recognizes that no two people are the same; therefore, no two people have exactly the same characteristics (SHRM, 2002).

Classical and Modern Theories of Motivation

This study posits that employees' needs and values are central in accounting for the discrepancy in employees' motivation. It is also the thesis of this study that these needs, values, and wants vary according to generational age differences among employees. Out of the large number of motivational theories (both classical and modern), the three distinguishing theories (Aamodt, 2010) that focused on employees' needs and values are Maslow's (1943) needs hierarchy, ERG theory propounded by Clayton Alderfer (1969), and the two-factor theory by Herzberg (1959).

Although this study was anchored on the intrinsic and extrinsic theory of motivation, I found it helpful to review the three theories that focus on employees' needs and values. A review of these theories will reveal their dovetailed relationship and relevance in the study and understanding of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Maslow's theory of motivation. Hardly any discussion on motivation can be complete without reference to Abraham Maslow's motivation theory. Maslow (1943) placed human needs in a hierarchical order, starting from basic needs and moving to safety needs, then to social, ego, and self-actualization needs. Hence, the theory is popularly known as Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Essentially, Maslow postulated that motivation is a fluid concept, which varies according to an individual's needs and the satisfaction of these needs at any point in time. In a hierarchical order, Maslow believed

that an individual's lower needs must be satisfied before the person can be concerned with the higher needs (Aamodt, 2010).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory of motivation is usually represented graphically by a triangle with the basic physical needs at the base, as shown in Figure 1 below.

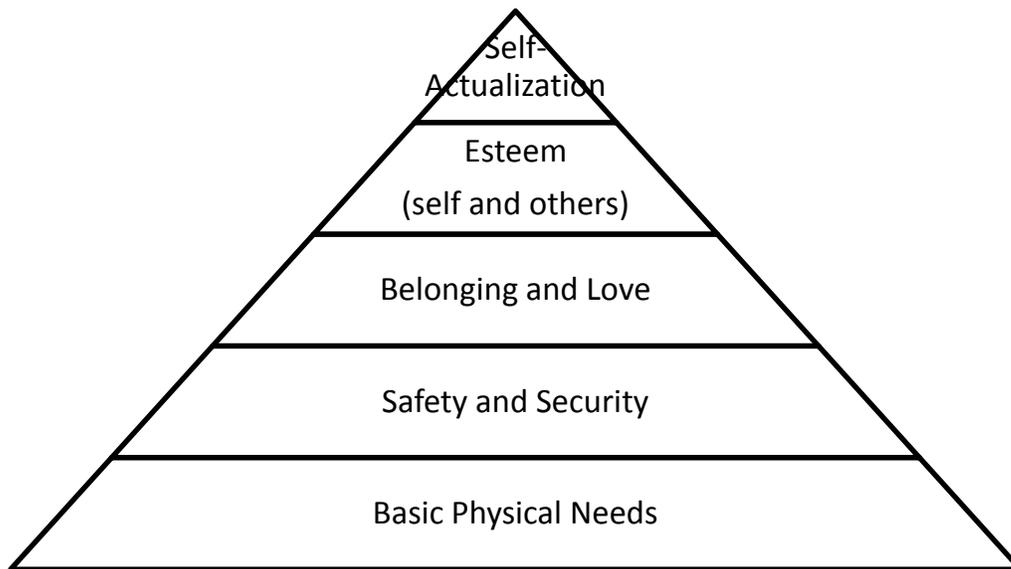


Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Adopted from "Adult Learning and Motivation" in Module Three: Human Resource Development. The SHRM Learning System. The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM, 2002), p. 28.

The lowest of these needs, according to Maslow's theory, are the basic needs such as food, air, water, and shelter. For the purpose of this study, these basic needs have been referred to, as the biological existence, or life sustainability needs. Next in the hierarchy are the safety needs. When people are able to afford the necessities they need to sustain life, they realize that life is precious and needs to be protected. At that point, they will be motivated by any job that can satisfy their safety needs. These safety needs can be either

psychological (job security) or physical, such as a safe work environment (Aamodt, 2010).

An employee begins to crave social needs after his/her basic and safety needs have been met. Social needs include the opportunity to interact and socialize with co-workers, create friendships, and experience a sense of belonging and acceptance. Closely related to social needs are ego needs, the second to the last in the hierarchy of needs. Ego needs refer to the needs for recognition and success. At this level, individuals crave to distinguish themselves among their contemporaries, in their groups, and in the organization. They want to be recognized and to know that they are important. They want to be associated with success, either in their individual capacities or as members of the organization. In this context, ego means self-worth or self-esteem. Ego needs (Aamodt, 2010) can be satisfied through praise, awards, promotions, salary increases, publicity, etc. The last (fifth) level in Maslow's hierarchy of needs is self-actualization needs. This is the level at which employees seek opportunities to reach their full potential. In this ordered sequence, Maslow's theory posited, as its central theme, that unsatisfied needs motivate until they are fulfilled.

ERG theory of motivation. The ERG theory of motivation, propounded by Clayton Alderfer in 1969, is an offshoot of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory of motivation. Like Maslow, Alderfer recognized that employees have various needs that must be satisfied in order to get them motivated in their jobs. Rather than the 5-level hierarchy of needs propounded by Maslow, Alderfer (1969) settled on three categories he called the existence, relatedness, and growth needs.

An individual's existence needs comprise his/her physiological (basic material necessities) and physical safety needs. Relatedness needs include an individual's desire and thirst for positive interpersonal relationships, whether at the personal or official levels. It also includes the desire for recognition and fame. This category of needs captures elements of Maslow's social needs and the external components of the esteem needs. The growth needs include higher-level aspirations, such as self-development, personal growth, and advancement. Included in this category are Maslow's self-actualization needs and the intrinsic component of the esteem needs.

Another shift by Alderfer (1969) away from Maslow's (1943) propositions is the order in which these needs must be satisfied to motivate employees. Alderfer's ERG theory recognizes that more than one of an individual's needs may be operational at any given time. Moreover, the significance of the three categories of needs may vary for an individual, and in some cases, one or more levels may be skipped. Also, depending on the intervening variables such as organizational policy and the nature of job, a higher-level need may not be seen as more important once a lower-level need has been satisfied (Aamodt, 2010). Human needs (Srinivasan, 2008) are parallel rather hierarchical. Maslow's theory, in contrast, suggests that the satisfaction of these needs follows an ordered hierarchy, such that a lower-level need must be relatively satisfied in order for a higher-level need to emerge or serve as a motivator (SHRM, 2002). In other words, the satisfaction of a lower-level need serves as a pre-condition for a higher-level need, although a 100-percent satisfaction of one need is not necessary before the next one becomes an important determinant of behavior (Myers, 1999). The estimated percentages

at which the average person feels satisfied in any of the five levels of human needs are 85 percent for physiological needs, 70 percent for safety needs, 50 percent for love needs, 40 percent for self-esteem needs, and 10 percent for self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1954).

While Maslow's insistence on the ordered hierarchy of needs tends to weaken the theory, a major strength of the theory is its ability to recognize and identify individual needs for purposes of motivating behavior (SHRM, 2002). It is reputed (Myers, 1999; Robbins et al., 2012) as the best-known content theory of motivation. Hays and Reeves (1989) described Maslow as the most widely read and quoted need theorist. However, its critics argue that the theory is not based on empirical research findings, but rather on Maslow's conclusions from his observations of the coping skills of individuals who he helped with difficulties in their personal lives (Latham, 2011; Robbins et al., 2012). Despite these criticisms, the theory remains popular among scholars and practitioners, because it is easy to understand, to explain, and to use (Mustafa, 1992; Robbins et al., 2012).

Herzberg's two-factor theory. Frederick Herzberg's theory of motivation is also rooted in the need theory (Yang & Guy, 2006). Instead of the five and three categories of motivational factors, as in the case of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Alderfer's ERG theories respectively, Herzberg divided employee motivation into two factors. He linked work motivation to such factors as the nature of the job itself, a sense of achievement, challenging work, and the opportunity to use and develop skills (Robbins et al., 2012; Yang & Guy, 2006). The first category of factors termed motivation factors, include, the

work itself, responsibility, achievement, recognition, and advancement. The second category, the hygiene factors (hygiene needs or maintenance factors), include salary/remunerations, work conditions, security, personal life, relationship with supervisor and subordinates, policies, status, etc. The examples provided by Aamodt (2010), as shown in Table 3, help to understand the distinction between Herzberg's motivation and hygiene factors.

Table 3

Examples of motivation and hygiene factors (Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory)

Hygiene Factors	Motivators
Pay	Responsibility
Security	Growth
Coworkers	Challenge
Working conditions	Stimulation
Company policy	Independence
Work schedule	Variety
Supervisors	Achievement
	Control
	Interesting work

Source: Aamodt, M. G. (2010). *Industrial/Organizational Psychology: An Applied Approach* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, p. 337.

The central argument advanced by Herzberg (1959) in his motivator-hygiene theory is that organizations are not likely to motivate employees by simply meeting their hygiene needs. Rather, he postulated, true motivation can only be achieved when people are able to satisfy their desire for the factors he tagged as real motivators. Herzberg (1959) stated that the factors that lead to job satisfaction (job satisfiers) are different from those that lead to dissatisfaction (job dissatisfiers). He emphasized that motivation and

the lack of it are not opposite reactions to the same factors. Put simply, Herzberg (1959) posited that hygiene factors do not motivate. Rather, they cause dissatisfaction when they are not present. Motivators, on the other hand, create job satisfaction, leading to motivation. Distinguishing between motivation and hygiene factors, SHRM (2002) emphasized that the first category of factors affects an employee's ability, while the second only affects the employee's willingness. Herzberg's popularity stems from his strong advocacy for job enrichment, believing that the best approach to achieving employee motivation is to build motivational factors into the job.

Another striking dimension of Herzberg's theory is his argument concerning the extent to which money can effectively serve as a motivator. Using salary as a factor in his analysis, Herzberg (1966) concluded that money does not truly motivate in the way that the primary motivators, such as achievement and recognition, do. He described salary as primarily a dissatisfier, being one of the factors that define the job situation. In other words, money, according to Herzberg, has the potential of affecting negatively on job dissatisfaction, and having no effect whatsoever on job satisfaction.

Burke (2008) observed two basic differences between Maslow's and Herzberg's theories of motivation. Despite the fact that both theories are based on individual needs, they differ in their focus and manner of presentation. First, Maslow's hierarchy of needs addressed motivation *per se*, and Herzberg's theory focused more on job satisfaction (Burke, 2008). Secondly, Maslow presented his hierarchy of needs as a single continuum, from basic to self-actualization needs, while Herzberg's two-factor theory was presented in two continuum. The first continuum addressed dissatisfaction, from high to low; the

second conversely addressed job satisfaction, from low to high. This 2-continua philosophy by Herzberg is, perhaps, the most controversial of all his postulations (Latham, 2011).

The three theories advanced by Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg are well publicized and frequently cited. Their utilities in the study and practice of motivation are not in doubt. These theories were well accepted by scholars, researchers, and practitioners in several disciplines. However, the theories are not free from criticism. Latham (2011), for example, opined that the theories were methodologically weak. Eventually, the focus of research and theory about motivation shifted throughout the 20th century to four controversies (Latham, 2011):

- the importance of money as a motivator,
- the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators,
- the causal relationship between job satisfaction and job performance or the converse, and
- the importance of participation in decision making as a motivational technique.

Most importantly, although need-based theories make it clear why a person must act, they do not provide further explanation for why a specific action may be preferred in a certain situation, in order to achieve a specific result (Latham, 2011). Another concern is that the theories ignore individual differences, leading to a renewed and growing interest in individual diversity, as well as with their needs (Latham, 2011). Accounting for individual differences in developing motivational strategies and stimuli is the focus of this study. The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and generational theories were the

theoretical lenses through which this issue was examined. The next section is devoted to discussing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in more detail.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The motivation theories of Maslow, Alderfer, and Herzberg were discussed first, because they provide a link and foundation for understanding the theory of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This theory (Agarwal, 2010) is based on the various dimensions of needs and the sources of satisfying these needs. The sources can be intrinsic or extrinsic. In fact, “the scientific management of Taylor (1947) and motivation theories of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), and Alderfer (1969) have (these) two components: intrinsic and extrinsic rewards” (Agarwal, 2010, p. 29).

As a recapitulation, it is imperative at this point to note that while Maslow’s theory was based on a structured five-layer hierarchy of needs, Alderfer, in his ERG theory, condensed Maslow’s five-layer hierarchy to three. According to Agarwal (2010), Alderfer only re-conceptualized human needs, the foundation of Maslow’s theory, as related to existence, relatedness, and growth. Then, in his two-factor theory, Herzberg (1959) separated the sources of satisfying needs into two categories that he called the motivation (intrinsic) factors and hygiene or maintenance (extrinsic) factors (Baldonado & Spangenburg, 2009). Table 4 shows the comparison (or relationship) between the three theories summarized by Aamodt (2010).

Table 4

Comparison of Maslow, ERG, and Herzberg Theories

Maslow	ERG	Herzberg
Self-actualization		
Ego	Growth	Motivators
Social	Relatedness	
Safety		Hygiene factors
Physical	Existence	

Source: Aamodt, M. G. (2010). *Industrial/Organizational Psychology: An Applied Approach* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, p. 334.

The origin of postulations on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation dates back to the early 1900s. Chronologically, however, the extrinsic motivation literature (Bateman & Crant, n.d.) evolved first. The Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan laid one of the early foundations upon which the intrinsic and extrinsic theory of motivation was developed (Latham, 2011). In the empirical research it conducted in 1948, the Center recognized that the use of external sanctions to improve workers' productivity may work to some degree, but not as much as would result from more internalized motives (Latham, 2011).

On the other hand, intrinsic motivation (Bateman & Crant, n.d.) is rooted in the works of R. White, published in 1959. Recently, Edward L. Deci became a very assertive proponent of the postulation by the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center, likening it to his claim on the negative effect of money on behavior. This work led him to conclude that extrinsic incentives diminish intrinsic motivation, because they make people believe that their behavior is subject to external factors (Latham, 2011).

The intrinsic and extrinsic theory of motivation provides an invaluable lens, through which the subject of motivation can be examined more simplistically from a value-based perspective, which accounts for the factors considered in each of the three theories reviewed earlier. Value is a central issue in motivation. Rokeach, as cited by Twenge et al. (2010), believed that it influences people's decisions and actions. Value is an important factor that guides individuals in their behaviors and decisions, and it enhances their work motivations (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Ferssizidis et al., 2010). Choices depend on values, and the primary function of values is to meet needs. Whatever an individual's values, therefore, determines his/her motivation.

Some scholars have attempted to distinguish between general values and work values. Work values (the concept adopted for this research) are the desires people expect to attain through work (Twenge et al., 2010). Managing motivation has been particularly difficult due to differences in what individuals value, and the fact that events can change what they value (Lawler III, 2009). More often than not, work values are differentiated based on the two-prong categorization of intrinsic and extrinsic values (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). In clarifying this difference, Twenge, et al. (2010) succinctly stated that:

Intrinsic work values focus on the process of work – the intangible rewards that reflect the inherent interest in work, the learning potential, and the opportunity to be creative while extrinsic work values focus on the consequences or outcomes of work – the tangible rewards external to the individual, such as income, advancement opportunities, and status. (p. 1121)

Table 5 shows examples of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards available to organizations in structuring their motivation strategies.

Table 5

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Rewards Chart

Intrinsic	Extrinsic		
	Compensation Direct	Indirect	Non-compensation
Challenge	Base pay	Dependent care	Certificates
Creativity	Bonuses	Disability income	Commendations
Feedback	Gain sharing	Paid holidays	Peer recognition
Fulfillment		Pension	Praise
Task autonomy		Vacation	Prizes
Task identity		Wellness plans	
Task significance			
Task variety			

Source: Myers, D. W. (1999). 2000 U.S. Master Human Resources Guide. Chicago, IL: CCH, p. 52.

Other work values (Twenge et al., 2010) include influence or autonomy in decision-making, job stability or security, altruistic rewards such as helping others or contributing to society, and social rewards related to interpersonal relationships at work and at leisure.

Relationship between Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

The single issue that has beclouded the utility of the theory of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the past is the controversy surrounding the relationship between these two types of motivation. Some decades ago, Deci (1971) suggested that extrinsic

rewards undermine intrinsic motivation. Since then, scholars have been divided on the veracity of Deci's assertion. Amabile (1993) mediated this controversy. First, she acknowledged that "one of the most central questions facing motivation theorists is the nature of the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and a consideration of the ways in which they might interact" (Amabile, 1993, p. 191). Finally, she asserted that rather than undermining each other, the two types of motivation can instead be mutually reinforcing. She conceptualized this relationship as a motivational synergy. Recently, in what seems to be a tacit support for Amabile's (1993) contention, Ryan and Deci (2000a) are now of the view that extrinsic rewards can increase intrinsic motivation, if they generate feelings of self-determination. Harackiewicz and Sansone (2000) corroborated the opinions of Ryan and Deci (2000a), with the subtle caveat that this effect depends on individuals and circumstances. Essentially, Deci and his colleagues, according to Bateman and Crant (n.d.), have continued to develop their theories to accommodate the effects of extrinsic motivation. Based on these theory modifications, managers and leaders must walk a fine line to ensure an effective blend of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for optimal results (Danish & Usman, 2010).

Measuring Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation has increasingly been used in recent years to explain human behavior. Yet, the knowledge of its cause(s) and the effect(s) is still incomplete (Antoni, 2009). Fortunately, however, there has been remarkable progress in the ability to measure its existence. The two approaches commonly used in measuring intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) are the behavioral approach, alternatively known as a free choice

measure and the self-report of interest and enjoyment of the activity involved. Researchers conducting basic experimental research often rely on the behavioral measure. Concerning the self-report approach, Ryan and Deci (2000b) observed “experimental studies typically rely on task-specific measures, while most field studies use more general domain focused measures, such as one’s intrinsic motivation for school” (pp. 57-58). However, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have two dimensions. The dimensions of intrinsic motivation are enjoyment and challenge. For extrinsic motivation, the dimensions are compensation and outward orientation. These dimensions are reflected in the WPI, developed by Amabile et al. (1994), which has been chosen as the data collection instrument for the dissertation. I discussed the instrument (WPI), in detail, in Chapter 3.

Public Service and Intrinsic Motivation Models

Very often, there is a tendency to confuse the public service motivation (PSM) model with the intrinsic motivation (IM) model. Perry and Wise (1990) defined public service motivation as an employee’s desire to work for the public interest. Other scholars and researchers have also provided a broader definition of this concept. For example, Rainey and Steinbauer, as cited in Taylor and Taylor (2011), defined PSM as the general altruistic motivation to serve the interests of a community of people, a state, a nation, or humankind. It is diametrical to the notion that wage payment, or any other financial incentive, constitutes the primary driver of employees’ effort or motivation (Andersen, 2009). Public service motivation and intrinsic motivation are both similar, in the sense that they both oppose the emphasis on wage and financial incentives, as well as other

extrinsic factors, as primary drivers of employee motivation. These two models differ only marginally in terms of interest. Under the intrinsic motivation model, the employee is motivated to do a job based on his or her personal interest in the job or some intrinsic rewards derivable from doing the job. Part of these intrinsic rewards can be the joy of serving others, alleviating their socio-economic conditions, and contributing to society, described by Borg (1990) as altruistic values. To this extent, PSM can be considered as an integral component of the intrinsic motivation model. Any attempt to separate these two models would be an effort in futility.

Recently, Nicolai Petrovsky, of the Martin School of Public Policy and Administration at the University of Kentucky, added an affirmative voice to this assertion. In making the connection between intrinsic motivation and public service motivation, Petrovsky (2009) noted it has been determined that many employees of public organizations possess an intrinsic motivation for their work. This motivation is known as public service motivation, which is understood as an employee's desire to work for the public interest (Petrovsky, 2009). Whether defined broadly or narrowly, the essence of the concept of public service motivation (Petrovsky, 2009) is that it is the type of intrinsic motivation that is concerned with the well-being of others.

In recognition of this relationship between public service motivation and intrinsic motivation, Perry (2000) argued that traditional motivation theory only presents a narrow picture of intrinsic motivation, and that it may be possible to extend the concept of intrinsic motivation by adding the dimensions of public service motivation. Rather than

treating the two models or concepts as distinct, this study considers public service motivation (PSM) simply as intrinsic motivation (IM) with public service connotation.

Diversity

This section highlights the evolution of the concept of diversity in the workplace in U.S., its pros and cons, organizational implications, and strategies for its management. Generational differences are discussed as a dimension of diversity and the focus of this research.

Definition and Scope

Diversity can be defined in several ways, being a multifaceted concept. Robbins et al. (2012) simply defined it as the characteristics or conditions that distinguish people from one another. From a team concept, Harrison and Klein (as cited in Kearney, Gebert, and Voelpel, 2009) as well as Babalola & Marques (2013), defined diversity as the distribution of differences, among the members of a team. From the same perspective, Jehn, Northcraft, and Neal (1999) described it as the degree of heterogeneity of a workgroup or organization. Although other definitions exist, they all speak to the fact that no two individuals are the same in every attribute. As noted in Chapter 1, diversity covers a broad spectrum of human attributes, such as gender, race, ethnicity, disability, religion, culture, language, marital status, parental status, education, class, and work experience. It also includes age and generational age differences. Figure 2 illustrates this multiplicity of attributes or variables among individuals in the workplace that reflects the diversity within nations and societies.

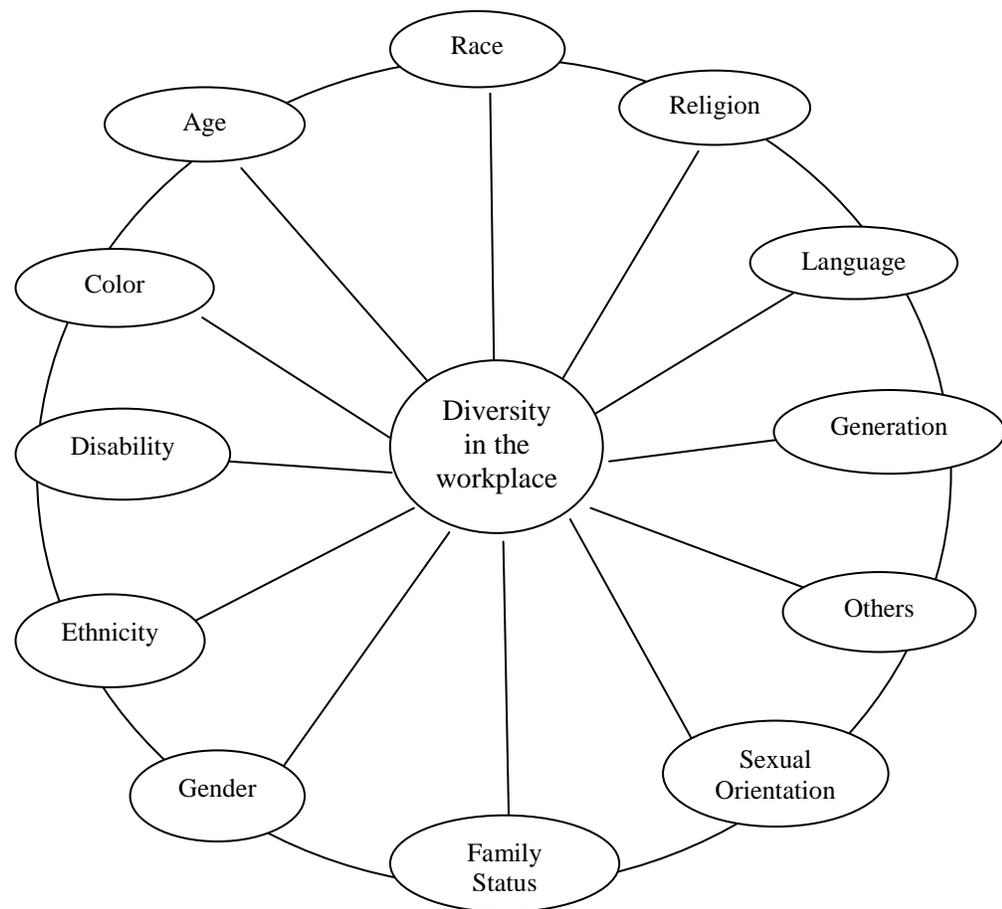


Figure 2: Dimensions of Diversity

Source: SHRM (2012). Introduction to Human Resources Discipline of Diversity.
Diagram Design: By Author—Peter Akwuole

Within this broad spectrum are two distinct categories of diversity. These are the visible and invisible diversities (SHRM, 2005). Visible diversity refers to the attributes that can be easily observed, such as gender, race and physical disability. Invisible diversity, on the other hand, refers to underlying attributes, such as religion, culture, education, and so on. There are also variations in the way different parts of the world

perceive and understand workplace diversity. In the U.S. corporate environment (Lockwood, 2005), diversity refers to gender, race, ethnicity, age (including generational age), physical disability, religion, and sexual orientation. In Europe, diversity tends to refer to language, culture, and nationality. Tilker (n.d.) observed that in Germany, although the scope of diversity is broad, discussions on, and the management of, diversity focuses mainly on two of its dimensions. These are the proportion and role of women in management positions and the number of foreigners on management and supervisory boards. Due to the variations on how people perceive workplace diversity in different parts of the world, McCormick (2008) concluded that it is difficult to have a universal definition of diversity. A detailed discussion of diversity from historical and sociological perspectives will not be very useful for this research, which focuses on public personnel administration, within the academic realm of public policy and administration. Instead, with the above overview, the evolution of the concept of workplace diversity in the United States provides the subject of discussion in the next section.

Evolution of Workplace Diversity Initiatives in United States

The recognition of the United States' diversity as a nation dates back to the early years of the country's existence. Even the country's motto "*E Pluribus Unum*" recognizes the strength in diversity (Ewoh, 2013). In order to understand the root of America's diversity one must consider America's history (Gruer, 2002). America has never existed as a place where everyone looked the same, spoke the same language, practiced the same religion, or shared a culture. Differences continue to exist among American Indians, also known as Native American nations. There are today 562 federally

recognized tribal nations (Adair, 2013; Limerick, 2012; National Congress of American Indians [NCAI], n.d.). The scope and focus of diversity management have continued to expand; for example, the recent recognition of gay marriage by some states adds a new dimension to diversity awareness and management in the workplace.

As microcosms of the society, organizations, whether private or public, are expected to reflect the diverse nature of the society in their workforces. Despite the rapidly growing awareness and scope of workplace diversity, the management of diversity is still evolving in both public and private organizations. It is difficult to pinpoint the origin of diversity initiatives in the workplace. Diversity initiatives are the various activities and programs designed to promote diversity in the workplace. In U.S., the first steps towards the promotion of diversity in the workplace dates back to the 1960s and 1970s (McCormick, 2007 and 2008; Tilker, n.d.). McCormick pointed to the social and political changes in the 1960's, which led to the passage of civil rights legislation that prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, and age, as the factors that triggered the initial wave of workplace diversity initiatives.

Tilker (n.d.) traced and presented the origin of workplace diversity management in the U.S. more succinctly. According to Tilker (n.d.), the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 signaled the beginning of the attention to workplace diversity in the U.S., by providing the regulatory framework for advancing the interest of people of color in the workplace. Following this development, organizations such as Ford, General Electric, General Motors, Hewlett-Packard, IBM, and Procter & Gamble embraced diversity as a new opportunity for improving efficiency and economic viability, in addition to

complying with the statutory requirement of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 (Tilker, n.d.). Later, these organizations incorporated “diversity management” as an integral part of their human resources policies. Today, the concept and practice of diversity management is widespread and well established in U.S. private and public organizations (Tilker, n.d.).

Arguments For and Against Diversity Initiatives

Milliken and Martins (as cited by Chugh and Brief), in Brief (2008), suggested that “diversity appears to be a double-edged sword, increasing the opportunity for creativity as well as the likelihood that group members will be dissatisfied and fail to identify with the group” (p. 3). This notion underscores the basis for the ongoing debate between proponents and opponents of diversity initiatives, as the next sections reveal.

The case for diversity initiatives. The case for diversity initiatives in the workplace is made from two main perspectives, business and moral dimensions. From a business perspective, the benefits of diversity are no longer in doubt. Organizations with a diverse workforce are known to be more innovative and better in decision-making (Johnson, 2009). They have lower absentee and turnover rates, attraction for higher quality employees, improved public image, and high market share (Johnson, 2009). The positive impact (Murphy, 2007) of addressing intergenerational dynamics in the workplace usually manifests in many areas, including corporate culture, recruitment, employee engagement, retention, and customer service.

Johnson (2009) also argued that, despite its economic benefits, the most important reason for fostering diversity is that it is an ethical imperative and the right thing to do.

Berman and Murphy (2010) extended the moral argument to democratic governance, citing the federal bureaucracy as a test case. They viewed the significance of diversity in federal bureaucracy from the perspective of a struggle for equality. Decisions are more likely to represent the will of the people when the workforce reflects the diversity of the American people, which is crucial for democracy (Berman & Murphy, 2010).

Chugh and Brief (2008), in concurring with both the moral and economic arguments as validation for diversity, asserted that the matter is no longer one of business need on one hand, or of moral considerations on the other. The question, they maintained, is also no longer, whether there is much more to gain from diversity compared to its shortcomings. It is recognized that we are a diverse nation, so the challenge is how to optimize the benefits of diversity and how to use organizations to foster justice (Chugh & Brief, 2008).

The case against diversity initiatives. Despite its immediate and remote benefits, and all it promises as a contemporary management/administrative paradigm, critics (Herring, 2009) are skeptical about the extent to which the benefits of diversity initiatives are real. Some have also argued that diversity initiatives are more or less a distraction from the real social issues confronting the society. For example, Michaels (2006) contended that a commitment to diversity initiatives is at best a distraction and at worst an essentially reactionary position that undermines the effort to put equality back on the national agenda. Michaels (2006) explained that, more than diversity issues, the real problem is the growing economic inequality in our society. Diversity, in Michaels's (2006) opinion, is about individual or group identity, which should indeed be the least important thing to us. Therefore, it is misplacing attention to continue the discussion and

commitment to diversity while the real issue—the pervading economic inequality—is neglected (Michaels, 2006).

In summary, Stevens, Plaut, and Sanchez-Burks, in Hickman (2010), argued that possibilities for greater organizational understanding are created or enhanced when workplace diversity is seen as an opportunity, rather than as a threat. Specifically, they concluded that workplace diversity is a catalyst for organizational change. For example, changes in employee demographics (Olson & Eoyang, 2001) make it necessary for organizations to integrate new and different perspectives, and for management and employees to understand how to recognize and value the contributions of different demographic groups. As the most important asset of any organization, employees make a difference in an organization's success (Srivastava & Barmola, 2012). Putting this assertion in proper context, Ali, Rehman, Ali, Yousaf, & Zia (2010) emphasized that the committed employees are the ones considered as critical success factor for any organization.

Diversity Management

Diversity management is necessary to achieve the goal of any diversity initiative. The term diversity management is a relatively new paradigm in administrative and management, including human resource management, practice. The use of the term (Holvino & Kamp, 2009; Johnston & Packer, 1987) has been traced back to the publication by Hudson Institute in 1987, entitled *Workforce 2000*. This publication popularized the use of diversity management as a term in research and practice. Ever

since then, the term diversity management, originally an American concept is now used globally (Holvino & Kamp, 2009).

Organizations are currently operating in a constantly and rapidly changing environment. As earlier noted, part of this change is the increasing diversity of the workplace. The task facing leaders and managers (Jones, 2012) is to help their organizations respond and adjust to these changes. Thus, as stated in Chapter 1, one of the challenges confronting managers and leaders today is how to manage diversity in the workplace. Cox (as cited in Johnson, 2009) concluded that the ability to manage diversity is the core of modern organizational leadership. Thus, Pitts, Hicklin, Hawes, and Melton (2010) conceptualized diversity management as an organizational response to workforce diversity and its attendant challenges and opportunities.

Organizations are responding to this challenge by recognizing and incorporating diversity competence, alternatively referred to as cultural diversity competence or cultural competence, as an essential part of employees' skills set. Cultural competence, which has resonated most recently with some scholars and practitioners as an alternative term to diversity competence, is the possession of cultural awareness and the skills necessary to successfully interact with the diverse people who live and work in the same place (Hogan, 2012). From a broader perspective it is the culmination of specific actions or policies that enable an organization to serve its culturally diverse customers and stakeholders more effectively (Carrizales, 2010). Not only is cultural competence now emphasized in public organizations, many colleges and universities have also incorporated it into their academic curricula to prepare their graduates to be effective

participants in a diverse workplace (Carrizales, 2010). In fact, the recent interest in the use of the terms “cultural competence,” “cultural competence initiatives,” and “cultural competence training” in public administration literature is well acknowledged, but for the purpose of this study, the terms “diversity initiatives,” “diversity management,” and “diversity training” were used.

Differences in the race, gender, national origin, and generational age of organizational members (Jones, 2012) have implications for the values of an organization’s culture and effectiveness. The quality of an organization’s decisions, for example, has been suggested to be a function of the diversity of the viewpoints that are considered and the analysis that takes place. Diversity can also have positive or negative impact on organizational performance (Armstrong et al., 2010; Herring, 2009). The impact is positive when organizations adopt effective diversity and equality management systems (Armstrong et al., 2010). As Jones (2012) advised, organizations need to design structures and strategies to make optimal use of the talents of a diverse workforce and to develop organizational cultural values that encourage people to work together. West and Berman (2006) stated that it is important for different aspects of the system (including different generational cohorts) to work together in a mutually reinforcing way. Diversity management is the process by which an enabling environment can be created, and maintained for individuals to actualize their potentials (Celik, Abma, Klinge, & Widdershoven, 2012). Various studies, such as Pitts and Wise (2010), Choi (2010), and Choi and Rainey (2010), have indicated that there is a growing interest in the management of workplace diversity, arising from the need for organizations to address

the changing workforce. Von Bergen, Soper, and Foster (2002) had predicted that the way organizations manage diversity would determine how individuals respond to a variety of workplace issues, including workers' morale and productivity, management practices, and legal risk factors. The process includes the principles of performance management, development, and motivation (Visagie, Havenga, Linde, & van Vrede, 2012).

As justification for the growing interest in diversity management, Langbein and Stazyk (2011) observed that organizations that have well managed diversity programs are likely to have satisfied and high-performing employees, who are individually and collectively capable of improving the overall performance of their organizations. In the U.S., competitive organizations (Tilker, n.d.) will have no alternative but to use a diverse talent pool for future management placements. Despite the difficult economic situation in recent years, he also observed that the trend towards diversity in the U.S. has continued to increase. In addition to helping organizations retain a talented, multicultural workforce and improve customer service, incorporating effective diversity programs into workplace practices and strategies is important in order to achieve organizational goals and objectives (Wright, 2011). Generally (Visagie, et al., 2012; Von Bergen et al. 2002), the positive results from effective diversity management include:

1. Enhanced personal effectiveness and interpersonal communications among employees;
2. Responsiveness to social and demographic changes;
3. Reduction of litigation and quicker resolution of disputes;

4. A climate of fairness and equity;
5. Greater productivity on complex tasks;
6. Increased sales, revenues, and profits (in the case of private sector organizations).

Approaches to Diversity Management

Approaches to diversity management, sometimes referred to as ideologies or diversity models, vary from organization to organization. However, the approaches widely adopted by organizations are the colorblind, multicultural, and All-Inclusive Multiculturalism (AIM) approaches.

The colorful approach. While it is a truism that individual and group identities differ from individual to individual, and from group to group, the colorblind approach to diversity ignores such individual and group identities. Rather than focusing on the differences in individual and group identities, this approach ignores or realigns them with an overarching identity (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Plaut, Garnett, Buffardi, & Sanchez-Burks, 2011). Proponents of this approach argue that group equality is promoted when group differences are downplayed and the people who constitute the groups are treated as unique individuals (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). This approach is based on the premise that people or institutions can only act in a racially biased manner if they are able to notice race. If they do not notice race, then they cannot act in a racially biased manner (Apfelbaum, Norton, & Sommers, 2012). This approach appears utopian. Unfortunately, it fails to recognize that differences are realities that can be neither denied nor ignored.

The multicultural approach. This approach is in contrast to the colorblind approach. The multicultural approach directly confronts the reality that no two

individuals or groups are completely the same. Its core goal is to affirm group identities and engender acceptance of out-group members (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Unlike the colorblind approach, proponents of the multicultural approach believe that acknowledging the existence of group memberships is not enough to achieve equality and diversity, the groups must be valued (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). Plaut et al. (2011) emphasized that, in addition to acknowledging and valuing differences among groups, this approach promotes the notion that such differences should be celebrated. The approach recognizes employee differences as a source of strength that gives organizations a competitive advantage, if properly managed. Hence, it considers and highlights group differences and encourages open discussion of such differences in the workplace (Apfelbaum et al., 2012).

Essentially, both colorblindness and multiculturalism serve the same purposes, which are two-fold. The first purpose is to ensure that there are positive intergroup relations in the workplace, and the second is to attain social equality (Rattan and Ambady, 2013). The difference between the two approaches is that colorblindness ignores group memberships, while multiculturalism recognizes and values group memberships (Rattan and Ambady, 2013).

The goal congruency between colorblindness and multiculturalism raises the question as to what degree each of these approaches achieves its goal (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). The efficacy and popularity of both the colorblind and multicultural approaches have been unbalanced. This is because neither of the two approaches has ever been embraced by all employees without skepticism by one group or the other. Stevens, Plaut,

and Sanchez-Burks, in Hickman (2010), observed that neither of these approaches to organizational diversity is viewed by all employees as guaranteeing them a sense of belonging in the organization. While the colorblind approach is embraced more often by non-minorities (majority group members), the multicultural approach is more readily embraced by minorities (Ryan, Casas, & Thompson, 2010). Both minorities, non-minorities, as well as other interest groups, proffer plausible arguments to justify their positions. Those in the minority feel excluded in the organizations that adopt colorblind approach. Therefore, they are less likely to endorse colorblindness than are majority group members (Rattan & Ambady, 2013). For those in the majority, the multicultural approach is seen as essentially applicable to minority groups. This, they argue, threatens the social identity of those in the majority (Morrison, Plaut, & Ybarra, 2010; Verkuyten, 2005).

The All-Inclusive Multiculturalism (AIM) approach. This approach was born out of the necessity to bridge the ideological divide between members of minority and non-minority groups in the workplace, regarding which approach (colorblindness or multiculturalism) is more inclusive for their respective groups. Stevens et al., in Hickman (2010), suggested that, in order to harness their strengths and resources for positive change, it is necessary for organizations to seek and adopt an alternative approach to diversity (other than colorblindness and multiculturalism), which will be more acceptable to both non-minority and minority members of their organizations. This approach is simply a blend of the colorblind and multicultural approaches. It appeals to minorities, by recognizing the importance of individual or group differences and acknowledging them,

and to non-minority, by acknowledging that they also play an important role in workplace diversity. Stevens et al., in Hickman (2010), summed up the focus of the AIM approach as essentially addressing the deficiencies in the standard multicultural ideology without reverting to colorblindness. No matter which approach an organization adopts, certain strategies are useful in ensuring successful diversity management. Some of the proven strategies are discussed in the next section.

Strategies for Diversity Management

Communication. Communication is a powerful tool for effective leadership. Leaders have the power to influence individuals in organizations through ongoing communication. When leaders and managers engage in communication, they develop new relationships. This engagement must be felt at all levels of an organization's hierarchy, because communication (Walters, 2011) is a shared responsibility. Walters (2011) also asserted that individuals' perceptions are bound to change their behavior when there is a lack of communication. . Effective leaders and managers use communication as a tool to resolve such difficulties. It is (Hickman, 2010) an important strategy in an organization's effort to retain talent and to avoid potential conflict among members of a diverse workforce. When adopting this strategy, it is equally important to recognize that, despite the advances in information technology, the four generations differ in their levels of comfort with technology (Hickman, 2010).

Succession planning. Workplace diversity is an important consideration in talent management. The pool of talents, resulting from a diverse workforce, provides a pool of assets, from which an organization can build its strength and competitive advantage.

From a generational perspective, Hickman (2010) suggested that organizational leaders must be aware of the internal talent pool that encompasses the four generations in their search for possible successors at all levels of the organization structure. In organizations, the search for successors can be made easier and more successful through succession planning, a systematic and ongoing process, which ensures that knowledgeable persons are always available to fill key positions soon after they become vacant (Ibarra, 2013). The succession planning process focuses on knowledge management and transfer, by identifying, assessing, and developing individuals from an internal pool of talents who should be able to assume greater responsibilities on short notice (Ibarra, 2013). In designing the strategies for knowledge transfer, organizations must be cognizant of the existence of generational diversity and the multi-generational workforce dynamics in the workplace (Stevens, 2010).

Mentoring. The third strategy (mentoring) is the relationship that forms between an employee with little or no experience (the protégé or mentee) and a more experienced employee (the mentor) for the personal and professional development of the less experienced employee (Eby, Butts, Durley, & Ragins, 2010; O'Brien, Biga, Kessler, & Allen, 2010). Through mentoring, the less experienced or younger worker gains knowledge in his/her specific occupation, job function, or leadership skills. In the workplace, a mentoring relationship can be formal or informal (Okurame, 2013). A mentoring relationship is formal when planned and officially sanctioned by the organization. It is informal when the mentor/protégé relationship develops spontaneously, without the organization's involvement or influence (Eby, Rhodes, & Allen, 2010;

Okurame, 2013). Eby et al. (2010) noted that mentoring is similar to some other interpersonal relationships, such as role model-observer, teacher-student, advisor-advisee, supervisor-subordinate, and coach-client relationships, and yet distinct from any of them.

The goal of mentoring is to facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one generation to the next in order to avoid the creation of a generational knowledge gap (Hickman, 2010). In other literature, this process has been described as intergenerational knowledge transfer. In this context, knowledge is seen to be multidirectional, in nature rather than being unidirectional. This means that knowledge is not only transferable from older generations to the younger ones, but also vice versa. Available evidence (Johnson & Andersen, 2010) suggested that if properly organized and implemented, mentoring can have a positive impact in several areas of an organization's activities, such as recruitment and retention, employee development, and succession planning. Other results associated with effective mentoring include successful diversity initiatives, improved employee satisfaction and opportunity for promotion, improved communication, and knowledge transfer within the organization (Johnson & Andersen, 2010). Organizations adopt a variety of mentoring models. Some of the models that have been proven to be useful (Hickman, 2010) include one-on-one mentoring sessions, senior leadership discussion panels, group mentoring programs, speed mentoring, and on-boarding process models.

In essence, for diversity management to be effective, no demographic group should be elevated above others. Recently, Ely and Roberts, in Brief (2008), suggested a new approach to diversity research and management. The new approach shifts from a diversity paradigm that emphasizes differences to one that emphasizes relationships. Ely

and Roberts, in Brief (2008), acknowledged that differences remains a defining feature of diversity, but argued that it is no longer the principal feature. As promising and lofty as this proposition appears, there are obvious impediments with which to contend in managing diversity. The next section is devoted to discussing some of these impediments.

Impediments to Diversity Management

Diversity is a catalyst for change, so the first barrier to its management is resistance to change. An important lesson in every facet of life is that the only thing permanent is change. At the organizational level, change is the process by which organizations move from their current state to some desired future state to increase their effectiveness (Jones, 2012). It is both a component of an organization's capacity building and its larger environment (Hickman, 2010).

Kurt Lewin, popularly known as the "father of change theory," postulated that the process of change in organizations and other human systems occurs in three stages, which he called the unfreezing, moving or changing, and refreezing stages. Unfreezing refers to the state of affairs when it is realized that there is a need to change the status quo, ideas, or ways of doing things. It is the stage when counterproductive processes are abandoned and the motivation and readiness to change are created (Burke, 2008). The next stage, moving or changing, is when new thoughts, feelings, practices, values, beliefs, and behaviors, or a combination of these elements, are unleashed in a more productive manner. It is regarded as the cognitive restructuring stage, when members of the organization see things differently and act differently, based on the new way they see things (Schein, 1987). Refreezing, the third and final stage in the change process, marks

the point when change is fully established and institutionalized, or integrated, as the new standard operating procedure. Organizations easily backslide to the old ways of doing things, if they fail to attain the refreezing stage.

Levin's force-field theory. Lewin (1951) argued in his force-field theory that an organizational change is a function of the interplay between two sets of opposing forces within an organization. One set comprises forces that push organizations toward change, and the other consists of those that make organizations resistant to change (Jones, 2012). The organization is considered to be in a state of inertia when these sets of forces are evenly balanced against each other. No change takes place when an organization is in a state of inertia. Examples of forces for organizational change include competitive, economic, political, global, demographic, social, and ethical forces (Jones, 2012). As Table 6 shows, resistance to change occurs at different levels—the organizational, functional, group, and individual levels (Jones, 2012).

Table 6

Levels and Sources of Resistance or Impediment to Change

Level	Sources
Organizational Level	Structure Culture Strategy
Functional Level	Differences in Subunit Orientation Power and Conflict
Group Level	Norms Cohesiveness Groupthink
Individual Level	Cognitive Biases Uncertainty and Insecurity Selective Perception and Retention Habit

Source: Jones, G. R. (2012). *Organizational theory, design and change*. (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, City?, NJ: Prentice Hall, p. 271.

No change takes place when an organization is in a state of inertia. To induce change in an organization, therefore, managers and leaders will have to perform one or both of the following actions (Lewin, 1951):

- (a) Increase the forces for change
- (b) Reduce resistance to change

Lewin's force-field theory of change is illustrated in Figure 3. In the figure, P1 represents the performance level when the forces for change and resistance to change are equal. It is the level at which the organization is said to be in balance or equilibrium. To get to an improved performance level, P2, management must either increase the forces for change, decrease the resistance to change, or do both simultaneously (Jones, 2012). These

changes are demonstrated by the varied lengths of the arrows representing the forces for, and resistance to change.

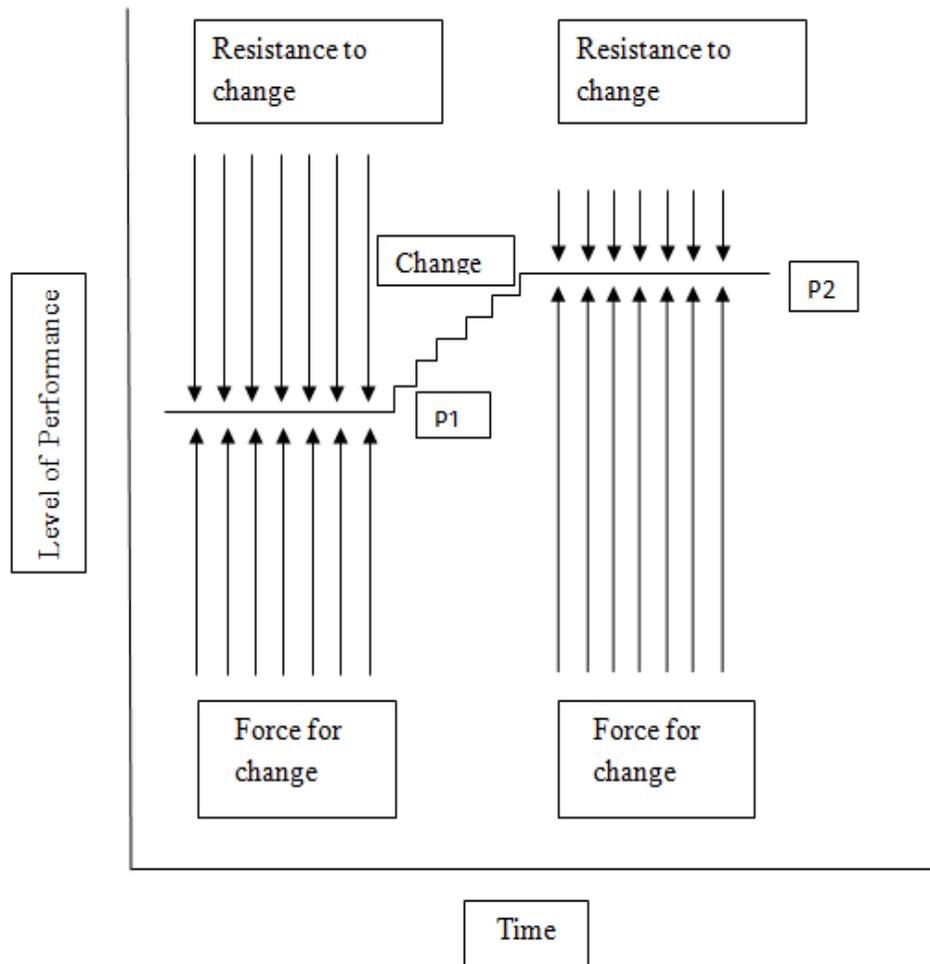


Figure 3: Lewin's Force-Field Theory of Change

Source: Jones, G. R. (2012) . *Organizational theory, design and change* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, p. 276

Change can be evolutionary or revolutionary. Evolutionary change is gradual, incremental, and narrowly focused. It does not involve a drastic and sudden altering of the basic nature of an organization's strategy and structure, but rather a constant attempt

to improve, adapt, and adjust strategy and structure incrementally, to accommodate the changes taking place in the environment. Evolutionary change is accomplished gradually and incrementally. In contrast, revolutionary change is rapid, dramatic, and broadly focused. It involves a bold attempt to find new ways to be effective, quickly. This change takes place when organizations seek to radically change their methods, set new goals, and establish new structures (Jones, 2012).

Jones (2012) described organizational inertia as one of the main reasons why people or organizations resist change. Organizational inertia (Jones, 2012) is the tendency of an organization (or individual) to maintain the status quo. Inertia can be found at the organization, group, and individual levels. It then becomes imperative that, in order to manage diversity effectively, organizational leaders and managers must be able to manage change itself. Dym (1999) summarized the relationship between resistance and change in a reinforcing manner, when he stated that change and resistance are inseparable natural phenomena that are both persistent and widespread. Hence, resistance should not be seen as a bad omen, but as an unavoidable reality in every organization's life and existence, which must be accepted and managed as a form of feedback (Dym, 1999). Furthermore, he averred that because feedback is information, poorly managed resistance can be as costly as poorly managed information, whether it involves change in personnel, production, organization, or the market.

Prejudice. According to Baron, Branscombe, and Byrne (2008), prejudice reflects people's negative response to others, based on their membership in certain groups. It is, therefore, an attitude developed against members of a group, solely because of their

membership with little to no emphasis placed on individual behaviors. Prejudice begets discrimination.

The U.S. has a myriad of employment laws and regulations concerning discrimination in several aspects of employment and labor practices, such as staffing, job structuring, pay, benefits, employee relations, safety and health, and labor relations. By 1998, there were a total of 54 federal employment laws and regulations, from the Civil Rights Act of 1866 to the Women's Health and Cancer Rights Act of 1998 (Myers, 1999). Since then, a few others have been added. For example, the first legislation signed by President Barack Obama, on his assumption of office as the 44th president of the United States, was the Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Act of 2009, which guarantees equal pay for equal work for every American.

Despite the existence of constitutional provisions, federal and state laws and regulations prohibiting discrimination, available statistics indicate an increasing trend in the incidence of discrimination. At the federal level, for example, statistics from the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) suggested that the total number of charges by individuals based on employment discrimination alone increased significantly by approximately 19.3%, from 80,680 in 1997 to 99,947 in 2011 (EEOC, 2011). These figures covered employment discriminations based on race, sex, national origin, religion, retaliation, age, disability, equal pay, etc. The total number of age discrimination charges under the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) alone rose by approximately 32.7%, from 15,785 in 1997 to 23,485 in 2011. In a period of 5 years (2006-2011), there was an approximate 24.2% increase in the total number of charges by individuals (EEOC,

2011). Within the same period, the number of age discrimination related complaints (charges) rose from 16,548 to 23,465, an increase of approximately 29.5%.

The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is an independent regulatory body, created by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, for eradicating employment discrimination in the workplace (EEOC, 2012; Myers, 1999; Pynes, 2009). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The commission began operations on July 2, 1965, coordinating federal equal employment opportunity regulations, practices, and policies. In 1972, the commission's jurisdictional coverage was extended to state and local governments, as well as educational institutions, through an amendment of the Civil Rights Act by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act (EEOA). Through this amendment, the commission was also granted enforcement powers, which makes it possible for the commission to bring legal action against organizations, if necessary, to enforce compliance with Title VII (Pynes, 2009). The commission oversees various work situations, including hiring, firing, promotions, harassment, training, wages, and benefits. Thus, the commission enforces the following federal statutes (Myers, 1999):

- Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended, prohibiting employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin;
- The Age discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967, as amended, prohibiting employment discrimination against individuals 40 years of age and older;
- The Equal Pay Act (EPA) of 1963, prohibiting discrimination on the basis of

gender, in compensation for substantially similar work under similar conditions;

- Title I and Title V of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, prohibiting employment discrimination on the basis of disability in the private sector and state and local government;
- Section 501 and 505 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, as amended, prohibiting employment discrimination against federal employees with disabilities;
- The Civil Rights Act of 1991, providing monetary damages in cases of intentional discrimination and clarifying provisions regarding disparate impact actions; and
- Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act (GINA) of 2008.

Table 7 shows the top three bases in complaint allegations filed for the Fiscal Years 2007 – 2011. The important point to observe from the table is that complaint allegations based on age ranked second on the chart and maintained a steady increase from FY 2007 to FY 2010, with a marginal drop of approximately 3.9% in FY 2011 less than in FY 2010.

Table 7

Top 3 Bases in Complaint Allegations Filed for FY 2007 – FY 2011

Bases	FY 2007	FY 2008	FY 2009	FY 2010	FY 2011
Reprisal/Retaliation	6,960	7,489	7,510	7,712	7,553
Age	4,851	4,977	5,058	5,314	5,105
Disability (Physical)	4,123	N/A	4,006	N/A	N/A
Race- Black/African American	N/A	4,299	N/A	4,232	4,389

Source: EEOC (2011). Annual Report on the Federal Work Force Part 1, EEO Complaints Processing, Fiscal Year 2011.

In its Annual Statewide Equal Employment Opportunity Report for the Fiscal Year 2011, the Maryland Department of Budget and Management (DBM, 2011) stated that the number of statewide discrimination complaints increased from 402 in FY 2006 to 445 in FY 2011. This number (445) is made up of 260 and 185 internal and external complaints, respectively. The report described internal complaints as those filed at the agency level, usually with a State agency's Fair Practices Officer or Equal Employment Opportunity Officer; and external complaints are those filed with the Maryland Commission on Human Relations or Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (DBM, 2011)).

Stereotypes. A stereotype is the view one or more individuals hold about a particular group of individuals (Bryson & Davis, 2010). It is a generalization which Ruggiero (2009) described as fixed, unbending, and irrationally maintained. In other words, it is an extreme form of generalization (Ruggiero, 2009). Hamilton and Sherman (as cited in Posthuma & Campion, 2009) defined workplace age stereotypes as beliefs and expectations about workers based on their age (or generation). The concern about stereotypes is that they are, according to Fiske and Neuberg (as cited in Posthuma & Campion, 2009), negative, inaccurate, or distorted opinions about others based simply on the groups to which the stereotyped persons belong. However, stereotypes can be informative (Nario-Redmond, 2010). They can be useful in predicting how people behave based on their group membership (Nario-Redmond, 2010).

Ethnocentrism. Johnson (2009) defined ethnocentrism as the tendency for one to see the world from the viewpoint of the cultural group to which the person belongs. A person will retain the customs and values, which have been, influenced and shaped by

virtue of his/her membership in a group. This person then uses the customs and values so imbibed as a standard to judge those outside the group. As Johnson (2009) put it, the person's own cultural ways of seeing and doing things would "seem natural," while those of other groups "fall short." While ethnocentrism enhances internal group cohesion, it is a serious barrier to cross-cultural communication and problem solving (Johnson, 2009).

The problems (Johnson, 2009, p. 307) associated with high level of ethnocentrism include

- inaccurate attributions about the behavior of those who differ from us because we interpret their behavior from our point of view not theirs;
- expressions of disparagement or animosity;
- reduced contact with outsiders;
- indifference and insensitivity to the perspectives of members of marginalized groups;
- pressure on other groups to conform to our cultural standards; and
- justification for war and violence as a means of expressing cultural dominance.

Diversity Management and Affirmative Action

Often (De Abreu Dos Reis, Castillo & Dobon, 2007), affirmative action is confused with diversity management. Diversity management is significantly more far reaching than affirmative action, which is concerned with protecting only certain groups of people (protected groups) against discrimination (Herring, 2009). The difference between diversity management and affirmative action lies in their focus and scope. Diversity management focuses on maximizing the ability of all employees to realize their

potentials and to contribute to organizational goals, while affirmative action focuses on specific groups, such as people of color and women, because of historical discrimination. Hawkins (2012) asserted that affirmative action is remedial in scope and retrospective in outlook, whereas diversity management is aspiring in scope and prospective in outlook.

While affirmative action emphasizes legal necessity and social responsibility, diversity management emphasizes business necessity and morality. The period between the late 1970s and 1980s marked a turning point in the implementation of affirmative action (Herring, 2009). During this time, the private sector became increasingly and critically aware that although affirmative action and other legal mandates to curb discrimination were necessary, they were insufficient for the effective management of diversity (Herring, 2009). Although diversity management is concerned with the underrepresentation of women and people of color in the workforce as well, it is primarily distinguished from affirmative action on the basis that it is much more inclusive, acknowledging that diversity must work for everyone. It includes the management of an organization's immediate physical and social setting simultaneously with its workplace culture and internal procedures (Von Bergen et al., 2002). This entails the recognition of the differences among people, and then putting the recognized differences to a creative and productive use (Von Bergen et al., 2002). Essentially, the goal of diversity management is to create a positive work environment for all employees. The human differences of interest in this dissertation are generational age differences. The next section focuses on the discussion of age and generational age differences.

Age and Generational Age Differentiated

Age and generational age are used very often in a manner that can easily be misinterpreted to suggest that the two are the same. Before discussing generational age differences in the next section, it is important to properly define and clarify the concept of generational age as a dimension of age. Age, like many other concepts in social science, is also a complex and multifaceted phenomenon (Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, & James, 2012). They described the collectivity of the various dimensions of age as the “Prism of Age” which includes chronological, life, events, generational, organizational, relational or psychological age, all of which influence who someone is. Pitt-Catsouphes et al. (2012) also provided guiding definitions of these dimensions of age. For the purpose of clarity, the definitions, in most cases, have been copiously adopted and virtually presented in their original state as defined by Pitt-Catsouphes et al. (2012).

Chronological age. This age is determined based on the number of years someone lives. This type of age readily comes to mind whenever an age related discussion ensues. For example, we often hear that someone is, say, 50 years old or is aged 50.

Generational age. This term is used to refer to groups of people born at certain times in history and who share unique experiences in life such as socio-economic circumstances, historical events, and technological impact and dominant cultural values.

Psychosocial age. This is the age of someone as perceived by members of the society. Sometimes those around us see us as either younger or older than our real ages. It is, therefore, a societal ascribed age.

Life stage age. This age is determined by the major events in an individual's life. For example, a 20-year-old man who has been able to marry and have children might seem to be older than the one who at the age of 30 has not been able to do the same.

Organizational age. This refers to the number of years spent by an individual in a particular job, profession or organization. For example, to say that someone is the oldest employee of an organization or member of a certain profession does not necessarily mean that the person is the oldest in terms of chronological age, but by virtue of the number of years of his/her service/employment in the organization or membership of the profession. In most organizations, this age is often recognized and rewarded by way of long service awards and bonuses.

Career stage age. This age is similar to organizational age and is determined based on an individual's accumulation of knowledge, skills, competences, and social capital related to the person's career or line of work.

Relative age. A person's relative age is simply how he/she feels about his/her age in comparison to others in the same workgroup or team.

Subjective age. This age is based on someone's subjective feelings or evaluation. As the adage states, beauty is in the eyes of the beholder, the same can also be said about age.

Normative age. Normative age describes how an individual sees his/her age when compared to societal norms and expectations of age-appropriate roles. For instance, the man who was earlier used as an example to explain life stage age may not be the only one who married and raised children at the chronological age of 20. When there are many of

them, any other person who is chronologically aged 20 may see himself as too old to marry. The feeling that he is too old to marry and raise children simply because his peers did it a long time ago is a feeling of normative age.

Emotional age. This refers to an individual's interest in pursuing specific roles and responsibilities, or some form of developmental task at a given moment in life. Assuming hypothetically that the law puts the minimum age for college admission at 18, a student who insists on going to college at the age of 16 may be seen as relying on his/her sense of emotional age. This sense of emotional age makes the student feel mature for college at the chronological age of 16 instead of 18 as may be required by law.

While the list and explanations of the different dimensions of age are important in understanding the concept of age as used in social sciences, only two of them, chronological age and generational age, dominated the literature and research on age. This study primarily focuses on generational age. Having differentiated this (generational age) from other dimensions of age, the next section discusses the theory of generational age differences. Before then, however, two points are worthy of note. First, there are (Strauss & Howe, 1997) two types of generational research namely, the familial and cohort. Familial generational research (Yang & Guy, 2006) deals with events pertaining to lineage, and provides a simple and convenient method for examining the link between parents and their children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren. Second, historians were the first to develop the theory of generational differences. In social science, the theory was initially popularized as a term used in the 1960s to distinguish between baby boomers from their parents (Reeves & Oh, 2008). However, Hickman (2010) traced the

origin of the use this concept in its social context to the work of Karl Mannheim, a social scientist in the late 1920s. In addition, Whitney Gibson, Greenwood, and Murphy Jr. (2011) noted that actual empirical generational research dates back to the work of Mannheim in 1953 titled “*Essays on sociology and social psychology.*”

Generational Differences

Today’s workforce consists of people from four different generations who co-exist and work together to meet their individual and organizational objectives. Therefore, generational differences are a good lens through which to view diversity (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). Scholars and researchers have described and characterized each of the four generations found in the workplace today in many ways. A summary of these descriptions and characterizations are presented in this section based on the review of available literature. However, it must be noted that while some are based on empirical research findings, others (not considered in this study) are simply based on stereotypes. Quite often, these descriptions and characterizations are shaped by the researcher’s background and perspective. As much as possible, I made effort to concentrate more on work related issues in presenting these views. This was necessary because, in addition to the fact that research on generational differences in personality and motivational drivers in the workplace has been limited, they have also focused more on broad differences rather than focusing specifically on the workplace (Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008). Each of the four generations is discussed below. Before then, it is important to remember that available literature point to the fact that the generations differ in their work values (Salahuddin, 2010). This study will later reveal if these differences translate

to differences in the motivational preferences of the different generations using intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as the theoretical lens for the investigation.

The Veterans (Born 1900-1945)

This generation is known as the World War II generation whose development and values were shaped by the hardship they faced because of both the war and the great depression (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). Some authors and researchers such as Magnuson and Alexander (2008) refer to members of this generational cohort as the traditionalists. They also divide the traditionalists into two groups. The first group, known as the Civic/GI traditionalists, were born between 1922 and 1931 ignoring those born before 1922; and the second group, the Adoptive/Mediating traditionalists, were born between 1932 and 1945 (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). In this study, the Civic/GI and Adoptive/Mediating traditionalists were treated as one generational cohort as many other authors and researchers such as Salahuddin (2010) and Murphy (2012) did, referring to the cohort as the Veterans. Sometimes this generation is referred as the mature or silent generation. Others, for example, Magnuson and Alexander (2008) associate this cohort with the “we did it the right way” mentality. The events that helped to shape the worldviews, personality, and values of members of this generation include the great depression, World War II, and the rise of labor unions (Salahuddin, 2010). They grew up in an era of economic difficulties and challenges, and political upheavals.

Salahuddin (2010) described the Veterans as essentially service oriented. They are good team players in the workplace who also strive to maintain friendly relationships. Veterans are highly spirited, driven, and ready to go the extra mile. They value stable and

secure future (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Because of their experiences during the Great Depression, these individuals developed certain core values such as dedication, willingness to sacrifice, tolerance for delayed reward, duty before pleasure, honor, patience, and hard work (Salahuddin, 2010). In sum, this generation of workers has a strong work ethic and respect for authority (Murphy, 2012). They are economically conservative.

baby boomers (Born 1946-1964)

In contrast to the Veterans' era, baby boomers (Hansen & Leuty, 2012; Salahuddin, 2010) were born during a period of great economic prosperity. Some major historical events of their time that helped to influence them are the Vietnam War, Cuban Missile Crisis, Civil Rights Movement, Peace Corps, and moon landing. Television and music left members of this generational cohort with many cultural memories (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). At the same time, they witnessed and lived with the turbulence orchestrated by social and civic upheaval (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). Sex, drugs, and rock and roll were central in their social lives. The introduction of birth control pill in 1962 and the subsequent legalization of abortion by the Supreme Court's decision in *Roe v. Wade* in 1973 helped to boost baby boomers' "free love" lifestyles. (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). This cohort has the "I did it my way" mentality (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). It has been observed that:

Since making their debut in 1946, baby boomers have created tremendous social change in the United States with their epic number and independent spirit impacting everything from politics to pop culture, transforming the makeup of the

American family and workforce, and ushering in a new wave of consumerism and social norms (Burg, 2012, p. 1; North American Précis Syndicate [NAPS], n.d., p. 1).

Their shared core values (Salahuddin, 2010) include optimism, team orientation, work, and personal gratification. baby boomers prefer to be involved in decision-making, and like the Veterans, they exhibit good work ethics as well (Haynes, 2011). Members of this generational age cohort have been described as the most loyal who are likely to remain attached to their organizations in virtually every circumstance (Hart, 2006). Their high degree of loyalty and commitment accounts for their great sense of value for job security and stable work environment as Loomis (2000) suggested. In addition, because of their great sense of, and value for a personal touch, their communication style is personal (Hammill, 2005; Haynes, 2011). They are regarded as workaholics who enjoy competition probably because of their large population (Crampton & Hodge, 2011). This group is reputed to be the most populous generation (Eisner, 2005; Hannay & Fretwell, 2011). Baby boomers show overt interest in high salary, prestige and social status, yet they enjoy the opportunity to serve society (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Because of their penchant to serve society, it is expected that members of this generation should be more intrinsically motivated.

Generation X (Born 1965-1980)

This generation is associated with the technological age, a period of monumental boost in technology especially in information technology (Weingarten, 2009). Members of this group, known for their “you are in my way” mentality (Magnuson & Alexander,

2008), were born during a period that sharply contrasts with the baby boomer era. The Generation X era was characterized by low birth rate, economic downturns occasioned by recession, high unemployment and increased government fiscal restraint, and family instabilities due to high rates of divorce and unemployment (Lyon, Legg, & Toulson, 2005; Salahuddin, 2010). This was an era when there were massive failures recorded in all fronts, military, political, diplomatic, or economic (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Kupperschmidt (2000) characterized members of this generation as cynical, pessimistic and individualistic. Members of this generation embrace change and diversity. However, they see everyone in the workplace as equal, and abhor subjection to strict rules (Haynes, 2011). To this group, work is merely a contract (Haynes, 2011). They are independent, self-reliant, and self-sufficient (Gurwitt, 2013; Zemke et al., 2000). Hence, they like to do things their own way (Haynes, 2011). These characteristics (Kupperschmidt, 2000) make it difficult for members of this age cohort to be loyal to any particular organization. Generation X members resist policies, procedures, and rules they feel do not make sense to them (Johnson & Johnson, 2010). They prefer to be mentored and coached rather than bossed, to be challenged, and to be recognized for their achievement (Johnson & Johnson, 2010).

Generation Y (Born 1981-2000)

This is the generation with the “get out of my way” mentality (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). The generation is also called the Millennials, Echo Boomers, baby boomers’ kids and Nexters. Members of this generation grew up during a period of economic prosperity and benefited from the rapid growth in information age media. (Po-

Ju & Choi, 2008; Robbins et al., 2012). They have been found to be confident, assertive, and entitlement conscious (Po-Ju & Choi, 2008). Martin (2005) described them as people who like responsibility, and show much independence and entrepreneurship in their attitude to work. Their knack for creativity and challenging work makes them crave freedom and flexibility, and a work environment devoid of micromanagement (D'Netto & Ahmed, 2012; Martin, 2005). Because of their impatience, they crave immediate feedback as well as rapid promotion and development while they also seek for challenging work and opportunities to make immediate impact (Martin, 2005; Po-Ju & Choi, 2008; Robbins et al., 2012).

This generation's core values are similar to those of Generation X but different from those of the Veterans and baby boomers (Salahuddin, 2010). Members of this generation are attributed with a "soccer mom" mentality because of the importance they attach to children. They share such core values as optimism, civic duty, confidence, achievement, sociality, morality, street smartness, and diversity. They like to be engaged in collective action. Their primary focus, however, is to become famous and rich (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008). This, perhaps, explains why they are said to be impatient to succeed and move to the top of organizational hierarchy by craving instant rewards (Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). After consulting "some popular and academic literature," Whitney Gibson et al. (2011) came up with a number of distinguishing characteristics differentiating baby boomers, Generation X and Generation Y as shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Generational Descriptors

Baby Boomers baby boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Sandwich generation	Latch-key kids	Nexters
Company Loyalty	Lack of loyalty	“Contract” mentality
Idealistic	Reactive	Civic-minded
Self-absorbed	Self-reliant	Self-centered
Workaholic	Work/life balance	Multi-taskers
Tech conservatives	Computer savvy	Tech experts
Entitled	Cynical/skeptical	Easily bored
Traditional family	Divorced family	Many family forms
Wary of authority	Independent	Crave feedback
Competitive	Entrepreneurial	Serial entrepreneurs
Materialistic	Fun-loving	Volunteers
Training	Life-long learning	Distance learning
Comfortable with change	Creative	Crave challenge
Optimistic	Want fulfilling work	High maintenance
Security oriented	Career options	Collaborative

Source: Whitney Gibson, J., Greenwood, R. A., & Murphy Jr., E. F. (2011). Generational differences in the workplace: Personal values, behaviors, and popular beliefs. *Journal of Diversity Management (JDM)*, 4(3), pp. 1-8.

Contending Views on Generational Differences

Discussions on generational differences in the workplace reflect the views of two main contending schools of thought (Tolbize, 2008). Scholars and researchers from one school of thought, for example, Zemke et al. (2000), as well as Reeves and Oh (2008), theorized that shared historical events and experiences, economic and social conditions, technological advances, and other societal changes they have in common influence and shape the behavior and characteristics of generations. They contend that while individual members of a given generation may differ to some extent, they undoubtedly share certain

thoughts, values and behaviors because of their shared experiences and events (Zemke et al., 2000).

They also contend that the thoughts, values, and behaviors shared among individuals vary from one generation to another (Zemke et al., 2000). The shared experiences of members of each generation give them what Howe and Strauss (2000) referred to as a common persona. In this context, Howe and Strauss (2000) then defined generational persona as a “distinctly human, and variable, creation embodying attitudes about family life, gender roles, institutions, politics, religion, culture, lifestyle, and the future” (p. 40). Zemke et al. (2000) advanced this argument more assertively in their book titled “Generations at Work: Managing the Clash of Veterans, Boomers, Xers, and Nexters in Your Workplace” where they declared that:

In generationally dysfunctional organizations where generational uniqueness as well as other important individual differences are subjugated by a desire to create one culture that requires to fit in, the result is pasteurization and placation; and although pasteurized organizations think of themselves as harmoniously diverse, they are paying a premium in stagnant thinking, lost creativity, and an absence of diverse opinions. (p. 155)

Thus, this school of thought holds the view that while there are identifiable similarities among different generations, the generations differ from each other in significant ways (e.g. goals, expectations, and work values) that matter to organizational leaders and managers. This same argument is advanced by Yang and Guy (2006) who stated that the characteristics that distinguish one generation from another may have

implications for the workplace because the perceptions individuals develop based on generational differences are assumed to affect their work-related motivation. More assertively, Hammill (2005) stated that each generation has distinct attitudes, behaviors, expectations, habits and motivational buttons. Yang and Guy (2006) suggested that if it is true that generational differences exist, then there should be no reason for managers to ignore them when developing strategies to enhance worker motivation and productivity.

Another school of thought as exemplified by Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) contended that, while it is worthy to recognize incidents that take place during an employee's life cycle or career stages, it is more instructive and useful to consider the fact that employees may be generic in what they want from their jobs. To compartmentalize the workforce on generational basis (Yang & Guy, 2006) is misguided.

Evidence of Generational Differences

Proponents of generational age differences ascribe each generation with certain traits. Research on generational differences has affirmed the existence of differences among generations in their socio-economic and political behaviors. Literature revealing generational differences in some work-related issues such as work values, attitudes, and leadership preferences are discussed in this section.

Fletcher et al. (2009) of the Midway College Faculty from the Business and Teacher Education Divisions investigated the relationship between generational cohorts and attitudes towards work-related issues in central Kentucky. Fletcher et al. (2009) found that while members of each age cohort have some key values they share in common, significant differences exist among the generations. They posited that these

differences (generational differences) present an element of diversity that deserves attention and management by organizational leaders. For example, compared to Generation X, baby boomers were found to be significantly more work-focused and less family-focused. The study revealed a significantly higher preference for in-person communication and company-funded retirement plan than Generations Y and X. The differences between baby boomers and Generation X on such issues as motivation by competition, preference for group projects and team building, participation in decision-making, and opportunity for advancement were significantly high with Generation X responding more favorably to them (Fletcher et al., 2009).

Timmermann (2007) as well as Whitney Gibson et al. (2011) all agreed, but cautioned against over-generalizing this perception. Timmermann (2007) particularly argued that while it is naive to generalize about the individuals in each cohort, it is also true that they share some common values and experiences that influence how they see the world, which can provide valuable insight into their attitudes and behavior.

There is a direct correlation between attitude and motivation. A positive attitude creates or increases motivation, and a negative attitude produces a reverse result. Based on the generational differences survey conducted in 2004 by SHRM, Lockwood (2004) compiled a list of the top five traits for each generation arranged in descending order of importance from the highest to the lowest. Burke (2004) also identified the three least characteristics attributed to each generation as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

The Most and Least Workplace Traits Attributed to Different Generations

Generations	Most Attributed Traits	Least Attributed Traits
Veterans	Plan to stay with the organization over the long term (x)	Embrace diversity
	Respectful of organizational hierarchy Like structure Accepting of authority figures in the workplace (x)	Technologically Savvy Like informality
	Give maximum effort	
baby boomers	Give maximum effort. Accepting of authority figures in the workplace (x)	Like informality Respectful of organizational hierarchy
	Results driven	Need supervision
	Plan to stay with the organization over the long term (x)	
	Retain what they learn	
Generation X	Technologically savvy (xx)	Respectful of organizational hierarchy
	Like informality (xx)	Like structure
	Learn quickly (xx)	Plan to stay with the organization over the long term
	Seek work/life balance Embrace diversity (xx)	
Generation Y	Technologically savvy (xx).	Respectful of organizational hierarchy
	Like informality (xx). Embrace diversity (xx).	Like structure Plan to stay with the organization over the long term
	Learn quickly (xx).	
	Need supervision	

Sources: Lockwood, N. R. (2004). Leadership Styles Series Part II: Leadership Styles: Generational Differences. SHRM Briefly Stated. Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), p. 2.

Burke, M. E. (2004, August). Generational Differences Survey Report. Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management.

While investigating the relationship between generational cohorts and their attitudes towards work related issues, Fletcher et al. (2009) found that each generation has a set of core values distinct and different from others as illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10

Generations' Core Values

Generations	Core Values
Veterans	Dedication, sacrifice, hard work, conformity, law and order, respect for authority, patience, delayed reward, duty before pleasure, and adherence to rules.
baby boomers	Optimism, team oriented, personal gratification, health and wellness, personal growth, youth, work, and involvement.
Generation X	Diversity, balance, thinking globally, fun, techno-literacy, informality, self-reliance, and pragmatism.
Generation Y	Optimism, civic duty, confidence, achievement, sociability, morality, street smarts, and diversity

Sources: Fletcher, F. et al. (2009). *Generational cohorts and their attitudes toward work related issues in Central Kentucky*. Unpublished manuscript, Business and Teacher Education Divisions, Midway College, Midway, Kentucky. In addition, Zemke, et al. (2000). *Managing the clash of Veterans, Boomers, Xers, and Nexters in your workplace*. NY: AMACOM.

Zemke et al. (2000) also extended their inquiry about generational differences at work to the worldviews held by members of these generations. The result is presented in Table 11 as shown below.

Table 11

The Way Different Generations See the World

	Veterans	Boomers	Xers	Nexters
Outlook	Practical	Optimistic	Skeptical	Hopeful
Work ethic	Dedicated	Driven	Balanced	Determined
View of Authority	Respectful	Love/hate	Unimpressed	Polite
Leadership by	Hierarchy	Consensus	Competence	Pulling together
Relationships	Personal sacrifice	Personal gratification	Reluctant to commit	Inclusive
Turnoffs	Vulgarity	Political incorrectness	Cliché, hype	Promiscuity

Source: Zemke, R., Raines, C., & Filipczak, B. (2000). *Generations at work: Managing the clash of Veterans, Boomers, Xers, and Nexters in your workplace*. NY: AMACOM, p. 155.

Differences have also been found in terms of the assets members of different generations bring to the workplace and their preferred leadership styles. These differences are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Differences in Leadership Style Preferences and Assets Generations Bring to the Workplace

Generations	Leadership Style Preferences	Assets Brought to the Workplace
Traditionalists (Veterans)	Fair, consistent, clear, direct, and respectful.	Hardworking, stable, loyal, thorough, detail-oriented, focused, emotional maturity.
baby boomers	Treat as equals, warm and caring, mission-defined, democratic approach.	Team perspective, dedicated, experienced, knowledgeable, service oriented.
Generation X	Direct, competent, genuine, informal, flexible, results-oriented, supportive of learning opportunities	Independent, adaptable, creative, techno-literate, willing to challenge the status quo.
Generation Y	Motivational, collaborative, positive, educational, organized, achievement-oriented, able to coach.	Optimistic, able to multitask, tenacious, driven to learn and grow, technologically savvy, socially responsible, team-oriented.

Source: Lockwood, N. R. (2009). The Multigenerational Workforce: Opportunity for Competitive Success. *Research Quarterly*, p. 2.

Because managers can connect better with employees when they recognize their generational attitudes and put those attitudes into consideration when planning and communicating with the employees, Lockwood (2004) recommended the use of flexible leadership styles as a strategy in dealing with employees of different generations.

Veterans:

- Create positive working relationships by gaining trust and respecting their experience without being intimidated by it.
- Gain their confidence by demonstrating compassion and understanding.

baby boomers:

- Preferred leadership style is collegial and consensual.
- Show appreciation for their energy and hard work.
- Approach them with respect for their achievements.
- Involve them in participating in the organization's direction and implementation of change initiatives.
- Challenge them to contributing as part of a team to solve organizational problems.
- Offer opportunities to serve as a coach as part of the change process.
- Support work/life balance.

Generation X:

- Respect the experiences that have shaped their beliefs and thinking.
- Tell them the truth.
- Clearly identify boundaries.
- Honor sense of work/life balance.
- Offer mentoring programs.
- Clearly communicate that repetitive tasks and quality checks are part of the job.
- Offer learning opportunities.

Generation Y:

- Take time to orient with respect to the organization's culture.
- Provide structure and strong leadership.
- Be clear about expectations and long-term goals.
- Offer mentoring programs.

Source: Lockwood, N. R. (2004). Leadership Styles Series Part II: Leadership Styles: Generational Differences. *SHRM Briefly Stated*. Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), p. 2.

Even in political behavior and interest, cases of generational differences are obvious. Crowley (2011) observed that what divides Americans most is not race, gender, geography, or ideology, but the year they were born. Andrew Kohut, president of the Pew Research Center was quoted by Crowley (2011) as saying that the country has recently witnessed the largest generational gap in the political attitudes and voting choices of Americans since 1972. Members of the four generations differ in a variety of political and governance issues including the growing diversity in every facet of the country's affairs.

Generational motivational preferences. Specifically, on the issue of generational differences in motivation, there are indications and concerns that traditional human resource mechanisms have been ineffective in recruiting and motivating the new public work force as presently composed. Studies, for example, Barford and Hester (2011) also support the fact that there are differences in motivational preferences among the four generations found in today's workplace. For example, what interests and motivates Generation X differ when compared to baby boomers (Hall, 1995). While

retirement issues are accorded high motivational values by the baby boomers, Generation X focuses on childcare. Twenge (2010) reported as well that based on current empirical evidence members of Generation Y and, to a lesser extent, Generation X can be more difficult to motivate than baby boomers and Veterans. In support of this assertion, Benson and Brown (2011) found that baby boomers exhibited higher job satisfaction and lower willingness to quit their jobs compared to members of Generation X. The researchers surveyed employees of a large public sector research organization and compared the two generational cohorts based on their level of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and willingness to quit (Benson & Brown, 2011). In addition, Wray-Lake, Syvertsen, Briddell, Osgood, & Flanagan (2010) found higher intrinsic and extrinsic work values among members of Generation X compared to Generation Y.

The Veterans (Murphy, 2007) tend to be motivated when managers recognize and associate their actions with the organization's success or productivity, while baby boomers are motivated when involved in the organization's affairs and are given the opportunity (or shown how) to make a difference. Also, it is motivating for Generation X members (Murphy, 2007) when they are allowed the freedom to get the job done on their own, and those belonging to Generation Y cohort tend to be motivated when managers see a link between their actions to their personal and career goals.

Wong et al. (2008) tested six hypothesized motivational drivers among employees of three generations (baby boomers, Gen Xs and Gen Ys). The motivational drivers tested are power, ease and security, progression, personal growth, affiliation, and immersion.

Wong et al. (2008) described immersion as a person's level of motivation resulting from the performance of duties and responsibilities that stretch beyond the normal working hours. The study found significant differences on three of the six motivational drivers, affiliation, power, and progression. No significant differences were found by Wong et al. (2008) on the other motivational drivers, immersion, ease and security, and personal growth. In a similar study of four generational groups conducted by Montana and Lenaghan (1999), Generations X and Y shared identical ratings in what they considered as their top six work motivators. The baby boomers and "Pre-boomers" (Veterans) generations had also similar ratings among them. The highest motivators for Generations X and Y were steady employment and promotional opportunities. In contrast, these two motivators did not even make the list of six top motivators for baby boomers and the Veterans.

Using a time-lag method of study, Twenge et al. (2010) examined generational differences in work values among baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. A time-lag study examines the responses of different participants of similar age at different points in time. It is one of the three methods, including cross-sectional and longitudinal methods, used to study developmental and generational change (Twenge, 2010). Unlike cross-sectional study, which allows data on workers of different ages to be collected at one point in time, a time-lag study allows the separation of generation from age/career stage by examining people of the same age at different points in time (Twenge, 2010). Age is held constant when using the time-lag method and by so doing it narrows the reason for any differences in people's work values, for example, to either generation or

time period (Twenge, 2010). Despite this advantage, the time-lag method is rarely used in studying generational differences and work values. Only three academic studies are known to have used this method because it makes use of similar population samples who are asked same questions in different years (Twenge, 2010). However, among the three, the cross-sectional method is more often used for studies on generational differences in work values (Twenge, 2010).

Twenge et al. (2010) found that both Generation X and Generation Y valued extrinsic rewards more than baby boomers did, but the difference was more pronounced between baby boomers and Generation X respondents. The study further found no significant difference between Generation X members and baby boomers in their value for intrinsic reward. On the other hand, an intrinsically rewarding job was found to be significantly less attractive to Generation Y than Generation X and baby boomers (Twenge et al., 2010).

Similarities among the generations. Despite the results of various studies evidencing differences in personality, attitude, value, trait, leadership style, and motivation preferences among different generations, one school of thought (Fletcher et al., 2009) questions the significance of generational differences in the workplace. Adler, as cited by Fletcher et al. (2009), argued that differences among generational cohorts in the workplace do not manifest on a large scale because of the similarity in the goals all employees pursue, including opportunities for skills development, fair reward, and success.

Deal (2007) contended that these differences are mostly a myth, and cautioned that unwarranted attributions of generational differences may be detrimental to any efforts in resolving real differences among individuals in an organization at a time when many organizations struggle with the negative effects of demographics on staffing. Renn (2008) corroborates that there is little or no difference among generations. Similarly, Davis, Pawlowski, and Houston (2006) in their study of work commitments of baby boomers and Gen-Xers in the IT profession concluded that generation is not a good single-factor predictor of work values.

Wong et al. (2008) surveyed Australian workers to examine personality and motivational driver differences among baby boomers, Generation Xs, and Generation Ys. They aimed to determine whether differences in personality and motivational drivers existed among these age generations; their findings did not support the existence of such differences. Only a few meaningful differences relating to age and not generation, according to the researchers, were found among the three generations. However, although it failed to establish any correlation between personality and motivational driver differences and generational age groupings, the study offered two important lessons. First, as Wong et al. (2008) noted, the research findings pointed to the need for managers to be prepared to manage a group of increasingly negative and possibly cynical employees, with each generation reporting themselves as less optimistic than the previous generation. Second, the result of the research is suggestive of the fact that when managing a younger generation of employees, it is equally necessary to recognize and meet their preferences to promote a cooperative and affinitive workplace.

In addition, in their quest to learn more about generational differences in the workplace, Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) investigated differences in work motivation between baby boomers and Generation X, the most populous generations in today's workforce. The researchers sampled 278 employees from a Midwestern municipality, and found that the few differences that existed between the two generations were because of career stages rather than cohort-specific generational differences. A similar research conducted by Yang and Guy (2006) validated Jurkiewicz and Brown's (1998) findings.

The work of Macky, Gardner and Forsyth (2008) further raised serious questions, particularly on the veracity of any conclusion that there are differences in motivational preferences among the different generations. This team of researchers investigated generational differences at work to evaluate the notion that there are generational differences at work. In reporting their findings, Macky et al. (2008) indicated that personality profiles vary across generations, and their attitudes towards work and careers differ. However, Macky et al. (2008) also reported small effect sizes, inconsistency of some of its findings with widely held stereotypes about generational differences. The study did not find a strong evidence of generational differences in work values or motivation. Macky et al. (2008) criticized the "hype" about generational differences at work. They suggested that it might be more useful and advisable for management to direct its time and resources towards employee needs related to age (maturity), life cycle, and career stage differences than developing specific management policies and practices. They agreed, however, that significant methodological problems still exist in generational research.

Despite their overarching differences, generations share some commonalities or similarities. They all have value for achievement, balance, and responsibility (Lockwood, 2009). Research shows that each generation also ranks honesty, competence and loyalty among the top leadership qualities they desire with honesty being the most important (Lockwood, 2009). The three generations covered in this study (baby boomers, Generation X and Generation Y) have particularly been reported to value intrinsic rewards more than extrinsic rewards with a slight decline of this trend recently among Generation Y (Twenge et al., 2010). Hannay and Fretwell (2011) observed that, despite the differences in their levels of comfort and proficiency in the use of technology, all generations in the workplace acknowledge the need for effective technology to increase efficiency, effectiveness and productivity. Also, while all of the generations differ in their perspectives and approaches on the best way to communicate, they recognize the importance of communication (Hannay & Fretwell, 2011). Irrespective of the skepticism expressed by some scholars and researchers about the concept of generational differences as a dimension of diversity, it is an issue that managers and leaders should be aware of, and strive to integrate into their organizational culture in a meaningful and productive manner.

Whether in the real or imaginary world, the existence of generational differences seems to have been ingrained in the subconscious of the minds of many individuals. Thus, it has become commonplace (Renn, 2008; Jordan, 2010) to attribute generalized characteristics, values, and behaviors to each generation. In the workplace, generational differences or phenomena (Joshi, Dencker, Franz & Martocchio, 2010) may manifest in

many ways with varied consequences. However, it is yet to be strongly proved empirically that part of these consequences has to do with differences in motivational preferences. As Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) stated, the literature on motivational differences and satisfaction levels between age cohorts is equivocal. This dissertation addressed this gap.

Summary

This study focused on employee motivation and generational age differences as a dimension of diversity. The purpose of this chapter was to review available and related literature in this area of scholarship and research. From a broad perspective, I reviewed relevant literature on the concepts of motivation and diversity. In recognition of the breadth and distinct nature of these two broad concepts, the literature review was presented in two segments. The literature review on motivation was presented in the first segment, which covered a range of issues, starting with a brief overview of the concept. Three popular theories of motivation, namely, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's ERG theory, and Herzberg's two-factor theory, were reviewed, due to their unique relevance to the study, as well as their understanding of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which provides the theoretical framework for this study. Different contending views on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were reviewed. Weighed against the theory that extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivation, the review revealed that Amabile (1993) found a synergy in the intrinsic-extrinsic motivation theory, rather than extrinsic motivation undermines intrinsic motivations. She emphasized

that the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations is not undermining, but complementary and reinforcing.

The second segment of the chapter was devoted to a review of the literature on diversity as a broad concept, and on generational age differences as its dimension. The definition, scope, and evolution of diversity were discussed in the chapter, based on the reviewed literature. A case was made for, and against diversity management initiatives. The approaches and barriers to diversity management were discussed. Distinction was made between diversity management and affirmative action. The literature on generational differences clarified that generational age is not the same as age, but a dimension of it. There was also a review of the contrasting views on the existence of generational differences and their implications in the workplace. It described each of the four generations that coexist in today's workplace (Veterans, baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y). Their characteristics and differences were highlighted. In the end, little of the extant literature examined public employees' work motivation from the perspectives of generational age and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. While the concept of generational differences has grown in popularity over the years, academic research on the topic has been relatively scarce (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2007). The findings from this study will help to fill this gap in the literature and add to the body of knowledge on this topic in public policy, administration, and human resource management. I discussed the methodology and procedure for this research in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In this study, I used a correlational design to investigate the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation in the public sector. The study involved the use of survey instruments for collecting the data required for assessing the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations of three generational cohorts, namely: baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. This chapter includes the specific steps and approaches that I adopted in completing the research. I described the research design and approach, research population, sample and sampling technique, instrumentation, the variables in the study, data for the research, as well as the statistical tools and procedures for analyzing the data.

The research questions addressed in this study and the hypotheses generated from them are stated below.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?

H₀1a: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H_a1a: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H₀1b: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1b: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H₀1c: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1c: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

RQ2: Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

RQ3: Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

H₀3a: The baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H_a3a: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H₀3b: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H_a3b: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation Y.

H₀3c: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_a3c: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H₀3d: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_a3d: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

The Variables for the Study

The two sets of variables analyzed in this research were generational age as the independent variable, and employee motivation as the dependent variable. Some control or extraneous variables might have affected the study, but I was not sure how and in what way this happened if it did. Extraneous variables have the potential to influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but cannot be controlled or manipulated by the researcher in the course of the study. The control variables in this case were the other dimensions of diversity that could affect the dependent variable apart from generational age differences. These include, for example, gender, marital status, education, religion, culture, race, ethnicity. They are controlled by using the standardization technique or by ignoring their effects with a note that they might affect the results of the research. The population for this study consisted of people with most of these demographic characteristics. However, this research focused on generational age as the independent variable and work motivation as the dependent variable. I controlled the other variables mentioned by holding them constant. In other words, I ignored the effects of the control variables while studying the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.

Independent Variable: Generational Age

Pitts and Wise (2010) have suggested that the ability of the business case for diversity to withstand an empirical scrutiny has been the largest unresolved issue in workforce diversity. Any attempt at seeking a genuine answer to this question, he posited, must begin with testing diversity as an independent variable that affects organizational

outcomes (Pitts & Wise, 2010). In general, two types of independent variables are used in research: the active and attribute variables. Generational age, as a dimension of diversity, was the independent variable for this research. The literature review revealed four generational age groups that make up the present workforce. I treated these four groups as the levels or categories of the independent variable. The independent variable (generational age) is an attribute variable, that cannot be altered or manipulated, when conducting a study, to determine its effect on the dependent variable. This variable differs from an active variable that can be manipulated or altered by the researcher during the study. Independent variables are assumed to affect or influence the dependent or outcome variable, and they are not manipulated by the researcher in non-experimental research such as the correlational design used in this study.

To operationalize the independent variable the study considered three of the four generational age groups, the baby boomers (1946 - 1964), Generation X (1965 - 1980) and Generation Y (1981 - 2000), as the three levels (groups or categories) of the variable. As stated in Chapter 1, these three generational cohorts were the focus of this study because their members dominate the present workforce in the United States. The Veterans, on the other hand, command an insignificant percentage of the workforce. For analytical purposes, baby boomers were assigned the number 1. The numbers 2 and 3 were assigned to Generations X and Y respectively.

Dependent variables: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations

Before the dependent variables for this study can be discussed, it should be noted that diversity could also be used as a dependent variable (Pitts & Wise, 2010). However,

as Pitts & Wise (2010) pointed out, most of the studies that use diversity as dependent variable do not measure it as heterogeneity, but rather as the percentage of the workforce or organization that comprised of particular groups. It is more beneficial in human resource management and for improved organizational performance to move beyond this approach and treat diversity or any of its dimensions as an independent variable in recognition of its potential influence on other organizational behaviors and outcome. The two types of employee motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, were the dependent variables for this research. They are ordinal variables I computed by using WPI scores based on the 5-point Likert scales assigned to responses to the elements in the questionnaire. I treated the rank ordered ordinal data resulting from responses to the questionnaire as interval data (Vogt, 2007). The Likert scale, developed in 1932 by Rensis Likert, is a psychometric scale commonly used for questionnaires (Allen & Seaman, 2007). The Likert scale is reputed to be widely used in survey research and in social science measurement (Gadermann, Guhn, & Zumbo, 2012; Vogt, 2007). The use of scales (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008) increases the reliability of the measurement used. By using scales, the complex data that usually characterizes social science research are simplified by replacing several variables with a single score, thereby simplifying the statistical analysis as well.

As stated in Chapter 1, I used a 5-level rank ordered response format for this research. I assigned the numerical value 5 to the highest or most positive response (highly agree). The next response in a descending order of ranking (agree) took the value 4. Others (neither agree nor disagree, disagree and highly disagree) followed in the same

order with the values 3, 2 and 1 assigned to them. Therefore, the least response assumed the lowest value (1) on the scale. Given that both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation segments of the WPI instrument have 15 items each with five possible response options, each respondent had a total score ranging from 15 to 75 points.

Research Design and Approach

The correlational design adopted for this study is a quantitative research approach, which involved the collection of data using the survey method. This method describes trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population in quantitative terms by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). Based on the sample results, a generalization or claim can be made about the study population. Surveys employ questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection (Vogt & Johnson, 2011; Vogt, Gardner & Haeffele, 2012). However, this research made use of questionnaires. As a systematic data collection methodology, the survey method of conducting research is very popular in the fields of social and behavioral sciences, including public policy and administration (Enticott, Boyne, & Walker, 2009; Vogt, 2007). The methodology's popularity is reflected in its increasing demand in professional fields as well as in academia (Lee, Benoit-Bryan, & Johnson, 2011). Survey research has been used extensively to the extent that there is hardly any area of public policy which has not utilized it (Fowler, Jr., 2009; Vogt et al., 2012).

As a form of quantitative research, I chose the correlational design as an alternative to the experimental design because the research did not involve manipulation of any independent variable or random assignment of participants to the conditions or

levels of such independent variable. This method of inquiry is appropriate for measuring both attitudes and behavior. It is also useful when a group of people is being profiled based on shared characteristics such as demographics. Nevertheless, as stated in the problem statement and confirmed in the literature review, many dimensions of diversity, including generational differences, are neglected in the management, as well as in the public policy and administration literature.

Setting, Population and Sample

Depending on the research being conducted, the setting can be in a physical or social environment (Patton, 2002). Examples of research settings in a physical environment are the arrangement of classrooms and offices for studies examining effective learning or performance. A setting could be a laboratory set up for conducting research. On the other hand, the social environment refers to how people organize themselves and interact in the society (Patton, 2002). The social environment provided the required setting for this study.

The Setting of the Study

This study focused on the executive branch of government in the state of Maryland, in the United States. In Maryland, employment in the executive branch of government is governed by the State Personnel Management System (SPMS) except for positions in the Department of Transportation, the University System, and a few other independent agencies. As of the end of the 2015 fiscal year (July 1, 2014 – June 30, 2015), the state had 51,742 full-time equivalent (FTE) positions in its Personnel

Management System. Out of this number, 46, 972 were filled positions while 4770 were vacant.

The State Personnel Management System (SPMS)

The Maryland State Personnel Management System (SPMS) was established by Statute as provided under Title 6 of the State Personnel and Pensions Articles [SPPA] (2010). The Secretary of the Department of Budget and Management (DBM) administers the SPMS for providing a system of employment for employees in the executive branch of government. Thus, all elected positions and positions in the legislative and judicial branches of the State government are excluded from SPMS. Except as may be provided by law all positions in the executive branch of the state government are in the State Personnel Management System (SPMS). However, positions in units or agencies with independent Personnel System, notwithstanding that such units or agencies belong to the executive branch of government, are excluded from SPMS.

The SPMS establishes the categories of service for employees based on the general nature of the employees' duties or methods of appointment and provides procedures for the appointment, discipline, and termination of employees in each service category. It groups employees into classes based on specific duties that employees perform; provides a system of pay for employees as well as a system of merit employment in the skilled service and professional service regardless of the applicant's political or religious opinions or affiliations or any standard other than business efficiency. The SPMS also provides a process for the recruitment, promotion and training of employees; prompt removal of employees; and other aspects of human resources

management. The four employment categories in the SPMS (executive, management, professional, and skilled services) are discussed below as described by SPPA.

Executive service. This refers to a position in the Executive Branch that is the chief administrator of a principal unit. It may also be a position comparable to the chief administrator that is not the result of an election, or required by the State Constitution, or a deputy or assistant secretary of the principal unit or similar position that has similar stature (SPPA, 2010 § 6-404).

Management service. Management service is a position in the Executive Branch that involves direct responsibility for oversight and management of personnel and financial resources, requires discretion and independent judgment, and is not in the executive service (SPPA, 2010 § 6-403).

Professional service. This category refers to a position in the Executive Branch that requires advanced knowledge in a field of science or learning acquired through special courses and study, and that normally requires a professional license or advanced degree (SPPA, 2010 § 6-402).

Skilled service. Skilled service refers to all positions for which persons are selected on a competitive basis in the Executive Branch, not in a professional, management or executive service, and includes any other position that is specified by law to be in the Skilled Service (SPPA, 2010 § 6-401).

The Research Population

The research population comprised public employees of the executive branch of the state of Maryland in the SPMS. The population consisted of the Veterans (1900-

1945), baby boomers (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1980), and Generation Y (1981-2000). However, the research population was restricted to three generations, excluding the Veterans. In addition, the population was restricted to employees in the skilled and professional service categories. Inferences were drawn about this population based on the results of the study (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). As of June 30, 2015, the number of employees (Budgeted FTEs) that met the characteristics for inclusion in the research population was estimated to be about 26,000.

The Veterans, born before 1946, were not included in the research population because they are the smallest of the four generations currently found in the workplace (Hannay & Fretwell, 2011). As earlier shown in Table 1, members of this generation constituted only about 5% of the workforce as of the year 2011. In fact, some researchers have begun to assume that the workforce is now comprised of members from only three generations, the baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y (D'Netto & Ahmed, 2012). Considering the infinitesimal contribution of the Veterans generation to the present workforce, I excluded this group from the study. In addition, I found it counterproductive to include those at management and executive levels of employment in the study because of their policy-making responsibilities, which was likely to dilute their sense of neutrality and objectivity in responding to the questionnaire. The exclusion of those in the management and executive services was further informed by the need, as identified by Reeves and Oh (2008), for more rigorous research to determine if generational differences truly exist, when only people in the lower middle and lower socioeconomic strata of society are considered. Moreover, the survey instrument, WPI,

used for this study was designed to solicit the opinion of “workers” not “executives” just like the student version, which was also not for school administrators.

The Study Population

Due to logistical issues, time and budget constraints, as well as bureaucratic bottlenecks, only one of the state agencies in SPMS (the Department of Human Resources [DHR]), was covered in this study. DHR is one of the 20 departments in SPMS. This agency provided the study population for this research. The selection of the agency was based mainly on the consideration of its size, being one of the three largest agencies in the SPMS. Because of its large number of employees, it was expected that the agency would have a large enough pool of each generational age grouping from which an adequate sample could be drawn. In addition, out of the three agencies targeted initially to be part of this study, DHR was the only one that accepted to partner in the study.

As of June 30, 2015, the agency used for this study accounted for 5,867 or approximately 14.5% of the full time employees in the SPMS. The study population and their age groups were selected by conducting a query on Workday. The Workday is a cloud-based system accessed through a web browser for human capital management, including management of employees’ benefits and time tracking (DBM, n.d.). It is part of the newly introduced Statewide Personnel System (SPS). Although centrally managed by DBM, the system is generally used by all agencies in the SPMS. As an enterprise resource planning (ERP) tool, the system gives detailed profiles of both filled and vacant budgeted (permanent) positions in SPMS. I received DHR’s permission (Appendix E) to use information from the system. The HRIS manager conducted the query on behalf of

this researcher to extract the information. Figure 4 below shows the filtering process in determining the study population. Although this number was derived from Workday, the diagram shows the filtering process in determining the study population for this study. The population was geographically dispersed. DHR has 24 local departments of social services and 4 regional offices of the Child Support Enforcement Administration. These are in addition to the department's head office housing different administrative and operational divisions and units.

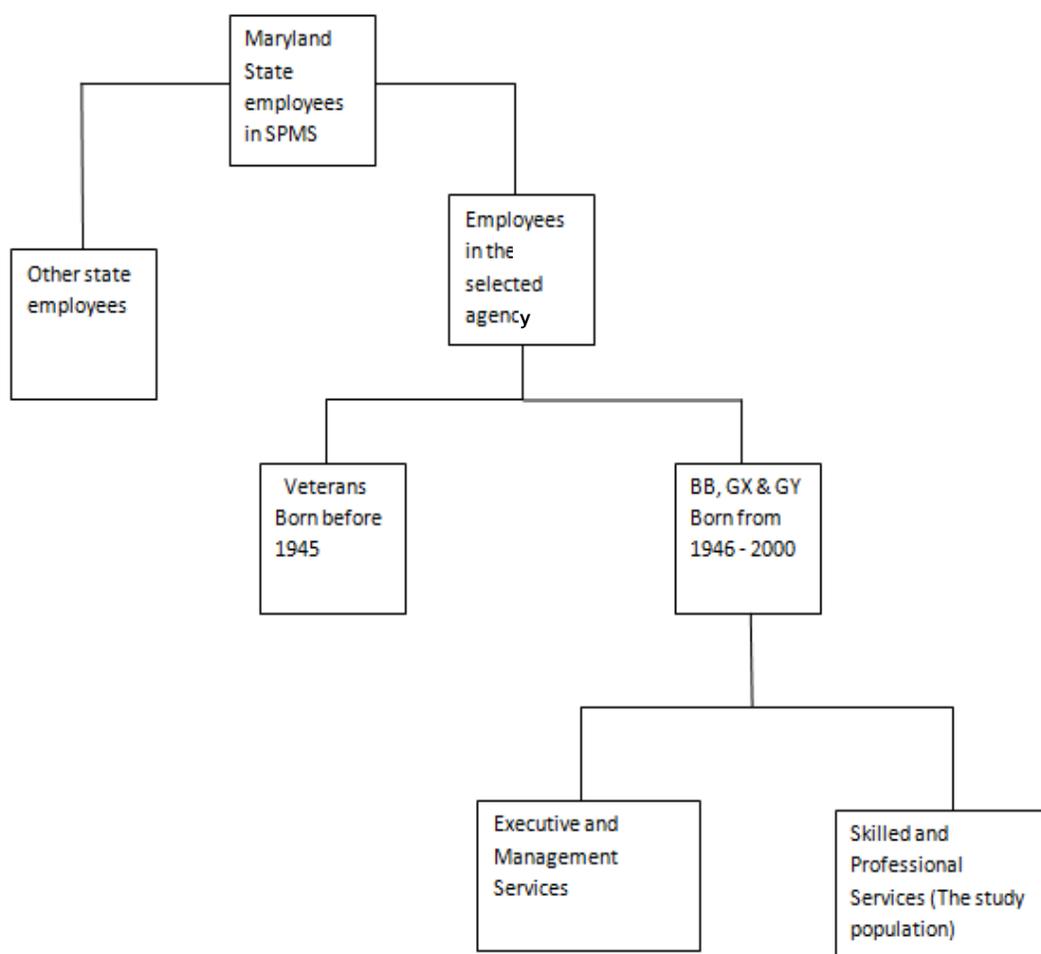


Figure 4: Diagram for Determining the Study Population

The Population Sample

The units of analysis for the study were individuals. As previously stated, they are employees of DHR, an agency within the executive branch of the Maryland State government. They are also employees whose employments are either in the skilled or professional services under SPMS. Although only one of the state agencies was covered in the research, it was still difficult to survey the entire staff of the agency in the described categories given, as earlier stated, the constraints of time, budget and logistics. The next two sections described the method for determining the appropriate sample size for the study and the strategy for selecting the samples.

Determination of Sample Size

The importance of determining, and drawing enough samples that can adequately represent a study population to be able to draw meaningful conclusions about the population has been acknowledged by researchers (Bernard, 2013; Breakwell, Smith, & Wright, 2012). I conducted a power analysis to achieve this objective.

Power Analysis

Based on the need for a cost effective sample size, and to minimize the chances of underestimating or overestimating the sample size, I conducted a power analysis using G*Power as the tool to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. G*Power is a free (general) power analysis program used for a variety of statistical tests (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). It is the statistical power analysis program used for the most common statistical tests in social and behavioral research (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The decision to use this program took cognizance of the fact

that it is not good for a sample size to be too small or too large because any of the two situations can raise ethical questions (Dattalo, 2008). For instance, when the sample size is too large participants may be exposed to unjustifiable level of risk in terms of their privacy, time, and effort (Dattalo, 2008). In other words, there is need for a balance between the value of research and the burden it places on participants. In addition, if the purpose of the research is to gather information during a crisis, then it will be unethical to use only a small sample size (Dattalo, 2008).

Statistical power analysis offers the best method to estimate the number of participants in research (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). This analysis was performed before collecting the data for this research. In other words, it was a *priori* instead of a *posteriori* analysis, which is usually performed after the data has been collected (Dattalo, 2008). As a *priori* analysis, estimation of the sample size was based on acceptable levels of power, alpha (α), and effect size (Dattalo, 2008). These concepts are discussed next.

Statistical power. Often referred simply as the power, statistical power is the probability of detecting an effect if the effect exists (Dattalo, 2008). When the focus of the research is on differences between groups, power represents the ability to detect such difference if it exists (Breakwell et al., 2012). In its simplest definition, it is the ability of detecting the existence of a relationship in the population by the use of sample (Vogt et al., 2012). The most acceptable value of power, as many authors have suggested, is .80 (Dattalo, 2008). This value was adopted for this study meaning that for a given specific sample size, a real or true effect of 80% is expected 80% of the time.

Alpha. The commonly used values are $\alpha = .05$ or $\alpha = .01$ (Bernard, 2013). It is standard practice setting the alpha level at .05 (Ferreros, 2010). This means there is only a 5% chance of arriving at the wrong conclusion or there is a 95% chance of arriving at the right conclusion. Therefore, an alpha level of 0.05 was used for determining the sample size for this research. Although an alpha level of 0.01 can also be used in social science research, it has limitations because it yields less power (Breakwell et al., 2012). In addition, an alpha level of 0.01 is more difficult to satisfy than a level of 0.05 (Vogt & Johnson, 2011).

Effect Size. This reveals the relationship between the variables (usually two or more variables) in the sample (Breakwell et al., 2012). Effect size indicates how large an effect is or how strong a relationship is. Thus, it “tells how strong research findings are, or how detectable they would be to an observer” (Breakwell et al., 2012). This statistic can be calculated in various ways (Ferguson, 2009). However, the Cohen’s Mean Difference/Standard Deviation model was used for this study because it is the most appropriate method in situations where no previous study is available, or where there is no clue to previous effect sizes in similar studies. The effect sizes (Ferreros, 2010) recommended by Cohen for determining effective sample size are:

Small: $d < .50$

Medium: $d = .50$ to $.80$

Large: $d > .80$

For the purpose of this study, the effect size was .50.

The Sampling Strategy/Design

Various sampling strategies are used in quantitative research. These sampling strategies are classified into two groups: probability and non-probability sampling. However, probability sampling techniques are preferred in survey research such as this dissertation (Vogt et al., 2012); and the stratified sampling strategy was specifically adopted for this study.

Stratified sampling technique is a two-stage procedure which begins by dividing the study population into homogeneous groups or strata based on demographic characteristics such as ethnicity, gender, or age; and then selecting samples from each strata using a simple or systematic sampling technique (Sue & Ritter, 2012; Vogt et al., 2012). This sampling method is suitable for this study because the population has distinct elements that I categorized into separate strata. Each element of the population could be assigned to only one stratum, and each stratum was treated as an independent sub-population from which individual participants were then selected randomly (Bernard, 2013). The study benefitted from the strengths of this sampling strategy in many respects.

1. The use of stratified sampling technique makes it possible to draw inferences about specific subgroups that would not have been possible if a more generalized random sampling is used.
2. Provided the strata are selected based on their relevance to the overriding criterion, the use of this sampling method can lead to improved statistical efficiency.

3. This sampling can also guard against an “unrepresentative” sample, for example, an all-male sample from a mixed gender population (Vogt, 2007; Vogt et al., 2012).

As stated previously, the current workforce consists of four different generations. They are the Veterans born before 1946 (World War II), the baby boomers, born between 1946-1964, the Generation X of 1965 -1980, and Generation Y born between 1980 - 2000. Three of these generations were compared in this study and each of them constituted a stratum as required by this sampling technique. The employees were grouped based on age to create sets of homogeneous samples from the population.

After determining the study population and sample size, I followed the steps described below in selecting those for inclusion in the sample, and presented the result of the operation in Table 13.

1. Determine the sample fraction, which is the ratio of the sample size to the population size. Then convert the sample fraction to percentage.
2. Break the study population into three groups based on generational age (baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y), according to individuals' years of birth extracted from the Workday described earlier in the study population section. The three generational age cohorts constituted the sample strata.
3. Apply the percentage of the sample fraction to each stratum to determine the number of individuals to select from each stratum to form the sample.
4. Number the members of each stratum. Assign baby boomers the numbers

BB₁ to BB_{n1}. Generation X assumed GX₁ to GX_{n2}, and Generation Y took GY₁ to GY_{n3}, while n1, n2, and n3 represent the numbers of people in the first, second and third groups respectively.

5. Determine the number (n) that when selected systematically would exhaust the list of members in each generational group. In this case, $n = 52$.
6. Using a *Random Number Generator*, determine a random number (Rn) to serve as the starting point to select every n th person in each generational group. In this case, the random number (Rn) was 28.
7. Starting from the 28th on the list, select every 52nd person to get the appropriate number of participants from each stratum.

Table 13

Stratified Sampling with Constant Sampling Factor

Sample Strata	# of individuals in stratum	% of members of stratum included in sample	# of members of stratum included in sample
baby boomers	2,396	1.9%	46
Generation X	2,147	1.9%	41
Generation Y	1,042	1.9%	20
Total	5,585		107

Note: The percentage of members of each stratum included in the sample was determined by calculating the sampling fraction and multiplying it by 100. Sampling fraction was determined by dividing the desired sample size by the study population.

Specifically, this sampling process used the proportionate stratified sampling which means that the number of individuals selected from each stratum was proportional to the size of the population in that stratum (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). In addition, the probability of selecting each sample was the same across all strata. This sampling

technique ensured adequate representation of different groups of the population in the sample. The aim (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008) was to increase the level of accuracy when estimating parameters. It also had a cost advantage when compared to other sampling methods. Like other sampling techniques, stratified sampling suffers from some commonly known sampling problems such as missing elements, foreign elements, and duplicates. I derived the sample frame from Workday, an integral part of SPS, a Maryland State government database managed by DBM and used by all agencies under SPMS. The Workday gives detailed profiles of both filled and vacant budgeted (permanent) positions in SPMS.

Eligibility Criteria for Study Participants

In order to avoid the incidence of sample error and bias, no predetermined eligibility criteria was set for participants in this study except as defined by the characteristics of the study population. Because of the decision to keep all other dimensions of diversity silent, the demographic characteristics of the sample/participants were limited to generational divisions and types of service. Tables 14 and 15 show the population samples by service and generational groups respectively.

Table 14

Population Sample by Type of Service

Type of Service	# of Employees	Percentage of Sample
Skilled	4512	80.8%
Professional	1073	19.2%
Total	5585	100%

Table 15

Population Sample by Generational Groups

Generational Groups	Number of Employees	Percentage of Sample
baby boomers	2396	42.9%
Generation X	2147	38.4%
Generation Y	1042	18.7%
Total	5585	100%

Instrumentation and Materials

Choosing an appropriate instrument is central to the issue of measurement validity. The use of inappropriate and invalidated instrument could lead to flawed measurement of the research variables. This issue received adequate attention in this study considering the challenge in meticulously ensuring that I selected the most appropriate instrument from a myriad of available alternatives.

Instrumentation/Data Collections Tools

I collected the data for this research by using the online survey technique. As a result of the expansion and increasing influence of information technology coupled with relatively easy access to computers and the internet in recent time, internet-based survey research has become popular (Bernard, 2013; Sue & Ritter, 2012).

Similarly, the use of questionnaire as the measurement instrument is in recognition of its strengths and suitability for social science research. Motivation can only be studied indirectly through output or through self-reports, which makes it difficult to measure as a variable (Yang & Guy, 2006). For this reason, according to Yang and Guy (2006), survey questionnaires are the most common instruments for

measuring motivation. The advantages of this instrument include its cost effectiveness when compared to face-to-face interviews. This is especially evident when large sample sizes and geographic areas are involved. Because most people are familiar with questionnaires, respondents prefer them to face-to-face or telephone interviews. Questionnaires reduce the incidence of bias. There is uniformity and standardization in the questions presented thereby eliminating the possibility of any intermediary bias. They are more objective due to the absence of verbal or visual clues from the researcher that could influence the respondent. In essence, questionnaires are less intrusive than telephone or face-to-face- surveys. The advent of computer software has made questionnaires easy to analyze. These advantages enhanced the reliability and validity of the instrument and eventually the result of the research.

A major shortcoming anticipated in using this instrument for the dissertation research was the possibility of low response rate. In addition, as structured instruments, questionnaires do not allow respondents enough flexibility in terms of response format. The respondents had no opportunity to qualify their statements or answers. The researcher also lost the opportunity to explain any points in the questionnaire that respondents might misinterpret.

The Survey Instrument

Various instruments already exist for measuring motivation, but the motivational factors they measure vary depending on the approach taken by the developers of the instruments and the motivation measured. For example, different tests with different scales are used to measure general motivation, work motivation, academic motivation,

and athletic motivation (Mayer, Faber, & Xu, 2007). In terms of work motivation, the instruments may measure individual, organizational, or job factors. With particular reference to the study of generational age groups and their work motivation, Yang and Guy (2006) employed the GSS instrument using self-reported measures of job characteristics in studying work motivators and management implications among Gen Xers and boomers. This research made use of WPI as the data collection instrument. I discussed this instrument in the next section.

The Research Questionnaire

As stated in Chapter 2, the questionnaire for this study was the WPI developed by Amabile et al. (1994). I used the WPI without changes. In other words, I adopted it wholesale. Before then, I received permission from Professor Teresa Amabile to use the questionnaire. I attached the permission as Appendix F. WPI is a personality instrument designed specifically to assess differences in individual intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations. There are two versions of the instrument: the college student and working adult versions. Although the developers designed both versions of WPI to capture the major elements of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, this study adopted the working adult version. This version is particularly more suitable for this study than the student version since the entire study population consists only of adult workers (employees). In addition, being a personality instrument, WPI is suitable for assessing the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational preferences of the different age generations under study because as stated earlier, members of each generation share a common persona. In addition to its popularity in social science research, WPI reflects the various dimensions

of both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as conceptualized in this research. Amabile et al. (1994), the developers of WPI, once wrote that:

The instrument is scored on two primary scales, each subdivided into two secondary scales. WPI has meaningful factor structures, adequate internal consistency, good short-term test-retest reliability, and good long-term stability. Moreover, WPI scores are related in meaningful ways to other questionnaire and behavioral measures of motivation, as well as personality characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors. (p. 950).

Apart from participants' demographic information, the questionnaire contains 30 items with close-ended questions or statements. Fifteen of the items are designed to measure intrinsic motivation. Examples of the intrinsic motivation measuring items are:

- I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me.
- I enjoy trying to solve complex problems.
- I am more comfortable when I can set my own goals.
- It is important for me to be to do what I most enjoy.
- I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks.

The other 15 items measure extrinsic motivation. These include:

- I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn.
- I prefer working on projects with clearly specified procedures.
- I am less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it.
- I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself.
- To me, success means doing better than other people.

The questionnaire instrument is Appendix B.

Response rate. As stated earlier, a major weakness of survey research is the low response from participants. The maximum response rate anticipated for this study was 52.7%, based on the work of Baruch and Holtom (2008). Baruch and Holtom (2008) examined the response rates for surveys used in organizational research. By analyzing 1607 studies published in the years 2000 and 2005 in 17-refereed academic journals, Baruch and Holtom (2008) identified 490 that utilized surveys. Further examination of the 490 studies covering more than 100,000 organizations and 400,000 individual respondents revealed that the average response rate for studies that utilized data collected from individuals was 52.7% with a standard deviation of 20.4. On the other hand, the average response rate for studies that utilized data collected from organizations was 35.7% with a standard deviation of 18.8 (Baruch & Holtom, 2008).

Research has also shown that web based surveys yield lower response rates compared to mail surveys (Fan & Yan, 2010; Millar & Dillman, 2011). However, this is not always the case. Web based survey response rate can vary depending on a number of factors such as the survey population, research topic, and survey burden (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Fan and Yan (2010) added that the factors affecting the response rate of the web survey are so numerous and varied that they are found in the four stages of the entire web survey process. The four stages of the web survey are the development, delivery, return, and completion stages (Fan & Yan, 2010). Each stage presents different challenges and factors that have potential influence on the web response rate (Fan & Yan,

2010). A response rate of 30% was acceptable for this study, being the average rate achieved when using online surveys (Dommeyer, Baum, Hanna, & Chapman, 2004).

To enhance the chance of achieving an adequate response rate for this study, the length of the survey questionnaire was limited to three pages. This was a reasonable length for the questionnaire considering that, although very short questionnaires (one or two pages) may not be laborious or unduly taxing, respondents may not take such questionnaires very seriously (Fife-Schaw, 2012). The questions were close-ended except a few on demographics. As Sue and Ritter (2012) suggested, this researcher notified participants by email in advance of the survey. In the email, I informed the participants about the study's approval by both DHR and IRB and how I selected each of them for participation in the study. I informed the participants also that they had a maximum period of three weeks to complete the questionnaire. I sent the second and third email reminders to participants who failed to complete the questionnaire two weeks after I first sent it with a web link to the survey. Additionally, I expected that the respondents should possess a functional level of education. I presumed that everyone in the two job categories covered in this study had this level of education, which is, on average, a high school diploma or General Educational Development (GED).

As a strategy to achieve a higher response rate, given the fact that the initial response rate was less than anticipated, I extend the deadline for completing the survey by one week. I communicated this extension of time by email to the participants who had not completed the survey. Although this measure shored up the response rate slightly to the 30% threshold set for this research for using an online survey technique, the number

of participants remained relatively small. Despite this, however, I continued with the research and conducted it in line with the approved proposal, using the responses from the few participants. Regardless of the fact also that there is no rule of thumb or scientifically proven standard by which a response rate can be considered acceptable (Bennett & Nair, 2010; Johnson & Wislar, 2012), the smallness of the survey respondents was reported in Chapter 5 as a limitation to this study. In addition, although non-response bias is a major concern in survey research, there is no evidence specifically linking online surveys with low response rates to bias in research findings (Coates, Tilbrook, Guthrie & Bryant, 2006). Non-response bias occurs when some participants decide to avoid answering certain questions or when those who did not respond to the survey are significantly different from those who responded (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). An assessment was made of the potential for non-response bias by determining whether majority of the non-responders belonged to any particular cohort. This entailed sorting the number of non-responders according to the three categories of employees under study and comparing the numbers with the sampled participants. The assumption was that the low response rate would likely bias the results in favor of the other groups if majority of the non-responders belonged to any particular cohort. Indeed, the representativeness of the survey participants was of greater concern than just the response rate itself (Johnson & Wislar, 2012).

Reliability and Validity of Instrument

An important characteristic of a good measure is that it must be valid. This means that the instrument should measure what it is supposed to measure. The survey

instrument, WPI, used for this research is widely used as a research tool in numerous disciplines such as public administration, business management, education, psychology, and sociology. For example, it was used for illustration in Aamodt's (2010) book titled *Industrial/Organizational Psychology: An Applied Approach*. In an article titled "Revisiting Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation," this same instrument was used to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Bateman & Crant, n.d.). As of June 8, 2013, this instrument had been cited 1016 times by scholars and researchers, which speaks volumes about its popularity and general acceptance. The instrument is also rated highly on reliability. It has been determined to have good short-term test-retest reliability (Amabile et al., 1994; Hadi & Adil, 2010). In addition, the test-retest reliability of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, the two primary scales of the instrument, are reported to be .89 and .80 respectively (Hadi & Adil, 2010). These data made the use of WPI very attractive as a measurement instrument for this research.

Completing the Instrument

Completing the questionnaire was simple and took less than 10 minutes. The questionnaire was pilot-tested with 10 employees to assess the difficulty in completing the questionnaire and the approximate time needed to complete it. I arbitrarily chose the pilot participants from a list of DHR employees personally known to me but without consideration for their gender, age, or generational grouping. The pilot participants were not included in the final participant groups, and the pilot questionnaire had a section in the end for the pilot participants to comment on their experiences in terms of the difficulty and time spent in completing the questionnaire.

Data for the Variables

The data for the independent variable was nominal while the dependent variable was ordinal. Nominal variables are measured by categories that differ from one another in the name only. In other words, the units of study (people, organizations, or events) are sorted into unordered categories, for example, male or female (Fowler, Jr., 2009). All the categories of a nominal variable are treated as equal, even though they could be assigned numbers that do not necessarily signify any real difference in value or rank. This means that no category is seen as greater or smaller in quantity, higher or lower in rank than another category. The problem with this data is that it has very limited statistical manipulations. For example, it is not possible to calculate the mean or standard deviation (SD) of nominal data.

In the case of ordinal variables, the units of study are ordered or placed in ordered categories along a single dimension such as very good, good, fair, or poor (Fowler, Jr., 2009). The problem with ordinal data is that it requires more complex and difficult statistical tools, such as the Kruskal-Wallis test, to analyze the data especially when it relates to Likert or other scales in surveys. Ordinal data are sometimes converted and treated as interval data to mitigate the complexity and difficulty associated with the analysis of ordinal data. I adopted this approach for this study despite the controversy surrounding its adequacy for analyzing survey data (Allen & Seaman, 2007). I discussed, in subsequent sections, the strategies for collecting the data for this research and the selection of appropriate statistical tools for analyzing the data.

Data Collection

Vogt (2007) had argued that any research design could be used to collect either quantitative or qualitative data so the battle between the “Quants” and “Quals” has more to do with measurement and analysis than design. This section is devoted to discussing the types of data for the study, the method of data collection, the variables, and their validity of measurement.

Types and Sources of Data

This study made use of primary data derived from the survey questionnaire. The researcher personally collected the data for the study freshly and directly, and specifically for this investigation. I discussed, in the next section, the process of recruiting research participants, and for collecting the required data.

Recruitment and Data Collection Process

Sue and Ritter (2012) found that the six common methods of recruiting online survey participants are by e-mail invitation, link to the survey on a website, interstitial (pop-up) window, mobile device, social media, and offline methods. Sue and Ritter (2012) further suggested that it is advisable, when possible, to use combined methods for recruiting participants in order to minimize coverage bias. I pre-notified participants, by email, about the survey and invited them to participate in the study. Email invitation is the most common method of recruiting participants in internet surveys (Fowler, Jr., 2009). The notification cum invitation were sent from this researcher’s work email to the potential participants’ work email addresses, hosted by the same email host in the same domain name as that of the researcher. An email list for the participants was compiled

and used later to send the survey using SurveyMonkey software. This helped assure potential participants of the legitimacy of the survey, make them more receptive to the survey by reducing the possibility of treating it as junk or unsolicited email, and ultimately increase the response rate (Sue & Ritter, 2012). I sent the questionnaire to the participants three days after the notification/invitation. I created the questionnaire on SurveyMonkey software with the informed consent as the first page (home page). Then, I uploaded the participants' email addresses into the SurveyMonkey software. The software automatically inserted the survey link when I sent the emails.

The SurveyMonkey recorded responses to the questionnaires instantly and tracked them automatically. The software also had SPSS integration for analyzing the data. This approach is one of the methods used most often for online surveys because it is economical, and fast to create and deploy (Sue & Ritter, 2012).

In general, internet-based surveys have become very popular because they are easy to build and to administer (Bernard, 2013). They save time and cost, and are capable of attracting a large pool of potential respondents (Fowler, Jr., 2009; Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009; Sturgis, 2012; Symonds, 2011). Respondents have the time to provide thoughtful answers to the questions and to double check their records if necessary (Fowler, Jr., 2009). Additionally, internet surveys make it possible for both researcher and participants to watch the data results instantaneously as they are being compiled (Buchanan & Hvizdak, 2009). In sum, the efficiency of internet-based surveys manifests at every stage of the survey process from design to dissemination, data storage,

and analysis (Greenlaw & Brown-Welty, 2009). However, internet surveys are prone to suffer from the incidence of sample frame and response bias (Windle & Rolfe, 2010).

Data Analysis

The researcher analyzed the data for this research in two stages using the SPSS. The first stage was to organize and summarize the data set using descriptive statistics presented in the form of frequency tables and charts. The second stage made use of inferential statistics to, as Carlucci and Daniel (In Breakwell et al., 2012) put it, “make statements about the (research) population” (p. 193). The discussion began with a recap of the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In consideration of the growing interest in diversity, especially generational age differences, and its organizational impact, I designed this study to examine motivational strategies toward realizing the full potential of the workforce with four generations co-existing and working together for the first time in history. I used three of the generational cohorts for this purpose. The generations are the baby boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. I excluded the Veterans from the study because their population in the workplace has depleted so much over the years. Given the importance of motivation in any effort to realize the full potential of individuals or groups, it became pertinent to pose a fundamental question as to whether different generational age groups respond differently to different motivators broadly classified as intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. I developed three specific questions to address this issue.

1. Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?
2. Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?
3. Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

Based on the above stated research questions the following hypotheses were developed.

H₀1a: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H_a1a: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H₀1b: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1b: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H₀1c: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1c: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_{a2}: There is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_{03a}: The baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H_{a3a}: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_{03b}: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H_{a3b}: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation Y.

H_{03c}: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_{a3c}: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_{03d}: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_{a3d}: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

Statistical Tools for Data Analysis

Researchers have two options when analyzing ordinal data (Choi, Peter, & Mueller, 2010; Harwell & Gatti, 2001). The first option is to employ statistical methods that are designed specifically for analyzing ordinal data, which include nonparametric procedures such as Kruskal-Wallis test. The second option is to rescale the data (ordinal) to an interval scale. Conversion of ordinal data to the interval scale produces values for mean and standard deviation (SD) which require standard parametric procedures such as Pearson's correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and so on.

Choosing between these two alternatives has been the subject of a longstanding debate. Proponents of the first option (those against rescaling of ordinal data) do not consider mean and standard deviation as valid parameters for descriptive statistics when

dealing with ordinal data (Jakobsson, 2004). Because the distance or interval between the categories of ordinal data is unknown, they argued that even the higher efficiency usually associated with parametric methods is derived mostly from interval and ratio data and not from ordinal data. On the other hand, there is a contention that because most statistical techniques are robust, the results will not be different even if ordinal data are treated as if they were interval (De Vaus, 2002). However, it has been shown from the existing literature that most researchers prefer the conversion of ordinal data to the interval scale before analyzing the data (Gadermann et al., 2012; Harwell & Gatti, 2001). The common practice, in essence, is to treat the summated rating scale as a quantitative, not a rank-order scale (Vogt, 2007).

Originally, the dependent variable for this study would have been ordinal, but based on the considerations discussed earlier the data were rescaled to the interval level. The process of rescaling entailed summarizing the ordinal scales, finding the mean value, and computing the corresponding standard deviation (Jakobsson, 2004). For the above reasons, the statistical tools employed for analyzing the research data were mean, standard deviation (SD), the correlation coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and t-test. Mean and standard deviation (SD) are descriptive statistics that I used for summarizing, organizing and describing the data for this research. I placed more emphasis on inferential statistical tools and procedures to test relationships and differences. Based on the test results from the sample data, I was able to draw inferences to the population.

Correlation analysis. The first research question posed by this study was about the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Based on the research question, this researcher hypothesized that there is a positive relationship/correlation between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of members of each generational cohort. I used a correlation analysis to test this hypothesis.

The two types of correlation most commonly used for data analysis are the Pearson's and Spearman's correlation. The choice between the two depends on several factors including the relationship they are intended to measure and the data involved. I used the Pearson's correlation for this research. It is used when the researcher's interest is to determine the relationship between variables that are measured on either ratio or interval scale (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). The use of Spearman correlation, on the other hand, is appropriate when measurement of the variables is on ordinal scale (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). Pertinently, this research made use of interval data derived by conversion of ordinal data. In addition, while Pearson's correlation measures the degree of the linear relationship between two variables, Spearman correlation measures nonlinear relationships. I used the Pearson's correlation coefficient to test the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, as two different interval variables, among members of each of the three generational groups chosen for the study.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA). One of the objectives of this study as expressed in the second research question was to determine if the three generational age groups covered in this study differ in their motivational preferences along the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation divide. Considering that there are two dependent variables in this

study, my first instinct favored the use of MANOVA in preference to ANOVA to test the hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age. The use of ANOVA for a data analysis involving more than one dependent variable involves conducting multiple ANOVAs, which I considered as a duplication or triplication of efforts depending on how many of them a researcher needs to conduct. Because of their similarity, it is important to emphasize that what distinguishes between ANOVA and MANOVA most is the number of dependent variables involved. ANOVA is the option chosen when the analysis involves only one dependent variable while MANOVA deals with more than one (multiple) dependent variables at the same time (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). Despite MANOVA's ability to handle more than one dependent variable at the same time, I finally settled for ANOVA because of its simplicity and appropriateness for both small and large samples (Norman, 2010). In addition, many researchers prefer this procedure (Pallant, 2013). Figure 5 reflects the composition of the variables for the study.

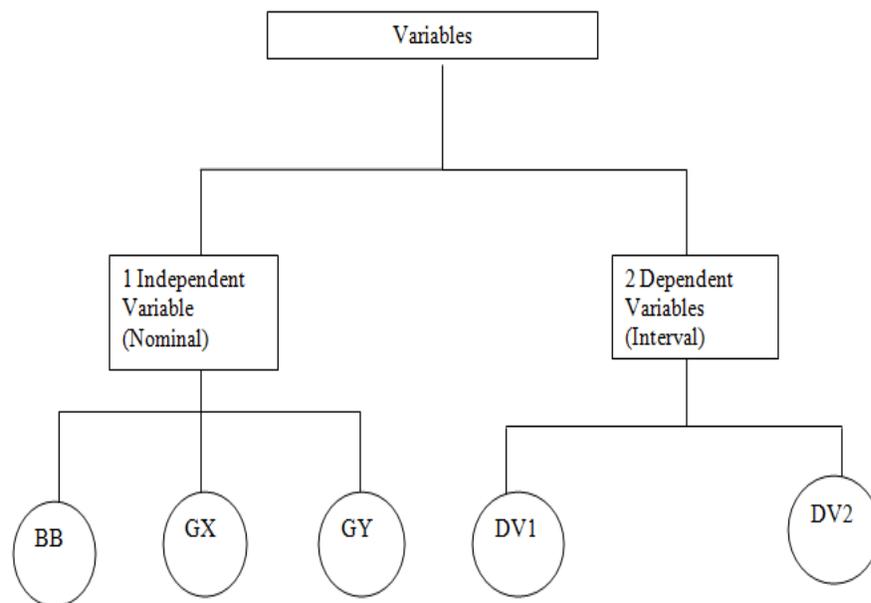


Figure 5: Decision tree reflecting multiple (2) dependent variables for analysis. BB = baby boomers; GX = Generation X; GY = Generation Y (The 3 categories of the independent variable—Generational Age). DV1 = Dependent Variable 1 (Intrinsic Motivation). DV2 = Dependent Variable 2 (Extrinsic Motivation).

T-test for paired observations. The third, and final, research question sought to determine if any generational age group in the public sector is motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups. The hypothesis that seeks to address this question states that baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X and Generation Y, while Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers and Generation X. I tested the hypothesis by using a *t*-test for paired observations, alternatively known as paired difference *t*-test or paired-samples *t*-test.

Protection of Participants' Rights

This study adhered strictly to the ethical principles stipulated in the Belmont Report of 1979, namely the principles of respect for persons (participants), beneficence,

and justice. This study is a survey research and did not involve participants from special populations such as children, mentally retarded/ill, prisoners, and other special populations. Participants were only identified by codes. The Belmont report provides that:

Research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects is limited to educational tests, survey procedures, or observation of public behavior are exempt from IRB approval (Fowler, Jr., 2009).

The only exception to this waiver is if information is recorded in such a way that human subjects can be identified, and any disclosure of the human subjects' responses could reasonably place subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation (Fowler, Jr., 2009). Although this study adopted the survey procedures and met the conditions for exemption from IRB approval, it was still subjected to the university's IRB approval process before embarking on the collection of data. This cautious approach ensured that nothing was taken for granted in protecting the interest and privacy of participants, and to make sure that the protocol met the required standard (Fowler, Jr., 2009). The IRB approval letter (08-26-15-0057932) is attached as Appendix D. Additionally, I received approval from DHR for the use of the department's employees and personnel database for this study. The letter of approval from DHR is attached as Appendix E.

The homepage for the survey had an informed consent section to ensure that prospective participants understood the purpose and procedures as well as the risks and benefits associated with the study and were willing to participate in the study voluntarily

without undue influence or coercion. The informed consent of participants also enhanced the integrity of the research. I directed participants to read the informed consent first and informed them that by taking and submitting the survey I would consider them to have given their permission for inclusion in the study.

Summary

This chapter provided insight into the procedure for the research. Starting with the clarification of the study population, it explained the strategy for determining the appropriate sample size and choosing the sample for the study. The data collection instrument was described, highlighting its appropriateness and reliability for the purpose of this study. It also explained the parametric statistical tools chosen for the data analysis such as Pearson's Correlation and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The reasons for choosing these parametric statistical tools in preference to nonparametric tools were further explained recognizing the fact that the dependent variable for the study was originally ordinal. The participants' confidentiality and the measures to protect it were addressed. The steps necessary for complying with the requirements of the Belmont report with respect to human research were also discussed. It emphasized the need for participants to read the consent form before completing the questionnaire.

The results of the study are presented in chapter 4. The three inferential analyses (Pearson's correlation, ANOVA, and *t*-test) conducted yielded mixed results. The Pearson's correlation analysis revealed positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of baby boomers and Generation X, and no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y.

The ANOVA analysis indicated no significant difference in the intrinsic motivation of the three generational groups studied. Similarly, the results of the *t*-tests confirmed that baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X or Generation Y, and Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers or Generation X.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

I designed this study to examine and understand the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation in the public sector. As noted in the literature review, there is a shortage of research and literature on this issue. This study helped to ameliorate the shortage. It was revealed in Chapter 2 that generational cohorts differ in many respects, including their socio-economic values and behaviors. Although it has been argued (Magnuson & Alexander, 2008; Twenge, 2010) that generational age groups are motivated differently, little was known about how public sector employees of different generational ages respond to motivational factors and strategies in the workplace. Hence, I chose to predicate this study on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory first propounded by Deci (1971). Approval to conduct the study was received from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) on August 26, 2015. The IRB approval number for the study is 08-26-15-0057932.

As shown below, three research questions and their corresponding hypotheses were articulated and explored to achieve the purpose of this study.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?

H₀1a: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H_a1a: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H₀1b: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1b: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H₀1c: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1c: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

RQ2: Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

RQ3: Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

H₀3a: The baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H_a3a: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H₀3b: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H_a3b: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation Y.

H₀3c: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_a3c: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H₀3d: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_a3d: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

This chapter includes the following: the data for this research, a description of the research, and an analysis of the data to test the hypotheses for the study. Issues discussed include the data collection procedures, timeframe for the data collection, data screening, descriptive and inferential statistics used for the data analysis.

Data Collection

I used the proportionate stratified sampling technique to select the participants in this study. WPI was used as the data collection instrument with written permission from the author. I administered the instrument online using the SurveyMonkey software, and analyzed the data with SPSS.

Selection of Participants

As of September 2, 2015, the number of DHR employees in the skilled and professional service categories, and who were born between 1946 and 2000 was 5585. The number of baby boomers—those born between 1946 and 1964—was 2396. Those who belong to Generation X (1965-1980) were 2147 in number, and Generation Y members—born between 1981 and 2000—were 1042. These statistics were extracted from DHR's employee database housed in the Statewide Personnel System (SPS) with the help of the manager, human resources information system (HRIS). Table 16 shows a breakdown of DHR employees in the skilled and professional services according to generational groupings. September 2, 2015 was used as the cut-off date to extract these statistics because that was the last date when the employee database was updated to

reflect the most recent hires and disengagements before the selection process commenced. New hires join the agency on a bi-weekly basis, so the agency updates its employee database bi-weekly to meet that schedule.

Table 16

DHR Employees in Skilled and Professional Services Born 1946 – 2000 as of 9/2/2015

Birth Years/Generation	Number of Employees
1946-1964 (baby boomers)	2396
1965-1980 (Generation X)	2147
1981-2000 (Generation Y)	1042
Total	5585

Note. From DHR Employee Database in Maryland Statewide Personnel System (SPS)

Based on a required minimum sample of 32 participants estimated by the use of G*Power and an anticipated minimum response rate of 30%, I determined that 107 potential participants were needed for the survey. It was also realized that one employee must be selected from every subgroup of 52 employees to be able to select the 107 potential participants in the survey. To ensure that each of the 5585 employees had an equal opportunity of being selected, there was a need to determine a random number that would serve as my starting point in selecting potential participants in the study. Using an electronic Random Number Generator (RNG), I determined that 28 is the random number between one and 52 that would serve as the starting point in making the selection. Counting off every 52nd employee after the 28th person in each generational group, I finally selected the 107 potential participants needed for the survey. This consisted of 46 baby boomers, 41 members of Generation X, and 20 participants from Generation Y.

Time Frame for Data Collection

The data collection process started with a pilot survey to test the data collection instrument, WPI, after I received approval from Walden University's IRB to conduct the research. The purpose of the pilot study was to assess the difficulty in completing the questionnaire and the approximate time needed to complete it. The pilot survey, comprising the questionnaire and informed consent form, was sent on September 30, 2015, to 10 pilot participants who were arbitrarily drawn from a list of DHR employees whom I knew without consideration for their gender, age, or generational grouping. The informed consent form met the standards stipulated by the U.S. Department of Health & Human Services and was approved by the Walden University's IRB.

Pilot participants were asked to respond to the survey within 1 week. Six (60%) of the pilot participants responded within the stipulated timeframe. There were no reminders or extension of time for the pilot survey. The pilot survey participants reported that the survey questions were clear, and the survey structure itself was easy to understand. They also reported that completing the survey required less than 10 minutes. I presented a detailed descriptive analysis of responses from the pilot participants later under data analysis.

On October 13, 2015, I sent notifications to the 107 potential participants notifying them of their invitation to participate in the research. On October 20, 2015, I sent the main survey (questionnaire and consent form) to the 107 potential participants. The first and second (final) reminders were sent to participants with the survey on November 5 and 12, 2015, respectively. The survey closed on November 19, 2015.

Data Analysis

Data Screening Procedures

Pallant (2013) suggested that data should be checked or screened for errors before being analyzed. On conclusion of the data collection process for this study, I downloaded the raw data from SurveyMonkey portal into an Excel spreadsheet. Then, the data were reviewed for missing or inappropriate responses and outliers. Two responses were rejected. The first one was rejected because the respondent failed to answer the demographic question that was designed to place him/her in one of the three generational groups studied. The second was rejected because the respondent failed to answer all of the survey questions. The next step I took was to adjust the data to account for the fact that five items on the data collection instrument, the WPI, were reverse scored. Finally, the resulting dataset from 35 respondents was uploaded to SPSS for analysis.

Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

I used descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics were used for analyzing responses from the pilot study to determine the difficulty and average time needed to complete the questionnaire. I also used descriptive statistics for organizing and summarizing the demographic data from the main survey in form of percentages and tables. In terms of inferential statistics, I used parametric tests (Pearson's correlation, ANOVA and *t*-tests) to test the research hypotheses and to answer the associated research questions. Pearson's correlation was used to test hypothesis I to determine the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of members of each of the three generational groups studied. ANOVA was used to test hypothesis II that

sought to determine if there were significant differences among the three generational age groups studied in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The third hypothesis was tested using *t*-tests to determine if any generational age group in the public sector is more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated than the other groups.

Descriptive Analysis: The Pilot Survey

Participants in the pilot survey were asked to respond to three questions. First, the participants were asked to estimate how long it took them to complete the survey. One respondent completed the survey in 2 minutes. It took three respondents 3 minutes each to complete the survey. Two other respondents spent 7 minutes each to complete the survey. Table 17 is a frequency table showing a breakdown of the six respondents according to the length of time spent by individuals in completing the survey.

Table 17

Frequency Table Showing Time Spent by Respondents to Complete the Survey

Time in Minutes. (<i>x</i>)	Number of Respondents (<i>f</i>)	Total (<i>fx</i>)
1	0	0
2	1	2
3	3	9
4	0	0
5	0	0
6	0	0
7	2	14
8	0	0
9	0	0
10	0	0
Total	$\sum f = 6$	$\sum fx = 25$

Note. $n = 6$. Average time spent by respondents (Mean) = $\sum fx / \sum f = 25/6 = 4.12$ mins.

As can be deduced from Table 17 above, the pilot participants spent an average of approximately 4 minutes in completing the pilot survey. This confirmed, as anticipated, that the survey would only take a maximum of 10 minutes to complete.

The second question asked participants to indicate the items/questions that were not clear to them. None of the six respondents indicated that any of the questionnaire items was not clear. However, they observed and reported in their responses that two questions were duplicated. This was corrected before administering the main survey. The third question sought to determine how difficult it was for participants to complete the survey. Participants were asked to choose one of the following options:

- (a) Very difficult
- (b) Difficult
- (c) Neither difficult nor easy
- (d) Easy
- (e) Very easy

Five people responded to this question. Table 18 shows the responses from participants.

Table 18

Pilot Participants' Responses on the Difficulty in Completing the Survey

Responses	Number of Respondents	Cumulative Number of Respondents
Very Difficult	0	0
Difficult	0	0
Neither Difficult Nor Easy	0	0
Easy	2	2
Very Easy	3	5

Note. n = 5

Two (40%) of those who responded to this question said the survey was easy to complete, while three (60%) stated that it was very easy. Therefore, the results confirmed that, as anticipated, completing the survey was very easy.

Descriptive Analysis: Main Survey

Total responses received at the close of the survey on November 19, 2015, was 37, yielding a response rate of approximately 35%. Two responses were rejected because one of the respondents failed to answer the demographic question that was designed to place the respondent in one of the three generational groups studied. The second response rejected was as a result of the failure of the respondent to answer all of the survey questions. To be included in the study, a participant must have been an employee of DHR born between 1946 and 2000 who was in the skilled or professional services. It is pertinent to state, however, that although the targeted age range for the study is 1946-2000, minors (17 years and under) were automatically excluded because the agency does not employ minors as permanent full time workers. Table 19 shows a breakdown of the valid responses based on generational age grouping.

Table 19

Valid Survey Responses from Different Generational Age Groups

Generational Group	No. of Responses
baby boomers	15
Generation X	16
Generation Y	4
Total	35

Note. $N = 35$

Table 19 reveals that baby boomers submitted 15 valid responses. Members of Generation X submitted 16 valid responses, and four were from Generation Y. Table 20 shows a breakdown of the valid responses based on the respondents' service categories.

Table 20

Valid Survey Responses Based on Service Categories

Service Category	No. of Responses
Skilled	11
Professional	24
Total	35

Note. $N = 35$

Inferential Statistics: Main Survey

I used SPSS to analyze the data derived from the main survey to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. The first research question centered on the relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of generational groups employed in the public sector. It was intended to determine if there is a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group of employees in the public sector because Deci (1971) had suggested that extrinsic motivation has an undermining effect on intrinsic motivation. So, as a first step to examining and determining if different generations respond differently to intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, it was considered important to confirm if Deci's theory holds true among different generational age groups. Thus, the first research question (RQ) for this study and its corresponding hypothesis were predicated on this line of inquiry.

RQ1: Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?

H₀1a: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

H_a1a: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation in the public sector.

The first 15 items of the WPI assessed participants' intrinsic motivations and the other 15 items measured their extrinsic motivations. To examine research question 1 (RQ1), I computed the mean values of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation items for each generational age group and conducted a Pearson's correlation analysis using SPSS.

Table 21 presents the result of the Pearson's correlation analysis to test the hypothesis that there is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation.

Table 21

Correlations: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations of baby boomers

		Extrinsic Score	Intrinsic Score
Extrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	1	.862**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	15	15
Intrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	.862**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	15	15

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

The result shows that the analysis yielded a Pearson's correlation coefficient value of 0.862 ($r = 0.862$). This is an indication of a strong positive correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of members of the baby boomer generation based on the guidelines Cohen (1988) suggested in determining the strength of the relationship. Irrespective of the direction of the relationship, Cohen (1988) suggested the following guideline in determining its strength.

Small: When $r = .10$ to $.29$

Medium: When $r = .30$ to $.49$

Large: When $r = .50$ to 1.0

For the hypothesis being tested, this means that an increase in the extrinsic motivation of baby boomers is strongly correlated with an increase in their intrinsic motivation, and vice versa. To know if this correlation is statistically significant, I examined the Sig. (2-tailed) value, which the SPSS generated as .000. This value (.000) indicates that there is a statistically significant correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of baby boomers. In other words, there is a high level of confidence in the result obtained. In general, when Sig. (2-tailed) value is less than or equal to .05 ($\leq .05$), it is concluded that the correlation between the two variables is statistically significant. In this case, .000 is less than .05 ($.000 < .05$). Therefore, correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

I conducted a Pearson's correlation analysis with SPSS to examine the relationship between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of baby boomers. The result revealed that there is a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .862$, $n = 15$, p

= .000. In addition, the correlation is statistically significant. Thus, an increase in baby boomers' extrinsic motivation has a strong positive correlation with an increase in their intrinsic motivation.

H₀1b: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1b: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts in the public sector.

Table 22 shows the result of the Pearson's correlation analysis conducted to test the hypothesis that there is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation X.

Table 22

Correlations: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations of Generation X.

		Extrinsic Score	Intrinsic Score
Extrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	1	.602*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014
	N	16	16
Intrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	.602*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	
	N	16	16

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The result of this analysis is similar to the one for hypothesis 1(a). It shows a Pearson's correlation coefficient value of 0.602 ($r = 0.602$), which also indicates a strong positive correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of members of Generation X. The Sig. (2-tailed) value is .014, and because it is less than .05 ($.014 <$

.05), there is a statistically significant correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation X cohorts. This translates to a high level of confidence in the result obtained. Therefore, correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

I conducted another Pearson's correlation analysis with SPSS to examine the relationship between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation X. The result revealed that there is a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .602$, $n = 16$, $p = .014$. In addition, the correlation is statistically significant. Thus, an increase in the extrinsic motivation of members of Generation X has a strong positive correlation with an increase in their intrinsic motivation.

H₀1c: There is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

H_a1c: There is positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts in the public sector.

Table 23 shows the result of the Pearson's correlation analysis conducted to test the hypothesis that there is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y.

Table 23

Correlations: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y

		Extrinsic Score	Intrinsic Score
Extrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	1	-.856
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.144
	N	4	4
Intrinsic Score	Pearson's Correlation	-.856	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.144	
	N	4	4

The value of the Pearson's correlation coefficient for hypothesis 1(c) is -0.856 ($r = -0.856$), indicating a strong negative correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of members of Generation Y. The associated Sig. (2-tailed) value is .144, which is greater than .05 ($.144 > .05$). Therefore, there is no statistically significant correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts. This means that a high level of confidence cannot be placed in the result obtained. Therefore, correlation is not significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the three Pearson's correlation analyses conducted to test hypotheses 1(a), (b), and (c) confirm strong relationships (positive and negative) between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of the three generational age groups under study. While the correlations were statistically significant for hypotheses 1(a) and (b), the opposite was applicable to hypothesis 1(c). For the purpose of this study and as suggested by Pallant (2013), emphasis was placed on the strength of the relationship or association between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of the participants not on their statistical

significance. This is because the significance of a correlation depends on the sample size used (Pallant, 2013).

In conclusion, the results of the Pearson's correlation analyses support the alternative hypothesis that there is positive correlation (relationship) between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the baby boomer generation and Generation X cohorts. Hence, the null hypotheses were rejected in both cases. For Generation Y, the null hypothesis was supported that there is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts. In all, the results revealed that the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of members of different generational groups do not follow the same pattern.

RQ2: The results of the Pearson's correlation analyses conducted to test hypothesis I established that a relationship (positive or negative) exists between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of different generational age groups in the public sector. However, to get to the bottom of the purpose of this study, it was necessary also to determine whether the groups differ significantly in terms of their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. The second research question and hypothesis were articulated to address this issue. Hence, the question: Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?

H₀2: There is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

H_a2: There is a significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age.

My initial intention was to answer this research question by conducting a MANOVA analysis. However, because of the small sample available for this study, I chose to conduct a one-way, between groups ANOVA analysis instead. MANOVA is very sensitive to sample size. The benchmark requirement is that there should be more cases in each cell than the number of dependent variables for the research (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). MANOVA would have been appropriate, based on this benchmark requirement, because the least number of cases in the cells is four and is more than two, the number of dependent variables. However, larger sample sizes, as researchers have suggested, are preferred when conducting a MANOVA analysis (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). In fact, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommended a minimum sample size of 20 in each cell in order to achieve the robustness associated with MANOVA. Moreover, ANOVA is simple to conduct (Pallant, 2013). Below are the outputs the SPSS generated from the ANOVA analysis.

Table 24

One-Way Between-Groups ANOVA Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Generation	2.600	1	2.00	2	2
	2.800	1	2.00	2	2
	2.933	1	2.00	2	2
	3.000	2	1.50	.707	.500	-4.85	7.85	1	2
	3.067	3	1.33	.577	.333	-.10	2.77	1	2
	3.133	5	1.60	.548	.245	.92	2.28	1	2
	3.200	5	2.00	.707	.316	1.12	2.88	1	3
	3.267	5	1.20	.447	.200	.64	1.76	1	2
	3.333	5	2.00	1.000	.447	.76	3.24	1	3
	3.400	1	1.00	1	1
	3.467	3	2.00	.000	.000	2.00	2.00	2	2
	3.533	1	1.00	1	1
	3.600	1	1.00	1	1
	3.800	1	3.00	3	3
	Total	35	1.69	.676	.114	1.45	1.92	1	3
Intrinsic Score	2.600	1	2.93333	2.933	2.933
	2.800	1	2.66667	2.667	2.667
	2.933	1	2.80000	2.800	2.800
	3.000	2	2.83333	.047140	.033333	2.40979	3.25687	2.800	2.867
	3.067	3	2.93333	.400000	.230940	1.93968	3.92699	2.533	3.333
	3.133	5	3.08000	.029814	.013333	3.04298	3.11702	3.067	3.133
	3.200	5	3.18667	.280476	.125433	2.83841	3.53492	2.867	3.533
	3.267	5	3.26667	.141421	.063246	3.09107	3.44226	3.067	3.467
	3.333	5	3.28000	.086923	.038873	3.17207	3.38793	3.200	3.400
	3.400	1	3.46667	3.467	3.467
	3.467	3	3.24444	.101835	.058794	2.99147	3.49742	3.133	3.333
	3.533	1	3.60000	3.600	3.600
	3.600	1	3.60000	3.600	3.600
	3.800	1	3.20000	3.200	3.200
	Total	35	3.15810	.256210	.043307	3.07008	3.24611	2.533	3.600

Table 25

One-Way Between-Groups ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Generation	Between Groups	6.376	13	.490	1.124	.393
	Within Groups	9.167	21	.437		
	Total	15.543	34			
Intrinsic Score	Between Groups	1.460	13	.112	3.058	.011
	Within Groups	.771	21	.037		
	Total	2.232	34			

Table 26

Multiple Comparisons

Intrinsic Score

Turkey HSD

(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
baby boomer	Gen X	.11222	.067442	.255	-.06585	.29030
	Gen Y	-.12111	.105598	.504	-.39994	.15771
Gen X	baby boomer	-.11222	.067442	.255	-.29030	.06585
	Gen Y	-.23333	.104901	.104	-.51032	.04365
Gen Y	baby boomer	.12111	.105598	.504	-.15771	.39994
	Gen X	.23333	.104901	.104	-.04365	.51032

Note. Based on observed means

The error term is Mean Square (Error) = .035.

The result of the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not violated because the value of p was

greater than .05 ($p > .05$) for each of the two dependent variables—the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. The p value for extrinsic scores was .323 and .631 for intrinsic scores. Considering that the assumption of homogeneity of variances had not been violated, I proceeded to determine if there is a significant difference among the mean scores on the dependent variables for the three groups under study. As a rule, a Sig. value (p value) less than or equal to .05 ($p \leq .05$), means that there is a significant difference somewhere among the mean scores on the dependent variables for the groups (Pallant, 2013). Looking at the ANOVA table, $p = .011$ (i.e. $p < .05$), indicating that a significant difference exists among the groups' mean scores on intrinsic motivation.

Because the study involves three generational age groups and the result from the ANOVA analysis revealed a significant difference without identifying the particular groups that differ from each other, I conducted a multiple comparisons analysis as a post-hoc (follow-up) test. Follow-up tests are necessary to identify where significant differences actually exist whenever the independent variable has three or more levels and a significant difference is dictated from the ANOVA analysis (Pallant, 2013). Table 26 shows the results of the multiple comparisons analysis conducted, using the Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (Tukey's HSD) test. The first row compared baby boomers to Generation X and Generation Y. The second row compared Generation X to baby boomers and Generation Y. In the same manner, Generation Y was compared in the third row to baby boomers and Generation X. The comparisons did not reveal significant differences in the group means because none of them yielded a Sig. value equal to, or less than .05 ($p \leq .05$).

The comparison between baby boomers and Generation X showed that the two groups are not different (Mean difference = .11222; Sig. = .255). There was also no difference found between baby boomers and Generation Y (Mean difference = -.12111; Sig. = .504). Similar results were revealed when Generation X was compared to baby boomers (Mean difference = -.11222; Sig. = .255) and Generation Y (Mean difference = -.23333; Sig. = .104). The last row of the Tukey's HSD table comparing Generation Y to baby boomers and Generation X confirmed the results earlier reported that Generation Y is not different from the other two generational groups. The mean difference and Sig. values were .12111 and .504 when Generation Y was compared to baby boomers; .2333 and .104 when Generation Y was compared to Generation X. As a rule, Pallant (2013) explained that when there is an asterisk (*) next to any value listed in the Mean Difference (I-J) column of the Tukey's HSD table, then the two corresponding groups being compared are considered to be significantly different from one another at the $p < .05$ level. An examination of the Tukey's HSD test results in Table 26 revealed the absence of any asterisks (*) next to the values under the Mean Difference (I-J) column. This, thus, further confirms that no statistically significant differences were found to exist among the three generational groups in their intrinsic motivations.

Based on the results presented above, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is no significant difference in the intrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age. The same conclusion could not be specifically made in terms of the groups' extrinsic motivation because the SPSS output indicated that post-hoc tests were

not performed for the extrinsic scores because at least one group had fewer than two cases.

RQ3: Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

H₀3a: The baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H_a3a: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X.

I conducted an independent-samples *t*-test to determine if any generational age group is more intrinsically or extrinsically motivated than other groups. Tables 27 and 28 present the outputs generated from the SPSS analysis.

Table 27

Group Statistics for Independent-Samples T-test (baby boomers Vs Gen. X)

	Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extrinsic Score	baby boomer	15	3.25778	.168780	.043579
	Gen X	16	3.15000	.239134	.059784
Intrinsic Score	baby boomer	15	3.19556	.287812	.074313
	Gen X	16	3.08333	.236643	.059161

Table 28

Independent-Samples T-test (baby boomers Vs Gen. X)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Extrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	1.012	.323	1.441	29	.160	.107778	.074812	-.045231	.260786
	Equal variances not assumed			1.457	27.006	.157	.107778	.073981	-.044017	.259573
Intrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	.236	.631	1.189	29	.244	.112222	.094375	-.080797	.305242
	Equal variances not assumed			1.181	27.180	.248	.112222	.094986	-.082613	.307058

I followed the three steps suggested by Pallant (2013) in interpreting the output from the independent-samples *t*-test. I checked the statistical information in the group statistics to ensure there were no missing data about the groups. In particular, I checked the number, mean, and standard deviation for each of the groups being compared. The groups in this case are the baby boomer generation and Generation X. The number of baby boomer participants was 15 ($n = 15$), and the number of Generation X participants was 16 ($n = 16$). The mean and standard deviation of extrinsic motivation scores for baby boomers were 3.25778 and .168780. For Generation X, the mean and standard deviation were 3.15000 and .239134. The mean and standard deviation of intrinsic motivation scores for baby boomers were 3.19556 and .287812. On the other hand, the mean and

standard deviation of intrinsic motivation scores for Generation X were 3.08333 and .236643. These statistical data were all found to be correct.

In order to interpret the result of the independent-samples *t*-test, I first checked for the assumptions based on the results of the Levene's test for equality of variances; a test that reveals whether the variance of scores is the same for the groups compared (Pallant, 2013). The *t*-value for assessing the differences between the groups depends on the outcome of the Levene's test. From the independent samples *t*-test table above, the SPSS analysis produced two different *t*-values for both the groups' extrinsic and intrinsic scores based on whether equal variances were assumed or not assumed. A significant value for Levene's test larger than .05 ($p > .05$) indicates that equal variances is assumed. But a significant value for Levene's test equal to, or less than .05 ($p \leq .05$) signifies that equal variances is not assumed. In the case under review, equal variances was assumed because $p = .323$ and $.631$ for the extrinsic and intrinsic scores respectively. So, $p > .05$ for both scores and the assumption of equal variances was not violated in either case.

Finally, I determined the differences between the two groups (baby boomers and Generation X) in their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. I was guided by the rule (Pallant, 2013) that the line that indicates assumption of equal variances in the independent-samples *t*-test table should be used in determining the differences between the groups when the significant value for Levene's test is larger than .05. Conversely, the line which reveals that equal variances is not assumed should be used in determining the differences between the groups when the significant value for Levene's test is equal to, or less than .05.

With the above guidance in mind, I matched the corresponding value in the Sig. (2-tailed) column with the result of the Levene's test. The Sig. (2-tailed) column contains two values each for the groups' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores. The first value is associated with the assumption of equal variance and the second is associated with an assumption of unequal variance. Again, a Sig. (2-tailed) value equal to, or less than .05 indicates that there is a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable for each of the two groups (Pallant, 2013). If the Sig. (2-tailed) value is greater than .05 ($p > .05$), it means there is no significant difference between the groups. As shown earlier, the result of the Levene's test indicated an assumption of equal variance with significant values of .323 for the extrinsic score and .631 for intrinsic score. The Sig. (2-tailed) value corresponding to this Levene's test result for the extrinsic motivation score was .160, which is greater than .05. Based on these parameters, it was concluded that there is no significant difference between baby boomers and Generation X in their extrinsic motivations. Similarly, for the intrinsic score, the Sig. (2-tailed) value corresponding to this Levene's test result was .244, which is also greater than .05 leading to the conclusion that there is no significant difference between baby boomers and Generation X in their intrinsic motivations. This confirms the null hypothesis that baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X.

H₀3b: baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H_a3b: baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation Y.

Tables 29 and 30 present the outputs generated from the SPSS analysis comparing baby boomers and Generation Y based on their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.

Table 29

Group Statistics for Independent-Samples T-test (baby boomers Vs Gen. Y)

	Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extrinsic Score	baby boomer	15	3.25778	.168780	.043579
	Gen Y	4	3.41667	.263172	.131586
Intrinsic Score	baby boomer	15	3.19556	.287812	.074313
	Gen Y	4	3.31667	.083887	.041944

Table 30

Independent-Samples T-test (baby boomers Vs Gen. Y)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Extrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	1.042	.322	-1.495	17	.153	-.15889	.10630	-.38316	.06538
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.146	3.685	.321	-.15889	.13861	-.55709	.23931
Intrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	3.067	.098	-.817	17	.425	-.12111	.14831	-.43402	.19179
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.419	16.518	.174	-.12111	.08533	-.30155	.05933

To examine this hypothesis, I repeated the process I followed while exploring hypothesis III (a) starting with ensuring that information in the group statistics were correct without any missing data. In this case, while the statistics for baby boomers remained the same, the number of Generation Y participants was 4 ($n = 4$). The mean and

standard deviation of their extrinsic motivation scores were 3.41667 and .263172. The mean and standard deviation of their intrinsic motivation scores were 3.31667 and .083887. Each of these statistics was also found to be correct.

A comparison of the mean values of the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores for baby boomers and Generation Y revealed that the later recorded slightly higher mean scores on both their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations than the baby boomers. The mean score of extrinsic motivation for Generation Y was 3.41667 versus 3.25778 for baby boomers. Similarly, the mean value of the intrinsic motivation scores for Generation Y was 3.31667 versus 3.19556 for baby boomers.

Based on the result of the Levene's test, $p = .322$ and $.098$ for the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores respectively. So, $p > .05$ for both scores and equal variances was assumed in each case. The corresponding Sig. (2-tailed) value for the extrinsic motivation score was $.153$, which is greater than $.05$. This implies that there is no significant difference between baby boomers and Generation Y in their extrinsic motivations. Also, the Sig. (2-tailed) value corresponding to the Levene's test result for the intrinsic motivation score was $.425$. This is also greater than $.05$, meaning that there is no significant difference between baby boomers and Generation Y on their intrinsic motivations. This confirms the null hypothesis that baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation Y.

H₀3c: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H_a3c: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

I found there was no need to explore this hypothesis further because the purpose it was meant to serve had already been fulfilled while testing hypothesis III (b), which revealed that there is no significant difference between baby boomers and Generation Y in terms of their extrinsic motivations. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted that Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers.

H₀3d: Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

H_a3d: Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

Table 31

Group Statistics for Independent-Samples T-test (Gen. Y Vs Gen X)

	Generation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Extrinsic Score	Gen X	16	3.15000	.239134	.059784
	Gen Y	4	3.41667	.263172	.131586
Intrinsic Score	Gen X	16	3.08333	.236643	.059161
	Gen Y	4	3.31667	.083887	.041944

Table 32

Independent Samples T-test (Gen. Y Vs Gen. X)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Extrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	.037	.849	-1.961	18	.066	-.26667	.13601	-.55242	.01908
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.845	4.329	.133	-.26667	.14453	-.65619	.12285
Intrinsic Score	Equal variances assumed	3.943	.063	-1.908	18	.072	-.23333	.12227	-.49021	.02355
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.217	14.965	.006	-.23333	.07252	-.38794	-.07873

Note: Diff. = Difference

The group statistics related to this hypothesis revealed that there were no missing data. As indicated earlier, the number of Generation X participants was 16 ($n = 16$) and Generation Y participants were 4 ($n = 4$). The mean and standard deviation of the extrinsic motivation scores for Generation X were 3.15000 and .239134. The mean and standard deviation of the extrinsic motivation scores for Generation Y were 3.41667 and .263172. For the intrinsic scores, Generation X had a mean and standard deviation of 3.08333 and .236643; while Generation Y had 3.31667 and .083887. Again, the statistics were all confirmed to be correct. The significant values (p) for the Levene's test for equality of variances on the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores were .849 and .063. Each of these values is greater than .05 ($p > .05$), meaning that equal variances were

assumed for both groups on their extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores. Still, I was guided by the rule that when the significant value for Levene's test is larger than .05, the corresponding Sig. (2-tailed) value on the first line of the independent-samples *t*-test table indicating that equal variances is assumed is used in determining the difference between the two groups. The Sig. (2-tailed) values for the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores located on the first line of independent-samples *t*-test table (equal variances is assumed) were .066 and .072. Both values were greater than .05. This implies that there is no significant difference between Generation X and Generation Y in their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. This confirms the null hypothesis that Generation Y is not more extrinsically motivated than Generation X.

Summary

The results of the study were presented in this chapter starting with a recap of the research questions and hypotheses guiding the study. The chapter explained how I selected the research participants and categorized them in three generational groups. It captured also the timeframe for the data collection, which lasted from September 30, 2015, when the pilot survey was sent to the pilot participants to the close of the main survey on November 19, 2015. A descriptive analysis of the pilot survey results confirmed that the survey was very easy to complete in less than 10 minutes. Based on the inferential analyses conducted using Pearson's correlation, ANOVA, and *t*-test, the data support the existence of positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of baby boomers and Generation X. On the other hand, the results revealed that there is no positive correlation (relationship) between the intrinsic and

extrinsic motivations of Generation Y cohorts. In all, the results revealed that the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of members of different generational groups do not follow the same pattern.

The hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of public sector employees based on generational age was partially confirmed. The ANOVA analysis conducted to test the hypothesis revealed that there is no significant difference in the intrinsic motivation of public sector employees based on generational age. For the groups' extrinsic motivation, the result of the ANOVA analysis was inconclusive because the SPSS output indicated that post-hoc tests were not performed for the extrinsic scores because at least one group had fewer than two cases. Finally, the various hypotheses tested to determine if any generational age group in the public sector is motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups led to the conclusion that baby boomers are neither motivated more intrinsically than Generation X nor Generation Y. By the same token, Generation Y is neither more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers nor Generation X.

I presented a summary of, and further interpretation of the research findings in the next chapter (Chapter 5) to highlight how they align with the different perspectives discussed in the literature review. I also explained the limitations and implications of the study for positive social change in the chapter. Recommendations were as well made for future research and practice.

Chapter 5

Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Demographic elements constitute one of the six segments of the general environment in which organizations operate (Dess, Lumpkin, & Eisner, 2010). Other segments are socio-cultural, political/legal, technological, economic, and global. These segments of the organizational environment (sometimes referred to as factors) change constantly and have implications for an organization's strategies and survival. Demographics are at the root of many changes that take place in society (Dess et al., 2010). Demographics are used to demonstrate the diversity of a group, community, or the society. As identified in the earlier chapters, societal and organizational diversity includes generational age differences.

From a motivational perspective, I examined one aspect of diversity—generational age differences—in the public sector workplace. As stated in the study, generational age differences have attracted much attention recently. Yet, available literature on differences in generational motivational preferences has been ambiguous (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). This is the impetus for this study. Anchored on Deci's (1971) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory, this study was conducted for the purpose of examining and understanding the relationship between employee motivation and generational age differences in the public sector. In light of this, I formulated and tested three hypotheses to answer the following research questions.

1. Is there a relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector?
2. Are there significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations?
3. Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups?

I identified quantitative research as an appropriate approach to conduct the study. The methodology included the use of survey for data collection. Participants were drawn using the stratified sampling technique. Each participant completed an online survey conducted with SurveyMonkey. I used WPI, an instrument developed by Amabile et al. (1994), for the data collection. The data were analyzed using three inferential statistical tools: Pearson's correlation, ANOVA, and *t*-tests. In this chapter, I present a summary of the research findings, limitations of the study, implications of the study for positive social change and self-development. Recommendations are made for further research and for improved policy and practice to alleviate the problems identified in the study.

Discussion

I summarized and interpreted the research findings in this section. An overview of the findings is discussed in the context of the revelations from the literature review. The section also includes information on the limitations of the study, as well as its implications for positive social change and self-development.

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

Three hypotheses were formulated and tested for the study. The research question leading to the first hypothesis was developed because of the postulation put forth by Deci (1971) that extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are incompatible. I sought to determine if there was a relationship between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of any generational group employed in the public sector. The results of the Pearson's correlation conducted for this purpose support the fact that a relationship exists between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of each generational group. For the baby boomer and Generation X age groups, the relationships between their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations were positive. The correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of baby boomers was strongly positive at $r = .862$, $n = 15$, $p = .000$. There was also a strong positive correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation X at $r = .602$, $n = 16$, $p = .014$. The results support the alternative hypotheses (H_{a1a}) and (H_{a1b}) that there is a positive correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of baby boomers as well as Generation X.

On the contrary, the relationship was negative for the Generation Y group. The correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation Y was strongly negative ($r = -0.856$, $n = 4$, $p = .14$). The result supports the null hypothesis (H_{01c}) that there is no positive correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation Y. So, for Generation Y, the result tends to support Deci's (1971) postulation that extrinsic rewards undermine intrinsic motivation. It also corroborates the conclusion by Twenge (2010) that an intrinsically rewarding job was significantly less attractive to

Generation Y. But the correlation results for baby boomers and Generation X tend to support what Amabile (1993) described as motivational synergy, whereby extrinsic and intrinsic motivations can be mutually reinforcing instead of undermining each other. The correlation results for baby boomers and Generation X are also consistent with the flexibility now embraced on this issue by Ryan and Deci (2000a) who recently stated that extrinsic motivation could increase intrinsic motivation if they generate feelings of self-determination. Other recent studies, such as Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford's (2014) have further affirmed the validity of Amabile's (1993) argument that extrinsic and intrinsic motivations can coexist together in a positive manner. Together, these results lend credence to the instructiveness of the assertion by Danish and Usman (2010) that managers and leaders have to walk a fine line to ensure an effective blend of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations for optimal results.

The second hypothesis for this study was tested with an ANOVA analysis. It was formulated to address the question as to whether there are significant differences among generational age cohorts or groups in relation to their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The question of whether generational groups differ significantly in their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations is still unsettled. For example, Acar (2014) confirmed based on his review of previous studies that there is no consensus on the existence or otherwise of differences between Generation X and Generation Y when compared in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors. Chekwa, Chukwuanu, and Richardson (2013) reached a similar but broader conclusion when they compared the four generational groups in the workplace to determine the differences between them based on their intrinsic and

extrinsic motivations. These conclusions mirror the revelation from the literature review that there are both differences and similarities among generations. From this study, it was found, based on the results of the ANOVA analysis, that the intrinsic motivations of public sector employees did not differ significantly based on generational grouping. The analysis was inconclusive for the extrinsic motivation.

Although the ANOVA analysis yielded a p value of .011 ($p < .05$) indicating the existence of a significant difference when considering the groups' mean scores on intrinsic motivation, the results were different when the generations were subjected to a multiple comparison analysis and separately compared to one another using the Tukey's HSD test. A multiple comparison analysis, also known as post- hoc comparison, is an extension of ANOVA analysis, which reveals where significant differences actually exist (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). First, baby boomers were compared to Generation X and Generation Y. Secondly, Generation X was compared to baby boomers and Generation Y. Finally, Generation Y was compared to baby boomers and Generation X. None of the multiple comparison analyses yielded a Sig. value equal to or less than .05 ($p \leq .05$) meaning that there were no significant differences among the generational groups considered. A breakdown of the results is as follows:

- (a) baby boomers Vs Generation X: Mean difference = .11222; Sig. = .255
- (b) baby boomers Vs Generation Y: Mean difference = -.12111; Sig. = .504
- (c) Generation X Vs baby boomers: Mean difference = -.11222; Sig. = .255
- (d) Generation X Vs Generation Y: Mean difference = -.23333; Sig. = .104
- (e) Generation Y Vs baby boomers: Mean Difference = .12111; Sig. = .504

(f) Generation Y Vs Generation X: Mean Difference = .2333; Sig. = .104

As an additional step to confirm the lack of statistically significant differences among the three generational groups under study, I also considered the values listed under a column of the Tukey's HSD table labeled "Mean Difference" (I-J). The values were individually perused to determine if any of them had an asterisk (*) next to it, but none did. As a general guideline, Pallant (2013) suggested that when Tukey's HSD test is conducted and an asterisk (*) appears next to any value listed under the column for "Mean Difference" (I-J), then the two corresponding groups being compared are considered to be significantly different from one another at the $p < .05$ level.

The third hypothesis, tested with *t*-tests, addressed the question: Is any generational age group in the public sector motivated more intrinsically or extrinsically than other groups? A *t*-test was conducted to determine specifically whether baby boomers are more intrinsically motivated than Generation X and Generation Y. I used the same *t*-test to determine whether Generation Y is more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers and Generation Y. The results from the two *t*-tests indicated that while baby boomers are not motivated more intrinsically than Generation X and Generation Y, Generation Y is also not more extrinsically motivated than baby boomers and Generation X. Results from the *t*-tests showed that the Sig. (2-tailed) value was greater than .05 ($p > .05$) in each case.

In the final analysis, this study revealed two important findings. First, based on the ANOVA and *t*-tests conducted, the study revealed that no significant differences exist between the three generational groups in their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. This

result contrasts with the findings in some previous studies such as Barford and Hester (2011), Benson and Brown (2011), and Wray-Lake et al. (2010) that there are motivational differences among generational groups. More importantly, the result goes back to confirm the conclusion reached by Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998), the first study that was ever devoted to examining generational motivational differences in the public sector and was later validated by Yang and Guy (2006). Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) focused on the differences between baby boomers and Generation X and concluded that there were no “cohort-specific” motivational differences between the two generations. More broadly, Chekwa et al. (2013) examined the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the four generations in the workplace today and found no significant differences among them. Similar to Chekwa et al. (2013), the present study contributes to the ongoing conversation about generational differences in the public sector by recognizing the increasing number of members of Generation Y in the workplace today and including them in the study. The study also makes a unique contribution to the body of literature on generational differences by focusing particularly on generational motivational differences. The uniqueness of the study’s contribution to the body of literature on the subject matter is because of the nature of the existing literature on motivational differences between age groups, which Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) characterized as equivocal. From the literature review, I deduced that a preponderance of the generational differences reported in other studies stemmed from single factor considerations, whether motivational or not. In contrast, the data for this study was derived from WPI, a multi-

item instrument with 30 elements in two equal segments of 15 items each, assessing individual's intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.

The second finding of this study is that the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations differed between baby boomers and Generation X, on one hand, and Generation Y on the other. For baby boomers and Generation X, the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations was positive for both groups, but this relationship was negative for Generation Y. Although a relationship or correlation does not imply causation, unlike the first finding, the second result of this study supports, to a reasonable extent, the findings in some earlier reported studies such as Barford and Hester (2011), Benson and Brown (2011), and Wray-Lake et al. (2010) that there are motivational differences among generational groups.

This result reinforces the need to calibrate carefully the mix of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation strategies targeted especially at members of Generation Y, as Cho and Perry (2012) had suggested. This issue deserves a serious attention if public sector organizations are to attract and retain members of Generation Y, the fastest growing and largest generational group in the present U.S. workforce. It is equally important given the fact, as reported in the literature review, that Generation Y and to a lesser extent, Generation X, can be more difficult to motivate than baby boomers (Twenge, 2010). The question then, is: Can the extrinsic motivation of Generation Y cohorts ever have a positive correlation with their intrinsic motivation? This leaves room for further research.

Limitations of the Study

Some limitations evolved in the course of this study. The major limitation, however, was the small number of participants ($N = 35$) in the study. Faced with the constraints of time, budget, and supporting personnel, I was unable to extend the survey period beyond the timeframe approved by IRB for my data collection. In particular, the fact that it took almost 9 months for me to receive the approval to use state employees and their database for the study exacerbated my time constraint. Several researchers and scholars (Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins (2001); Bernard (2013); de Winter (2013); and Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) have reported that these types of constraints, as well as ethical and logistic constraints, hinder the possibility of obtaining large samples, making the use of small samples inevitable. Ethically, I feared that participants could misinterpret an extension of the survey period as an act of coercion intended to compel them to respond to the survey. The extension would also not have been without unanticipated budget implications since it had the potential of extending the completion date of the study. At that time, I had exceeded the budget for the program by more than 70%, and I was already grappling with an excruciating financial imbroglio.

With permission from the agency, I sent the research survey from my work email to the participants' work email all of which were in the same group domain (maryland.gov). My intention was to enhance the legitimacy of the survey so that participants will not be suspicious of the survey and treat it as a spam email. While the legitimacy goal was achieved, the downside of this approach was evident and overwhelming. Despite that it required less than 10 minutes to complete the study, many

potential participants were not sure that they were not going to face any disciplinary action from their supervisors and managers for completing the survey during official work time. To avoid undue pressure on the participants, I did not ask supervisors and managers to reassure their workers that no disciplinary action was to be taken against anyone for completing the survey during official time.

The study focused only on one of the 18 agencies under the Maryland's SPMS. Also, the Department of Transportation and other independent agencies in the State were not included in the study. This implies that the results of this study may not be generalized to other Maryland agencies. My attempt to include two more agencies in the study failed. I could not obtain the bureaucratic approval I needed to do so due to the authorities' apparent lack of interest in the study predicated upon the trepidation that administering the survey through the potential participants' work emails would compel them to respond to the survey during official work hours. The authorities also alleged that the dissertation was a personal project, meaning that it was not going to add value to the agencies. None of these was true. The suggested alternatives were for me to distribute the surveys in person during lunchtime, or by mail. But these methods were all fraught with financial and logistic constraints. The agencies had employees spread all over the cities and counties of the state. It would have been financially burdensome and logistically difficult to travel to many distant counties of the state to extend the survey to employees located in those counties.

Because of the difficulty in collecting the addresses of potential participants and the risk of violating my promise not to use participants' personal information, I

concluded that using mail system to administer the survey was not a reasonable option. So, I was compelled to limit the study to my agency, which had agreed for me to send my survey to the participants (employees) through their work email addresses. Local and federal government agencies were also excluded from the study. Together, these limitations hinder the ability to generalize the result of this study because the participants represented only a microcosm of the U.S. public sector workforce. Therefore, generalization of the results of this study should be done with caution.

Due to the small number of participants in the study, I changed my initial plan to use MANOVA as the statistical tool to test the second hypothesis. Faced with this reality, I replaced MANOVA with ANOVA. Because of this switch in analytical technique the study lost the robustness associated with MANOVA, which is, a more suitable tool when multiple dependent variables are involved (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). This limitation is mitigated by several factors including the fact, as indicated in Chapter 3, that ANOVA and MANOVA are similar except that the former only tests one dependent variable (DV) while the later tests a combination of dependent variables (DVs) all at the same time (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013; Vogt and Johnson, 2011). Stevens, as cited in Warne (2014) as well as Pallant (2013) emphasized that MANOVA is just an extension of ANOVA. Pallant (2013) also encouraged the conduct of a series of ANOVAs separately for each dependent variable in place of MANOVA. In addition, ANOVA is not only suitable for small sample sizes (Nawijn, Mitas, Lin, & Kerstetter, 2013); it is also very popular and widely used by researchers in various fields of academic enterprise, including the social sciences. ANOVA has been acknowledged as a predominantly useful

statistical technique in social science research (Fritz, Morris, & Richler, 2012; Wester, Borders, Boul, & Horton, 2013).

Van Voorhis and Morgan (2007) suggested that a sample of 7 to 30 per cell is reasonable to achieve 80% power when measuring group differences involving at least three cells. Nawijn et al. (2013) reported that, based on available literature, the minimum sample size required for repeated measures ANOVA varies between 4 and 11. For this reason, Nawijn et al. (2013) considered their sample size of 39 ($n = 39$) as moderate. Interestingly, the argument in defense of the use of small sample size when inevitably necessary is not limited to ANOVA. In fact, de Winter (2013) also encouraged the use of *t*-test with sample sizes as small as two in behavioral and social science research. *T*-test is another parametric statistical technique used very often in social science research. Despite the skepticism that has long beclouded the credibility of research findings when sample sizes are small, de Winter (2013) argued, “there are no principal objections” to the use of extremely small sample size defined as $N \leq 5$. This argument by de Winter (2013) corroborates Norman’s (2010) assertion that none of the assumptions of parametric statistics places any restriction on sample size. Norman (2010) further contended that it is not true that a *t*-test but not ANOVA can be used for small samples. On the contrary, Norman (2010) stated that *t*-test and ANOVA are two parametric statistics that are based on the same assumptions, and are both suitable for small samples.

The credibility of the non-statistically significant differences found in this study are not likely to be compromised by the small sample used for the study considering de Winter’s (2013) caution against the inherent risk in accepting a statistically significant

finding on a small sample because more often than not such result can be a false positive. At the minimum, this study provides a useful background for future research like many others conducted with small samples (Breakwell et al., 2012). The popularity of ANOVA as a predominantly useful statistical technique in social science research is also well acknowledged (Fritz et al., 2012).

Implications for Positive Social Change

This study contributes to the society's quest for positive social change, which results in the improvement of human and social conditions (Walden, 2011). The study has added new information to the scanty body of literature and contributed to the understanding of generational age differences in the public sector from a motivational perspective. This is the first time generational age differences in the public sector have been studied from the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations perspective. Information gained from this study can assist in persuading public sector managers and leaders, especially human resource managers, to have a better understanding of their organizations' workforce and their motivational orientations or preferences. In particular, the result of this study will help to redirect attention and emphasis away from the age long and inadequate practices and strategies that have failed to practically and effectively address the complex issue of motivation in an increasingly diverse work environment of the 21st century.

The study has helped to provide insight regarding how generational age differences relate to workplace motivation, which, in turn, can enhance the development of effective motivational strategies to harness each employee's potential for improved

productivity and quality of public service. The development of effective motivational policies will also improve employees' overall job satisfaction resulting in improved health and quality of life for the employees. Schleifer and Okogbaa, cited in Aamodt (2010), observed that properly designed incentive systems induce improved performance. When not properly designed, however, incentive systems can have negative results such as increased stress, and decreased health and safety. This study has provided a policy platform to address public employees' health and wellbeing through motivation. Motivation enhances an individual's psychological health, and employees are more productive and effective when they are motivated and in good health (Fernet, 2013). In addition to improving employees' health and quality of life, such conditions increase productivity and reduce employee turnover and absenteeism (Fernet, 2013). Together, these are also tantamount to a reduction in the cost of providing medical coverage to employees, making more funds available for other programs that could contribute to the provision of better services to the public such as staff development and training. This study also provides a useful resource for training public policymakers and HR professionals on diversity issues especially generational stereotyping and characterization, and their implications in the workplace.

Implications for Self-Development

The entire process of this study, particularly the dissertation writing, made a lasting positive impact on me as both a scholar and a practitioner. The next two subsections are devoted to describing the breadth of my development both as a scholar and a

practitioner. In totality, I became a social change agent fulfilling the objectives of Walden University as well as mine.

Implications for Self-Development as a Scholar

The process of this dissertation presented enormous challenges to me and at the same time a great opportunity for self-development as a scholar. It exposed several research tools to me, such as SurveyMonkey and SPSS, and made me proficient in using them. The experience gained in the process strengthened my research and analytical skills by sharpening my critical thinking skill and raising my curiosity. Critical thinking (Browne & Keeley, 2010) is a social activity which is aided by curiosity (Ruggiero, 2009). Both critical thinking and curiosity are essential requirements for scholars. So, the process helped me rediscover my potentials as one. I have become more conscious of the problems facing our society today and the urgent need to confront them by raising critical questions and seeking well-informed approaches and research to resolve them. Part of the problems is the management of generational differences in the workplace.

Implications for Self-Development as a Practitioner

In addition to my development as a scholar, I became a better human resource practitioner in the course of this study. In other words, I become a practitioner-scholar, putting my scholarly knowledge into practice. Human resource management (HRM) requires excellent organization, time management, writing, and multitasking skills. The course, especially the dissertation process, helped to bolster my skills in these areas of competency. I became more confident in my ability to make quick and balanced decisions with the available information. I now find myself empowered, more confident,

and more courageous to ask the right questions that seek the right answers to resolve organizational problems through well-designed and articulated human resource practices. Increasingly, organizational success has been, in part, a function of good human resource practices (Lamba & Choudhary, 2013; Quresh, Akbar, Khan, Sheikh & Hijazi, 2010). The entire process was truly a crucible, which in the end made me a better practitioner.

Recommendations

The problems this study was intended to address were the paucity of research and an apparent management neglect of generational age differences as a dimension of diversity in developing policies and strategies for employee motivation. Regarding the gap in research on generational groups and their motivations in the workplace, it was clear from the literature review that much work is still needed in examining generational differences in the public sector through the lens of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The same is equally applicable to policy formulation to improve the management of generational differences in the sector. The following recommendations, if implemented, will help ameliorate these issues and to achieve the anticipated social change implications of this research.

Academic Recommendations

One of the limitations of this study was that the number of participants was small and only one State agency was covered. It was noted also that large samples are better desired for quantitative research. For this reason, it is recommended that more research be conducted with larger sample populations and wider coverage in terms of the number of agencies included in the studies to explore this topic further. Specifically, a replication

study using a larger sample will be appropriate as the first step in this direction because a single study can hardly be definitive (Cumming, 2014; de Winter, 2013). Murayama, Pekrun, & Fiedler (2013) as well as Funder et al. (2014) reported that researchers have widely admitted the importance of replication and are increasingly paying attention to it. Replication of studies is crucial as researchers continually strive to build the knowledge base necessary for any progressive science to advance (Funder et al., 2014; Murayama et al., 2013; Plomin, DeFries, Knopik, & Neiderhiser, 2016). In addition to its ability to enhance precision, it reveals the robustness of an original research, and the extent to which its findings could be generalized (Cumming, 2014). Replication, even when conducted with different methodology, can also help identify and address potential problems that may be associated with an initial study; thus providing stronger empirical support for the research findings and further enhancing their ability to be generalized. This will enhance the ability to generalize the results of future research on generational age differences and employee motivation in the public sector. It will also add to the existing body of literature on the subject.

While further research is, in general, necessary on the issue of generational differences and employee motivation, particular attention should be paid to Generation Y. The insight provided by this study indicates that motivation of members of Generation Y appears more complicated, difficult, and challenging. The changing shift in workforce demography makes it imperative for public sector organizations to treat this matter as a strategic policy choice and as a wakeup call for further research focused on the motivational preferences of Generation Y. This generational group is now considered as

the “challenging clients of Human Resource Management” (Kultalahti & Viitala, 2015, p. 101). One of the critical questions for further investigation is whether the extrinsic motivation of members of Generation Y can have a positive correlation with their intrinsic motivation. And under what circumstances can it happen?

Research on generational differences in the workplace focus on a variety of organizational issues (Acar, 2014). As revealed in the literature review, several research on the subject focus on how generational groups differ in their characteristics, work values, motivation, career choices, and other work-related attitudes or behavior. In terms of motivation, most of the previous research examined generational differences based on single or few select numbers of motivational factors. Some stop at investigating each generational group separately to determine what motivates them instead of examining how they differ on those motivators (Acar, 2014). Without undermining the contributions made by these studies to the existing literature on generational differences, it will also serve a useful purpose if further research is conducted based on the two broad categories of motivation—the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations— instead of emphasizing on differences based on single or scanty motivational factors. The multi-factor approach will lead to a better understanding of the motivational differences among generational groups in the public sector. No single factor can account for an employee’s overall motivation.

Most importantly, public sector organizations, particularly at the state and local levels, should open their “hearts” and doors to encourage more research not only on the subject of this dissertation but also on other issues associated with organizational behavior and functioning. To build walls of resistance against research in these areas will

be dysfunctional to the sector given the changing dynamics in the workplace, especially in the face of growing apprehension about the “erosion of ideas” needed to confront and effectively deal with the challenges of modern day public service (Perry, 2016). Research does not only have academic value; it also has public value, which engenders societal benefits and well-being (Crow, 2016).

Practical Recommendations

There is need to develop a strategic workplace diversity management plan that includes the identification and harmonization of key motivational strategies and stimuli for the different generations. This requires that public sector employers, managers, and leaders should consider getting to know and understand their employees and subordinates better. If employees or subordinates are expected to bring their best efforts to work, organizational leaders and managers must strive to understand them at the level of their core beliefs and values (Clawson, 2006). This process must begin at the time of initial recruitment. Unfortunately, applicants are not usually asked during employment interview about their values and motivational preferences. That means that the “one size fits all” still remains the norm in human resource and organizational management. A shift from this philosophy is necessary. When people’s values, beliefs, and interests are known in advance and documented, managers can refer to such information when in doubt about how best to motivate individual workers and make them reach their full potentials to improve organizational performance and productivity. Such information could in addition complement the use of position descriptions during performance evaluations.

The fact that this study found a negative correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation Y is indicative of the challenges facing public sector organizations, especially human resource managers, in attracting, motivating, and retaining members of the generation. Although correlation or association does not imply causation, it offers a great lesson, which underscores the necessity that attention should be paid to the relationship between the variables involved. Thus, this finding warrants further exploration about the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the members of Generation Y, and on how the two types of motivation relate to each other. Most importantly, further exploration of Generation Y's intrinsic motivation in the public sector will be particularly useful in the effort to attract and retain members of this generation in the sector. It is well documented through research (Cho & Perry, 2012) that intrinsic motivation is very important in the public sector. Cho and Perry (2012) confirmed that the consequences it has on employees' satisfaction and intent to leave public sector organizations exceed the consequences of extrinsic motivation. In general, the importance both research scholars and practitioners attach to intrinsic motivation stems from the belief that it yields very positive and highly valued results in the workplace such as creativity, quality, spontaneity, and vitality (Acar, 2014).

The importance of intrinsic motivation in the public sector is also underscored by the fact that, in this sector, extrinsic motivation factors such as material and financial rewards lag behind when compared to the private sector. A study by the Congressional Budget Office (CBO) in 2012 found that federal workers with a high school diploma or less earned higher wages during the period 2005 – 2010 than those with same

qualifications in the private sector. But the study found also that the average wage earned by federal employees whose highest level of education was a bachelor's degree was roughly the same as those with similar qualifications in the private sector (CBO, 2012). However, the report revealed also a wide and disturbing differential among those with doctorate or professional degrees. The average earnings during the same period for those in the public sector were 23% less per hour than their counterparts in the private sector (CBO, 2012). In terms of total compensation (wages plus benefits), federal employees with professional or doctorate degrees received an average of 18% lower than private sector employees with similar qualifications. By reasoned estimation, this situation is likely to be worse at the state and local levels where wages and other forms of compensation have traditionally trailed those of the federal government. One study found that on aggregate state and local workers have a negative differential of 9.5% in wage earnings and 4% in total compensation compared to private sector workers (Munnell, Aubry, Hurwitz & Quinby, 2011).

It has been projected that Generation Y will soon be the most educated generation in American history (Fry & Parker, 2012). In 2009, the U.S. Department of Labor estimated that the number of Generation Y members in the workforce would grow astronomically by 75% between 2010 and 2020. Most recently, Fry (2015) reported that Generation Y members now constitute more than 30 percent of American workers, and in 2015, they became the largest generational group in American workforce beating baby boomers to the second place for the first time. Similarly, Schawbel (2012) predicted that 75% of the world's workforce would belong to Generation Y by the year 2025.

Considering that members of Generation Y are highly educated, and will soon constitute majority of the workforce, the discrepancy in compensation which tilts in favor of private sector workers, especially those with professional and doctorate degrees, deserves attention. It portrays a troubling gloomy future for public sector organizations in their ability to compete for, attract, and retain these highly qualified individuals needed for efficient and effective public service delivery in the 21st century and beyond. Ertas (2015) found that while members of Generation Y in the federal service are more likely to quit their jobs anytime than the older workers, a higher percentage of them (Generation Y) indicated their intention to leave the public sector altogether. The seriousness of this problem is exacerbated by the looming mass retirement of the ageing members of the baby boomer generation from the workplace. Associated with this expected exodus of baby boomers from the workplace is the growing apprehension for loss of institutional knowledge. For this reason, it is recommended that public organizations should encourage and develop strategies, including mentoring (Harvey, 2012), for knowledge sharing and transfer among members of the different generational cohorts.

Public sector organizations should make concerted efforts to improve employees' intrinsic motivations, especially among members of Generation Y who have been found to be less attracted by jobs that require intrinsic motivation (Twenge, 2010), which culminates in their lower commitment and higher intention to leave their organizations (Lub, Nije Bijvank, Matthijs Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2012). David Axelrod, a political consultant and former senior adviser to President Barack Obama, took this appeal directly to the members of Generation Y when he spoke during his commencement speech to the

Class of 2016 at Eureka College on May 20, 2016. Admonishing the graduates, he said: “Don’t focus so heavily on making a living that you forget to make a life” (Axelrod, 2016, p. 4).

With regard to Generation Y’s low commitment to organizations and their high propensity to leave at the shortest possible time, it is recommended that the employment selection tests administered by public sector organizations should incorporate the 15 items of WPI for measuring intrinsic motivation. So, in addition to other selection matrices such as education, skills, and experience, the intrinsic motivation scores of candidates should be considered. This way, the organizations will be able to identify potential employees who have genuine interest in making a career in public service. Even after recruitment, public sector organizations should figure out strategies to establish psychological contracts with their employees.

Psychological contract is an employee’s belief and mental acceptance of the existence of a mutual relationship between the employee and the employer (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016). In human resource management, psychological contract has been widely recognized as one of the modern approaches to employee motivation (Llies, 2011; Morrison, 2010) because it is what determines an employee’s behaviors towards his/her organization (Bal & Kooij, 2011; Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011; Sonnenberg, Koene, & Paauwe, 2011). In other words, employees’ commitment and propensity to leave their organizations depend on the psychological contracts they have with the organizations (Blomme, van Rheede, & Tromp, 2010; Lub, Nije Bijvank, Matthijs Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2012). The process of establishing a psychological contract with an

employee should start as soon as the employee is recruited (Tomprou & Nikolaou, 2011). The way to create psychological contracts can vary depending on the organization involved (Low et al., 2016). Some of the strategies include on-boarding orientations, seminars, training, mentoring, and managerial/leadership behavior.

The efficacies of some of these strategies or the justifications for embarking on them are well documented. Mentoring is one example. It enhances both generational and institutional knowledge sharing and transfer; promotes human capital development and raises awareness of intergenerational differences in work-life demands (Lockwood, 2009; Ramaswami & Dreher, 2010). Citing a poll conducted by MTV titled “No Collar Workers”, Schawbel (2012) reported that 75 percent of members of Generation Y surveyed desired to have mentors. They consider mentoring as important in their professional development (Acar, 2014). Despite the empirical evidence attesting to the importance of, and desire for mentoring, whether formal or informal, public sector organizations are yet to embrace it fully as either a diversity or motivational strategy. It is recommended that public sector organizations should make mentoring more attractive to employees. In addition to making mentoring a priority, it is advisable that participation in mentoring programs should attract some incentives (Legas & Sims, 2012).

Managerial/leadership behavior is another strategy not yet elevated in the public sector despite the avalanche of evidence that it plays an important role in creating psychological contract, and in influencing the motivation and other employment behaviors of employees. McDermott, Conway, Rousseau, & Flood (2013) argued that what managers and leaders do directly affect employee-employer psychological contract

formation and sustenance. The importance of managerial/leadership behavior in influencing employees' psychological contract, motivation, and other employment behaviors such as commitment, loyalty, intention to leave, and so on stems from the fact that leadership itself is a reflection of character. Hunter (2012) described leadership as character in action while character is the moral maturity and courage to do selflessly what is right always. The exhibition of positively exemplary and inspiring character by managers and leaders leads to managerial/leadership trustworthiness. In the workplace, managerial or leadership trustworthiness is said to have a positive relationship with vital employee attitudes that help to ensure organizational success such as employee satisfaction and intent to leave (Cho & Perry, 2012; Yang & Kassekert, 2010); affective commitment, risk-taking behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, and task performance (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Orientations, training and seminars provide opportunities for organizations to clarify their mission, vision and objectives to employees (Lamba & Choudhary, 2013).

Periodically, employees should be surveyed to assess their intrinsic motivations. This is necessary because although extrinsic motivation can influence an employee's attitude to work, intrinsic motivation has been found to play a more influential role being, more or less, a "self-determined activity" itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000c, p. 74). Recently, Cho and Perry (2012) agreed that intrinsic motivation is important in the day-to-day operations in the public sector. The reason, according to Cho and Perry (2012), is that intrinsic motivation influences employees' satisfaction and intent to leave more than extrinsic motivation.

The importance of statistics in policymaking cannot and should not be ignored in the public sector. Employee turnover rate is one such statistic very vital in formulating personnel policies. Indeed, public sector agencies track this statistic, but it is aggregated. The statistic would be more meaningful for personnel policy formulation if it were further broken into specific categories such as generational, service or job categories. This way, public organizations will have the ability to track the turnover rates of each generational age group and to formulate adequate policies, including appropriate motivational strategies to address the problem.

To sum up the discussion on how to improve current policies and practices in the public sector to attract, motivate, and retain members of different generations, especially Generation Y, it is equally germane to emphasize the important role of human resource management (HRM) in this endeavor. None of the recommendations made in this section can be successfully implemented without a strong and strategic human resource management (HRM) grounded on well-articulated policies and best practices. Public sector organizations should strengthen their HR departments to be able to deal with the challenges posed by the reality of recent changes in the demography of the workforce. Previous research covering both private and public sectors point to the significance of high-performance HR policies and practices in achieving organizational effectiveness and success (Lamba & Choudhary, 2013; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Sikora & Ferris, 2014). HR practices such as the use of recruitment tests, performance-based compensation, employee attitude surveys, and so on, have proven to be effective in improving

productivity, reducing employee turnover, and achieving overall organizational success (Sikora & Ferris, 2014).

In addition, line managers and supervisors need to be more proactive rather than reactionary in handling diversity issues, including motivational issues, involving members of different generations. Diversity training will help supervisors and managers acquire the basic competency and sensitivity necessary to meet the needs of diverse populations found in today's workplace (Bezrukova, Jehn, & Spell, 2012). Diversity training can also positively shape individuals' worldviews in way that they become able to objectively and effectively deal with various elements of diversity, which are, in most cases, characteristically emotional or subjective. The objective of workplace diversity training is to ensure that employees at all levels of an organizational hierarchy have the skills, knowledge, and motivation to engage in positive intergroup interactions in a way that reduces or eliminates prejudice, bias, stereotype and discrimination in a diverse environment (Bezrukova et al., 2012; Combs & Luthans, 2007; Pendry, Driscoll, & Field, 2007).

Conclusion

Generational differences can sometimes be stereotyped negatively or positively. Sometimes, managers and leaders make assumptions and decisions based on these stereotypes, which may or may not be true. Age stereotypes (Taylor, 2001) are already known to be one of the recurring factors that influence employment-related decisions in work settings or environments. To this end, although generalized characteristics are often associated with each generation and awareness of these characteristics can help

employers to better understand individuals' actions and motivations, Jordan (2010) cautioned that it is important not to reinforce stereotypes, either positive or negative. This is why it has become extremely important that decisions that consider generational differences should, to a large extent, be predicated on research findings and objectivity. The results of this study reinforce this caution. Hence, it cannot be overemphasized that there is need to improve the current management practice and research interest in the area of generational motivational differences. Unfortunately, as the literature review revealed in Chapter 2, research on generational differences and employee motivation has been scanty. There is no question that as research on this topic grows, policymakers and HR managers in public organizations will find more tools to formulate and implement effective motivation policies that reflect the true nature and characteristics of today's workforce. This study offered an insight that will help guide future research and practice on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of different generations of workers in the public sector.

In terms of objectivity, this study recommended that public sector organizations should evaluate candidates' intrinsic motivation as part of their recruitment process. The recommendation was rationalized on the basis that intrinsic motivation has since been recognized as crucial in improving efficiency and effectiveness in the public sector by recruiting employees who would be committed to the organizations. Recruiting intrinsically motivated candidates is also one of the ways to ensure objectivity in public sector employment process without relying wholly on generational membership. Relying entirely on generational membership when making personnel decisions could unfairly

work against some members of Generation Y given the negative correlation between their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations as found in this study, their resentment to public sector organizations, and the high potential for them to quit their jobs any time.

The literature review presented in Chapter 2 revealed differences in several respects, such as workplace traits, core values, worldviews, leadership style preferences, and motivations, among the three generational cohorts under study. In terms of motivation, the results of this study suggest that the motivational preferences of members of Generation Y pose greater challenges to public sector organizations. While significant differences were not found among the three generations in their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, the study found a negative correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of Generation Y. This confirms, as asserted by Twenge (2010), that Generation Y is less attracted by jobs that require intrinsic motivation such as public service.

In summary, this study produced mixed results. On one hand, based on the results of the ANOVA and *t*-tests conducted, the study found that the three generations studied are not significantly different in their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. On the other hand, it found differences in the correlations between the generations' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. While the correlations between intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were positive for both baby boomers and Generation X, it was negative for Generation Y.

Notwithstanding that this study found no significant differences between the generations in their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, the negative correlation between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Generation Y, as also dictated by this study, is

worthy of consideration. According to Breakwell et al. (2012), the magnitude of differences or correlations resulting from any study should be considered as separately important from their statistical significance. This result suggests, therefore, that public sector managers, policymakers, and human resource professionals should be cautious in handling motivational issues involving the three generations studied to avoid unnecessary stereotypes and considering the impact sample size can sometimes have on the outcome of a statistical significance test when comparing groups. It is highly possible for a large sample size to lead to a statistically significant difference between groups when indeed it should not have been (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). Conversely, a small sample size, as in this case, can lead to a non-statistically significant difference between the groups compared. Given this situation, it will not be preposterous to be guided by the result of the correlation analyses, which showed positive correlations between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of baby boomers and Generation X, and a negative correlation for Generation Y.

The mixed results from this study mirror those reported by Wong et al. (2008) who found significant differences between three generations (baby boomers, Generation X and Generation Y) in three of the six motivational drivers tested and no significant differences between the generations in the other three. Also, the findings confirm the dichotomy in the outcomes of previous studies on generational motivational differences as revealed in the literature review. Importantly, only the results from very few of the previous studies reviewed in Chapter 2 were subjected to a significance test. It can be argued, in fact, that some motivational differences that exist between generations may

just be implicit not significant. Clearly, the results of this study underscore the need for more research on this important subject in the future. Beyond this, the results provided the background for such research.

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Appendix A: Survey Participation Invitation

You are invited to participate in my dissertation research examining the relationship between generational age differences and employee motivation. I selected you to participate in this research through a random sample process involving employees of the Department of Human Resources. I will be sending you a survey with an informed consent form and a web link to access the documents in seven days from the date of this invitation. The survey will take a maximum of 10 minutes to complete.

Your participation as well as the information you provide will be confidential, and will not be disclosed to third parties, including your employers, the State of Maryland, and any of its agencies. In order to protect your identity, I will not ask for your personal identifying or confidential information, such as social security number, telephone number, or address, except your name and email address, which I will only use for sending the research survey and informed consent form to you. Although I will need your name and email address to be able to send you the consent form and survey, you will not be identified in the study because this information will not be included in the reports. Instead, a pseudo code will be assigned to you, which will only be known to the researcher. Data from the survey will be aggregated in the reports. I will also keep all information collected during the research secure by locking them on my computer with a secure password for five years. The data will be destroyed after the 5-year period.

I received approval to conduct this research survey from the Secretary, Maryland Department of Human Resources (DHR), and Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). In addition, an informed consent is required from every participant in this dissertation research.

The benefit of your participation is the anticipated contribution to recognition of employee potential and understanding of motivational preferences among various generational groups in the workplace. The research findings will be useful to public sector employers in designing appropriate strategies and policies for motivating their employees. It will also guide them in succession planning as Baby Boomers gradually retire from public service. Your participation in this research will be highly appreciated.

Appendix B: Research Questionnaire

Instructions:

This study is about generational age and work motivation. It is therefore important that you answer all questions related to age in Section I to provide the relevant demographic information needed to complete the research. The questionnaire will not be useful for this research if you do not complete all demographic questions. Remember, if there are questions you do not want to answer, you may discontinue your participation at any time.

SECTION I: Demographic Information

Year of Birth: _____

Age: _____

Class Title: _____

Type of Service: Skilled _____ Professional _____

SECTION II: Work Preference Inventory (WPI) Questionnaire:

An Assessment of Employees' Motivational Orientations

Options: Strongly agree = 5; Agree = 4; Neither agree nor disagree = 3; Disagree = 2; Strongly disagree = 1.

1. I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me.
2. I enjoy trying to solve complex problems.
3. The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it.
4. I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills.
5. Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do.
6. I want to find out how good I really can be at my work.
7. I prefer to figure things out for myself.
8. What matters most to me is enjoying what I do
9. It is important for me to have an outlet for self-expression.
10. I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities. R
11. No matter what the outcome of a project, I am satisfied if I feel I gained a new experience.
12. I am more comfortable when I can set my own goals.
13. I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about everything else.
14. It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy.
15. I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks. R

16. I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn.
17. I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself.
18. I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people.
19. I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work.
20. I seldom think about salary and promotions. R
21. I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself.
22. To me, success means doing better than other people.
23. I have to feel that I am earning something for what I do.
24. As long as I can do what I enjoy, I am not concerned about exactly what I am paid. R
25. I believe that there is no point in doing a good job if nobody else knows about it.
26. I am concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas.
27. I prefer working on projects with clearly specified procedures.
28. I am less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it.
29. I am not that concerned about what other people think of my work. R
30. I prefer having someone set clear goals for me in my work.

Adopted with permission from Amabile, T. M., Hill, K. G., Hennessey, B. A., & Tighe, E. M. (1994). The work preference inventory: Assessing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(5), 950-967.

Appendix C: Sample of Questionnaire Format/Response Sheet

A. Intrinsic Motivation Section of the Questionnaire

Item #	Description of Item (Statement or Question)	Response Scale/Level				
		Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Dis-agree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						

B. Extrinsic Motivation Section of the Questionnaire

Item #	Description of Item (Statement or Question)	Response Scale/Level				
		Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Neither Agree Nor Disagree 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
16						
17						
18						
19						
20						
21						
22						
23						
24						
25						
26						
27						
28						
29						
30						

Appendix D: Approval by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the study

(NOTE: Approval by IRB will be scanned and inserted here.)

Appendix E: Approval by Maryland State Department of Human Resources

(NOTE: Approval by DHR will be scanned and inserted here.)

Appendix F: Permission to Use Work Preference Inventory

(WPI)

(NOTE: Permission to use WPI will be scanned and inserted here.)