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A Grounded Theory of Millennials Job-Hopping

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Walden University
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Abstract

A Grounded Theory of Millennials Job-Hopping

By

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MBA, Brenau University, 1993

BS, University of Maryland, 1989

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Corporations are finding it challenging to attract and retain the top talented Millennials.

Their frequent *job-hopping* is costing the U.S. economy $30.5 billion annually despite

corporations' best efforts to retain them. The central research question concerns the

decision-making process that Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an

organization. The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a theory that explains

the Millennials' process for deciding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization.

The conceptual framework for this grounded theory research is generational theory,

Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors, and psychological contract theory. The

data collection was by means of a purposive sampling strategy implemented through the

semistructured interviews of 13 participants. The grounded theory data analysis method

used consisted of an abridged version of Glaser's data analysis method as developed by

Charmaz, which entailed a systematic comparative coding process (initial, focused, and

theoretical). The study findings included 7 factors that affect Millennial job-hopping:

competitive compensation, job enjoyment, opportunities for professional growth,

supportive work environment, reasonable free/flex time, finding their niche, and excellent

benefits. Based on these factors, the Millennials job-hopping theory explains their

decision-making process and why they job-hop. Positive social change may occur when

Millennials achieve job satisfaction. Job satisfaction increases loyalty and organizational

commitment and reduces stress, thus decreasing turnover and creating economic stability

for the Millennials and their organizations.

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Dedication

     I would like to dedicate this study to my mother, Rev. Norma Rivers-Gordon, who has never fail me and has always been there for me when things got tough. I also dedicate this study to my sons, George and Jared Rivers, and my grandchildren, Anthony, Quinten, Adrian, Naya, Jared Jr., Isaiah, and Aquila, as an example that you are never too old to gain knowledge and achieve most things if you are willing to put in the time and effort.

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I would like to thank Dr. Robert Levasseur for fulfilling the roles of mentor in the KAM program and chairperson of my dissertation committee. Thank you for accepting me into the KAM program and providing guidance throughout this journey.   It has been a long time coming. Although we have never met, I feel like I know your heart, your spirit, and you. Thank you for the great talks, stories, talking me off the edge a couple of times, and having an ear to bounce my frustration off. I would also like to thank Dr. Jean Gordon for fulfilling the role of Second Chair and providing key input. Finally, thank you, Dr. Daphne Halkias, the URR, for expanding my knowledge base and providing significant information and support.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Job-hopping—frequent movement from job to job—has emerged as a highly important workplace trend (Lake, Highhouse, & Shrift, 2017). In the past three years, the popular media within the business world have repeatedly covered job-hopping as an emerging social trend, including *Fortune, Forbes, Fast Company, Entrepreneur, CNN Money, CNBC, New York Times, the Wall Street Journal, and the Los Angeles* Times (Lake et al., 2017). Despite the vast media speculation about the causes, relatively little is known about the motives that underlie people's decisions to change jobs, particularly those of the Millennial generation (Buang, Hemdi, & Hanafiah, 2016).

There are presently four generations in the workforce (Schawbel, 2013) the Silent/Traditionalists Generation (1925-1942), Baby Boomers (1943-1960), Generation Xers/GenXers (1961-1981), and the Millennials (1982-2003) (Strauss & Howe, 1991) also referred to as Generation Y (DeVaney, 2015). The Millennials, the youngest cohort in the workforce, is also foreseen as the powerhouse generation of the future (Howe & Strausse, 2000). Howe and Strauss (2000) predicted that the Millennials would become community shapers, technology planners, institution builders, and world leaders that would dominate the twenty-first century.

The Pew Research Center asserted the Millennials surpassed the GenXers (52.7) and the Baby Boomers (44.6) with 53.5 million Millennials in the U. S. workforce as of August 2015 (Fry, 2015). The American workforce projections for 2025 suggest that the Millennials will encompass three-quarters of the world's workforce (Schawbel, 2013). The Millennials are a vital generation, not only because they outnumber the Baby

Boomers and the GenXers, but because their use of technology sets them apart (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). Millennials are diverse, optimistic, continuous learners, team players, collaborators, achievement-oriented, socially cognizant, and educated (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). They grew up with broadband; they expect instant access to information and their life consist of laptops, smartphones, and social media. Millennials are the first generation that will enter the workplace with a better grasp of critical business tools than most senior workers (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011).

Corporations are finding it challenging to attract and retain the top talented Millennials with just salary and medical insurance (Bednar, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016). Millennials are job-hopping twice as fast as the Baby Boomers (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010; Schawbel, 2013). The cost to replace the Millennial employees averages $15,000 - $25,000 per employee (Schawbel, 2013), creating a general problem due to the Millennials' frequent job-hopping rate (Schawbel, 2013; Twenge, 2010) given the 2025 projection that the Millennials workforce will increase to 75% worldwide (Schawbel, 2013).

Compensation, such as salary, bonuses, paid leave, health insurance, promotions, or mentorship and other nonmonetary rewards, such as flexible work hours, attracts (Smith & Galbraith, 2012; Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009), but does not retain the Millennials. There is ample data on recruiting and retaining Millennials (Deery, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016), as well as popular literature containing suggestions for retaining Millennials (Hutchinson, Brown, & Karen, 2012; Joyce & Barry, 2016). There are

popular articles that theorize on why the Millennials job-hop (Vanderkam, 2014; Zimmerman, 2016) and few empirical research articles on why Millennials job-hop (Bateman, 2015; Kiah, 2015).

Millennial turnover is a challenge for many industries (Adkins, 2016; Brown, Thomas, & Bosselman, 2015; Hagel, 2014). The absence of company loyalty represents serious challenges to any business that employ many Millennials when two out of three Millennials expect to job-hop (Adkins, 2016; The 2016 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2016, p. 4). Researchers have revealed that Millennials occupy influential positions thus having the potential to shape the fortunes of their organizations (The 2016 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2016). For example, organizations' top performers build political and institutional capital as they grow in an organization to leadership level, an unteachable skill into new hires (Brown et al., 2015). It benefits employers' bottom-line to understand the Millennial generation aspirations and create a tailored intervention designed to retain this vital workforce segment (Buckley, Viechnicki, & Barua, 2015). Chapter 1 briefly includes a background study, the problem statement, and the purpose of the study. Followed by the research questions, the conceptual framework, the nature of the study and definitions. Concluding the chapter with the assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and the significance of the study, practice, theory, and social change.

Background of the Study

The generational shift occurring in the workforce (Conger, 1997) is transforming organizational workplaces, innovation, as well as, communication (Dorsey & Blanco,

2015; Fry, 2015; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). The Baby Boomers exodus is creating tensions amplified by the Millennials' job-hopping rate (Kowske et al., 2010; Schawbel, 2013) thus generating additional debt and a considerable loss of critical organizational knowledge (Woods, 2016). Companies are trying to acclimate to this generational shift by increasing collaboration, updating policies on flexible work hours and implementing reciprocal mentorship programs to slow the Millennial job-hopping rate (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012; Woods, 2016).

Generations are distinctive by age, period, and cohort (DeVaney, 2015) and characteristically designated as being born within a specific range of birth years (Schullery, 2013). Strauss and Howe (1991) defined a generation as a special cohort-group that spans approximately 22 years. A generation is the developmental stages of a distinct group born within a range of birth years that experience significant life events (Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991). DeVaney (2015) agreed with the age and period as part of the generation's definition but also included *cohort*. DeVaney defined cohort more specifically as a group of individuals who have shared distinct experiences that lead to similar attitudes and behaviors. Major historical or social events such as world events, pop cultures, natural disasters, economic conditions, and technology (Schullery, 2013; Westerman & Yamamura, 2007) shape and influence the groups' perspective.

The four generations in the workforce include: Silent/Traditionalists Generation (1925-1942); Baby Boomers (1943-1960); Generation X/Gen X (1961-1981); and the Millennials (1982-2003) (Strauss & Howe, 1991). In this study, I utilized Strauss and

Howe's (1991) names and birth ranges with the understanding that the birth ranges may slide forward or backward between two or three years depending on the social scientist. The Silent Generation experienced events like the Great Depression and World War II. In contrast, the Baby Boomers experienced economic prosperity and the inception of the suburban middles class. Events like the civil rights and women's movements as well as the assassinations of J. F. Kennedy and M. L. King influenced the Baby Boomers' viewpoint (DeVaney, 2015; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). Generation X experienced the era of the Vietnam War, the AIDS epidemic, the energy crisis, and economic uncertainty. The Millennial group was born during the Internet Age, globalism, and the 9/11 attacks—all which influenced or shaped their perspectives (DeVaney, 2015; Twenge et al., 2010).

Corporations in all industries, private, and public organizations are finding it challenging to attract and retain talented Millennials (Johnson & Ng, 2016) compounded by the looming retirement of the Baby Boomers (Ertas, 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Ng et al., 2010). The Society for Human Resource Management's (SHRM) (2013) supported corporations' opposition by capturing the trend of the retiring Baby Boomers and the challenge in finding and retaining skilled workers for the last several years.

The Millennials, unlike the Baby Boomers, job-hop frequently; they move more freely from business to business costing the U. S. economy $30.5 billion annually (Adkins, 2016). The Gallup survey stated Millennials change job three times more than the Boomers or Gen Xers (Adkins, 2016). *Why*, is the question that organizations are trying to answer. Researchers are exploring and comparing Millennials' workplace

values through research related to the Boomers (Leschinsky & Michael, 2004; Salt, 2005). Researchers have assumed the enthusiasm of various aspects of work (pay, autonomy, working conditions) and desires (accomplishments, fulfillment, and prestige) define work values (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Salt, 2005).

Four broad categories conceptualize the work values as extrinsic, intrinsic, social, and prestige. Extrinsic work values emphasize the results or the consequences of work—the tangible rewards external to the individual, for example, status, income, and the opportunity to advance (Twenge et al., 2010). Intrinsic work values highlight the procedure of work-the intangible rewards, the inherent interest in work, education potential, and the opportunity to be creative. Social work values encompass unsupervised time, vacation, freedom, and social rewards. Prestige work values incorporate the autonomy in decision making, contributing to society, and job security (Twenge et al., 2010).

Researchers have found that Millennials' work value favors work-life balance, extrinsic instead of intrinsic rewards, rapid advancement, exciting yet challenging work, and contributing to their communities (Ng et al., 2010; Schullery, 2013). When human resource practitioners do not understand Millennial workplace values and desires, they may make changes to existing work structures that result in dissatisfied workers who habitually leave the company (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007). Understanding the preferences of the upcoming dominate generation is an essential element in the development of effective training methods, recruitment materials, hiring processes, and benefits packages (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007).

Deal, Altman, and Rogelberg (2010) differed with Ng et al. (2010) and Schullery (2013). They stated that there is not enough data to substantiate a comprehensive difference in attitudes, work ethics, or values. According to Deal et al., if there are generational differences, the differences are not significant enough to support that the work environment is affected by those differences; for example, questions like do Millennials work less than the previous generations? Deal et al. cited the Family and Work Institute (2005) discovery of all three generations are working longer hours than in the past. There are no differences in the hours worked by Millennials and GenXers at the same age (18-22) years. In 2002 researchers found that GenXers worked more hours than the Boomers at the same age in 1977 (Deal et al., 2010). Additionally, Deal et al. found that Millennials work no less than GenXers and Boomers at similar ages.

Deal et al. (2010) highlighted the importance of context and cohort that asserts the lack of empirical evidence relating to generational differences is only a small portion. There are other contextual (economics, culture) factors that affect a person's behavior. It is important for researchers as well as practitioners to remember that an "individual's behavior is a result of an interaction between an individual's predispositions" and the behavior that the environment encourages, and discourages (Deal et al., 2010, p. 194). As stated earlier, there is substantial literature that discusses the concerns of recruiting, motivating, and retaining Millennials (Ng et al., 2010) as well as popular literature containing suggestions for retaining Millennials (Joyce & Barry, 2016). To include popular articles that theorize on why Millennials job-hop (Vanderkam, 2014;

Zimmerman, 2016), but little empirical research on why Millennials job-hop (Bateman, 2015; Kiah, 2015).

A qualitative grounded theory study is necessary to develop an understanding of why Millennials job-hop, to establish a substantive theory thus probing deeper to construct a theory in hopes of making it more insightful and incisive (Charmaz, 2014). A more in-depth examination uncovered the *why* that might help organizations learn how to retain the Millennials. Understanding the *why* may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, including compensation and benefits packages. Therefore, if companies can increase the Millennials' commitment to their organizations, they may reduce the job-hopping rate saving corporations, critical organizational knowledge, millions of dollars in training, advertising, interviewing, and job posting (Schullery, 2013).

Problem Statement

The general problem is corporations are finding it challenging to attract and retain the highly talented Millennials using just salary and medical insurance (Bednar, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016). Millennials are job-hopping twice as fast as the Baby Boomers (Kowske et al., 2010; Schawbel, 2013) and are much more likely to change careers and employers than the Generation Xers and Boomers (Ertas, 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Ng, Schweitzer, & Lyons, 2010). The cost to replace Millennials averages $15 - $25,000.00 per employee; 60% of Millennials leave their company in less than three years, with 40% of all businesses surveyed have at least 50 or more Millennials in their workforce (Schawbel, 2013). With the Millennial generation dominating the workforce (Fry, 2015)

their frequent job-hopping is creating additional expenses and loss of corporate knowledge (Woods, 2016) despite corporations' best efforts to retain them.

Companies have offered competitive salaries with bonuses, paid leave, health insurance, promotions, mentorship, and other nonmonetary rewards, such as flexible work hours (Smith & Galbraith, 2012; Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009); yet the Millennials still leave. There is ample data on recruiting and retaining Millennials (Deery, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016), as well as popular literature containing suggestions for retaining Millennials (Joyce & Barry, 2016). Many popular articles theorize on why the Millennials job-hop (Vanderkam, 2014; Zimmerman, 2016), and a few phenomenological studies on Millennials turnover (Bateman, 2015; Kiah, 2015).

Scholars urge researchers who are pursuing answers on questions of future generations and job turnover to break away from established turnover theories, established explanatory constructs and standard research practices, to pursue innovative research using varied research designs that ask *how* and *why* questions. Such research may provide a deeper understanding of why employees leave and how leaders can mitigate this tendency (Anderson, Baur, Griffith, & Buckley, 2017; Lee, Hom, Eberly, & Li, 2017). The specific problem is the experiences of Millennials resulting in a decision to job-hop or stay with an organization remain unknown (Lee et al., 2017). Understanding the Millennials' perspective and decision-making process to detach from an organization may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, including compensation and benefits packages.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory to explain the decision-making process of the Millennials' process regarding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization.

Research Questions

The central research question is: What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an organization?

RQ 1: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to job-hop?

RQ 2: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to stay with an organization?

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this qualitative grounded theory research consists of three components, generational theory (Mannheim, 1927/28/52; Strauss & Howe, 1991); Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959,1993,2010; Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014); and Rousseau's (2011) psychological contract theory. All three components inform the study research questions, instrument development, and data analysis. Generational theory aids in distinguishing between specific generations, providing an understanding of the past generations, and forecasting the potential attitudes of the next generations (Strauss & Howe, 1991). The two-factor theory addresses the motivation and job satisfaction of the Millennials (Herzberg et al., 1959, 1993, 2010), while psychological contract theory relates to the Millennials'

employment relationship beliefs (Rousseau, 2011). The conceptual framework helped

narrow the knowledge gap, thus increasing the understanding of why Millennials job-

hop. Below is a brief synopsis followed by a more detailed explanation in Chapter 2.

The first component, generational theory categorizes generational identities, such

as Silent/Traditionalists Generation (1925-1942), Baby Boomers (1943-1960),

Generation X (1961-1981), the Millennials (1982-2003), and the four recurring (Idealist,

Reactive, Civic, and Adaptive) peer personalities (Strauss & Howe, 1991). The peer

personalities, also called the "generational cycle," assist scholars and managers in

understanding the past and forecasting the unfolding attitudes of the next generation

(Strauss & Howe, 1991; Twenge, Freeman, & Campbell, 2012). Mutual social and

cultural experiences generate cohort-groups or birth cohorts, another name for a

generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Twenge et al., 2012).

The second component, Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors, also

referred to as the two-factor theory, supports the overall premise that job satisfaction

positively correlates to job performance levels (Herzberg et al., 1959,1993,2010; Miner,

2005; Sypniewska, 2014). Job satisfaction is the result of the five motivational factors -

verbal recognition, advancement, challenging work, responsibility, and achievement

(Herzberg et al., 2010; Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014). Conversely, job dissatisfaction

can develop from deteriorating hygiene factors such as company policies and

administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships (supervisors, peers, and

subordinates), physical working conditions, job security, benefits, and salary (Herzberg et

al., 2010). Hygiene factors, when appropriately implemented, may eliminate

dissatisfaction and improve work performance up to a point, but do not generate positive job feelings or high job performance levels (Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014). Management must emphasize motivation factors to enable employees to achieve their maximum job performance (Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014).

The third component of this framework, Rousseau's (2011) psychological contract theory, "represents the employment relationship concerning the subjective beliefs of the employer (or employer representative) and the employee" (p. 193). It is a two-dimensional (relational and transactional) theory that encapsulates the perceived promises stated to the employee by the employer relating to motivational factors. The relational aspect of the theory refers to professional development, training, and job security; whereas the transactional aspect refers to compensation and working conditions. Both elements of the psychological contract theory are vital because they link the employee expectations to job satisfaction, thus reducing job turnover (Rousseau, 2011).

Nature of the Study

This study involved the use of a qualitative research methodology and utilized the grounded theory design that focuses on understanding and interpreting the construct of the Millennials job-hopping (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Grounded theory's set of systemic yet flexible guidelines is an appropriate methodology for conducting inductive and qualitative inquiry aimed at theory construction (Charmaz, 2014; Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Grounded theory's emergent and flexible characteristics are ideal (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) for addressing open-ended questions that relate to the Millennials' decision-making process to leave or remain in an organization.

Data were collected from the semistructured interviews with individual participants, analyzed using the constant comparative method, provided insights into the factors affecting the Millennials job-hopping rate and how they interrelate was used to explain why Millennials job-hop or decide to remain with an organization (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Patton, 2015). All participants were members of the Millennial generation between 18-36 years who have changed their job within the last 6 months.

Definitions

Benefits: Refers to any wage cost not directly connected with employees productive, effort, performance, service, or sacrifice (Bhatia, 2009).

Compensation: Refers to all forms of financial returns and tangible benefits that an employee receives as part of the employment relationship. Compensation includes direct (salary/wages, bonuses, stock options, and profit sharing), indirect (insurances, pension, paid vacation, and sick leave), and nonmonetary (job security, flexible hours, recognition, friendships, and job satisfaction) compensation (Bhatia, 2009).

Commitment: The overall strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization (Mowday, 1998).

Generation: A cohort-group fix by peer personality whose length approximates the basic span of life, approximately 22 years (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Job-hopping: The behavior of employees who frequently change companies, instead of changing jobs (Dougherty, Dreher, & Whitely, 1993).

Job satisfaction: An employee's contentment with their job (Sypniewska, 2014).

Organizational commitment: The complete strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization (Mowday, 1998, p. 389)

Organizational structure: The formal grouping, allocation, or pattern of how people and tasks are in an organization normally illustrated by an organization chart (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, Jr., & Konopaske, 2012).

Peer personality: A generational persona recognized and determined by (a) common age location, (b) common beliefs and behavior, and (c) perceived membership in a common generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Phases of Life: A 22-year age bracket demarcated per central social role:

- Elderhood: Age 66 years and over; stewardship as the central role (passing on values, supervising, mentoring, guiding donations) (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

- Midlife: Age 44-65 years; Leadership as a central role (parenting, guiding institutions, teaching, implementing values) (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

- Rising adulthood: Age 22-43 years; Activity as a central role (working, starting families, serving institutions, testing values) (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

- Youth: Age 0-21 years; Dependence as a central role (nurture, growing, learning, accepting protection, dodging harm, attaining values) (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Retention: The result of an employer maintaining desirable employees to preserve the organization's success (Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, & Baert, 2012).

Assumptions

The assumptions guiding this study are as follows:

- The first assumption is that the grounded theory study may evolve as the emerging data indicates what is essential to the study participants.

- The second assumption is that Millennials will be transparent and honest about why they job-hop so often.

- The third assumption is that the Millennials' decision-making process is the catalyst for their decision to job-hop.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this qualitative grounded theory study encompasses Millennials between 18-36 years who just started a new job within six months or less of leaving their former organization. Multiple influential turnover studies support the six-month timeframe (Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Sheridan & Abelson, 1983). Furthermore, it narrows the time frame to capture the Millennials' reasons of *why* they job-hop while the details are still relatively fresh in their memory. Although there are other qualitative methods, grounded theory is a tool utilized in conducting inquiries that shape and reshape data collection while emphasizing analysis (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory is the proper methodology to build a substantive theory about why Millennials job-hop. The findings of this study are potentially transferable to organizations with a high Millennial turnover.

Limitations

A principal research limitation to this study is Millennial males and females between the ages of 18 to 36 years who recently started a new job within the last six months or less. While most studies have focused on college graduate Millennials, this

study is open to any Millennial participants between 18-36 years who have changed their jobs within six months. Excluded from this project was anyone younger than 18 years or older than 36 years.

Most of the limitations lie in the qualitative methodology, such as the time required for data collection, analysis, and interpretation. These processes are challenging, lengthy, and labor intensive (Creswell, 2009). As for compensating for the prior weakness, the researcher can be diligent in organization and efficiency, but it is the qualitative methodology process (Creswell, 2013). To change the process is to modify the methodology.

Another qualitative limitation can be the researcher's biases, which can affect every entity of the study (Creswell, 2009). Concerned biases would be the influence of popular literature retaining suggestions. Avoiding researcher biases is vital and can be done if it is assessed in the context of doing the research, acknowledged, and documented to manage the limitations of the study design (Ogden, 2008). Quality research consists of more than following a checklist. It is a level of commitment to quality throughout the entire research process (Yin, 2011).

Significance of the Study

Significance to Theory

The study is significant because no comprehensive theory explains the Millennials' decision-making process to job-hop or stay with an organization from their perspective. Understanding the Millennials' perspective and decision-making process

may close the knowledge gap between the Millennials and organizations, thus reducing the job-hopping rate, perhaps significantly.

Significant to Practice

The information could assist employers in managing and developing flexible organizational policies and attractive compensation and benefits packages that may entice, engage, and retain talented Millennials, possibly preventing or reducing turnover rates (Johnson & Ng, 2016). The information could support companies in their economic stabilization (Schullery, 2013), and reduce stress levels and workloads for the organizations' current employees while preventing adverse effect on productivity and customer service (Goud, 2014; Moon, 2017). To gain an understanding of why the practical Millennials job-hop, what they value and find appealing, may reduce the Millennial job-hopping rate, thus saving corporations the loss of critical organizational knowledge (Moon, 2017; Woods, 2016), millions of dollars in training, advertising, interviewing, and job posting (Adkins, 2016; Schawbel, 2013)

Significance to Social Change

When the Millennials achieve satisfaction with their jobs, positive social change may occur by increasing loyalty, organizational commitment, and reducing stress (Sokmen & Biyik, 2016; Sypniewska, 2014). Stress reduction for the Millennials in their work environment leads to work enjoyment, reducing employee turnover, thus creating economic stability for corporations and families (Sypniewska, 2014). Job enjoyment reduces stress on the employees, as well as their families.

Summary and Transition

This chapter encompasses the discussion of the background of the study, the problem statement that outlines the general and specific problem, as well as the gap in knowledge that justifies the research. Also included in the chapter are the research questions and conceptual foundation and the nature of the study, which contains the definitions, assumption, scope, delimitations, and the potential significance of the research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory that explains the Millennials' process for deciding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization. Understanding the Millennials' process and perspective of *why* they job-hop may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, including compensation and benefits packages.

Days of being loyal to the company are long gone (Hagel, 2014). The idea of living to work is decreasing as the Baby Boomers retire. Organizations in every industry are searching for new models to not only attract the Millennials but also retain them (Deery, 2008; Ertas, 2015; Hagel, 2014; Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Employees' voluntary turnover also called job-hopping is a continuous challenge (Brown et al., 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016). Corporations and managers accustomed to certain policies and procedures that encouraged and motivated the Boomers and GenXers realize that these policies no longer entice the Millennials to stay (Gilbert, 2011).

Maintaining a stable workforce is paramount to an organization (Deery, 2008). Yet, the Millennials, also known as the next "Greatest Generation," (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010, p. 211) are job-hopping twice as fast as the Baby Boomers (Kowske et al., 2010; Schawbel, 2013), generating serious concerns and substantial additional cost averaging $15,000 - $25,000 per employee (Schawbel, 2013) to replace Millennials (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010). This evolution creates not only a shortage of workers but a loss of knowledge and experience that will possibly affect the organization's competitive edge (Govaerts et al., 2012).

Plenty of data on recruiting and retaining Millennials exist (Deery, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016), and even more on motivating them (Ertas, 2015; Smith & Galbraith, 2012), as well as popular literature containing suggestions for retaining Millennials (Hutchinson et al., 2012; Joyce & Barry, 2016). There are popular articles that theorize on why the Millennials job-hop (Vanderkam, 2014; Zimmerman, 2016) and a few empirical research articles on why Millennials job-hop (Kiah, 2015; Lake et al., 2017).

Yet, there is no comprehensive theory that explains the Millennials' process for deciding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization. The 2025 projection shows the Millennials workforce will increase to 75% worldwide (Schawbel, 2013) highlights the workforce generational shift to Millennials, their high job-hopping rate (Schwabel, 2013; Twenge, 2010).   Therefore if companies can increase the Millennials' commitment to their organizations, they may mitigate the job-hopping rate thus preserving critical organizational knowledge, millions of dollars in training, advertising, interviewing, and job posting (Schullery, 2013).

Chapter 2, the literature review, encompasses an introduction that reiterates the problem and purpose in a concise synopsis that establishes the problem relevancy. Succeeding with an outline of the literature search strategy and a list of the main search terms utilized to compose the conceptual framework that identifies and define the phenomenon. Philosophers, their fundamental theories, and related concepts of the phenomenon are woven synthetically in the conceptual framework that articulates previous research and how this current study benefits from this framework.

Literature Search Strategy

The germane scheme implementation began with a literature search strategy to retrieve information about the theory of Millennials migration. The examination and collection process consists of relevant information searches from peer-reviewed articles, books, and dissertations through several databases. These databases included the following: *EBSCO Research Databases, Thoreau: Multi-database, ABI/Inform Collection, Walden University Dissertation and Theses, ProQuest Central, Business Source Complete, and SocINDEX.*

The library research began with an investigation of the Millennial generation, and some of the challenges organizations were facing as the Millennial generation, which is one-and-a-half-times larger than the GenXers and slightly greater than the Baby Boomers, entered the workforce (DeVaney, 2015). The goal was to dig deeper and surpass the perceive myths and stereotypes that the Millennials are entitled and lazy (Clark, 2017; Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015), to unearth the real issues of why the Millennial generation are job-hopping and to construct an understanding of the Millennials' job-hopping. There are five general themes on why Millennials job-hop (a) to achieve work-life balance, (b) compensation and benefits (c) mentoring and valuing leadership, (d) rejecting convention, and (e) exhibiting precociousness (Clark, 2017).

Initiating the search with the Millennial generation utilizing the Thoreau Multi-Database revealed that most industries had concerns as it relates to the Millennial generation (Herbison & Boseman, 2009). Journals like the Journal of Financial Service

Professionals industries discuss the Millennials' differences and are seeking to understand the Millennial generation needs.

Key search terms were: Generation Y, Millennials, Baby Boomers, Gen X, Retention, Job-hopping, Migrating, Motivating Millennials, Retaining, Recruiting, Millennial Turnover, Job Satisfaction, Employee Attitudes, Employee Retention, Generational Differences, Millennials Psychological Contracts, Motivating Millennials, Turnover Intentions, Retention, and Voluntary Turnover.

Conceptual Framework

As stated in Chapter 1, the conceptual framework for this qualitative research consists of three components, generational theory (Mannheim, 1927/28/52; Strauss & Howe, 1991); Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors (Herzberg et al., 1959,1993,2010; Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014); and Rousseau's (2011) psychological contract theory.

Generational Theory Development

Generation History

The word generation, a quantitative, measurable idea of cosmic time can be traced as far back as the Indo-European cultures and the Old Testament, which marks the time, not by the year or century, but generation (Mannheim, 1927/28/52; Papenhausen, 2009; Strauss & Howe, 1991). The generation root in the Indo-European language is *gen* meaning to bring forth or to come into being. In English, this meaning is preserved in words like *generate* and *genealogy* to express or record the parent-child lineage (Strauss & Howe, 1991). It was Mannheim and Ortega y Gasset writings that broke the

generational genealogical mold (Kertzer, 1983) proposing an *age-location* perspective (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Ortega y Gasset expressed generation as "the most important concept in history" believing that each generation has a special mission whether it is achieved or not (Duane & McCammon, 2007; Kertzer, 1983). Ortega y Gasset also believed that people born at the same time grew up sharing historical periods that shape their views (Duane & McCammon, 2007; Kertzer, 1983). It was Mannheim's 1927 writings that influenced the sociological work of the definition of generation greatly by introducing the term Lagerung 'location' denoting common (Joshi, Dencker, & Franz, 2011) characteristic exhibited by individuals of the same age-group who experienced similar things, but he linked it to the social economic standing of individuals (Mannheim, 1927/28/52).

Mannheim impressed by Pinder's notion of entelechy, an expression of inner unity, introduced the concept generational-unit to expanded knowledge by defining the social location as a group bound by individuals' natural development or deliberate-intentional (consciousness) ties (Mannheim, 1927/28/52). Mannheim highlighted the fact that social relations shape intellectual-social factors such as art, religion, and cultural history that possess creative energy linking it to generations (Mannheim, 1927/28/52) that influence the movement of history (Lyons & Kuron, 2013) thus creating social change (Joshi et al., 2011; Mannheim, 1927/28/52).

Since Mannheim's article, many analysts (Kertzer 1983; Rosow 1978; Ryder 1965; Schewe and Noble, 2000; Troll 1970) have debated age-period-cohort problem (Joshi et al., 2011) and tried to disentangle the ambiguous definition of generation

(Papenhausen, 2009) by establishing boundaries or splicing cohort from its meaning. It

was Ryder's essay that extended the generation definition beyond birth cohort to an

unbiased cohort concept (Gilleard, 2004) defining it as "the aggregate of individuals

(within some population definition) who experienced the *same event at the same time*

interval" (Ryder, 1965, p. 845).   Ryder proclaimed a demographic perspective by

arguing that generational location is better served by linking it with experiencing the

same event at the same time (Ryder, 1965). Now most analysts agree that a cohort in

some variances is a group of people with a shared experience or historical event that

result in permanent similar values, behaviors, and attitudes (Clark, 2017; DeVaney, 2015;

Schewe & Noble, 2000).

The term generation has at least four usages (1) a descent kinship or parent/child

connection also known as lineage, (2) life course stage, (3) as a historical period (Kertzer,

1983; Loizos, 2007), and (4) as a cohort (Kertzer, 1983). For this study, a generation is

defined as a cohort-group fix by peer personality whose length approximates the basic

span of life, approximately 22 years (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

The Birth of Generational Theory

Generational theory derived from merging the generation approach of Mannheim,

Ortega y Gasset age-location interpretation and historical cyclical theory (Papenhausen,

2009; Strauss & Howe, 1991). Strauss and Howe's generational theory relies heavily on

the historical cyclical theory and generations (Papenhausen, 2009) describing five-

generational cycles in America history. We are living in the Millennial Cycle (1943-

2025), the fifth cycle. The four-generational cycles prior were Colonial Cycle (1584 -

1700), Revolutionary Cycle (1701-1791), Civil War Cycle (1792-1859) and Great Power Cycle (1860-1942) (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

The Civil War Cycle was a span of 67 years, the shortest cycle in America history thus far. The Civil War Cycle had only three generations: Transcendentals, Gildeds, and Progressives due to its climatic tragedy, the cycle failed to produce a Civic type group (Strauss & Howe, 1991). There was no crisis-era success, thus causing this generation to come of age suffocated instead of empowered (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Thus, supporting the theory that generations write history as history shapes the generations.

Generational Theory Four Archetypes

Within each generational cycle are four archetypes that recur consecutively – Idealists, Reactives, Civics, and Adaptives each equating to its era, a generational constellation that spans approximately 22 years, give, or take two years (Lingelbach, Patino, & Pitta, 2012; Strauss & Howe, 1991). Strauss and Howe's research depict these four generational archetypes in a fixed order aligning with the peer personalities: Idealists - Boomers; Reactives - GenXers; Civics – Millennials; and Adaptives – Silent/GenZs.

The authors created a model of each type with the understanding that generational peer personalities have the ability to blend and separate, and no particular generation can fit a paradigm precisely (Strauss & Howe, 1991). The Idealists/Boomers and the Civics/Millennials are both dominant archetypes that tend to monopolize the adult public life. Idealists redefine the intrinsic world values and culture thus living a prophetic life cycle of vision, value, and are effective and persuasive with their speaking and writing abilities (Lingelbach et al., 2012; Strauss & Howe, 1991).

The Civics/Millennials are a force to the extrinsic world in areas like technology and rebuilding institutions. They live a heroic lifecycle of worldly achievements and rewards. Civics see themselves as stronger than the older generations, but as they age, they become more optimistic, interconnected, and experienced (Papenhausen, 2009; Strauss & Howe, 1991). Both Reactives and Adaptives are recessive archetypes. The Reactives tend to travel the picaresque adventure and survival lifestyle early in life, while Adaptives usually live a respectable lifecycle (Strauss & Howe, 1991). As young adults, Reactives engage in social and economic entrepreneurship, touch with pleasure seeking high-risk behavior, yet as parents, they have the tendency to restore security (Papenhausen, 2009; Papenhausen, 2009). As young adults, Adaptives fail to acquire self-confidence and compensate for their diminish public role by exercising greater influence on the private world of human relationships (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

When Reactives reach mid-life, they become societies most cunning, pragmatic, and interesting public figures by playing critical midlife roles in social-moments. Adaptives are ameliorators checking the excesses of the Idealists and Civics (Papenhausen, 2009; Strauss & Howe, 1991). As seniors, Reactives, attempt to compensate for their binge-like behavior as young adults by avoiding risk and inspiring conformity. They become cautious conservatives that warn more than they guide (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Adaptive goals are to make things better, to improve living conditions. Each of the generational archetypes develops its unique peer personality (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Generational Theory Social Moments

A *social moment* usually last about a decade; it is an era when historical events radically alter the people's social environment (Strauss & Howe, 1991). The social moment visibly rearranges the American social landscape, the function of the government, the organization of the economy, man's relationship with technology, and U.S. role in world affairs (Strauss & Howe, 1991). There are two social moments: *secular crises* occur when society emphasizes the reorganization the outer-world of institutions and public behavior; *spiritual awakenings* occur when society emphasizes altering the inner world of values and private behavior (Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Secular crises and spiritual awakening are social moments that alternate and last about a decade separated by two phases of life, approximately 45 years. The last social moment was a spiritual awakening from 1961 to 1981, which means we were in an inner driven era from 1982 to 2002 moving toward a *secular crisis culture wars* (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Why does the social-moments matter? Social events, cultural differences, or movements affect children's fundamental values, expectations, young adults' opportunities, and decision-making, as well as, mature adults' behaviors (Twenge, Gentile, & Campbell, 2015).

The Four Generations

There are currently four generations in the labor force, the Silent/Traditionalists Generation (1925-1942, Baby Boomers (1943-1960), Generation Xers/GenXers (1961-1981), and the Millennials (1982-2003) (Clark, 2017; Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991).

Silent/Traditionalists. Born between 1925 to 1942, the Silent/Traditionalists generation also associated with terms like Radio Babies, World War II Generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015). The Silent/Traditionalists Generation, an adaptive archetype, possess a higher level of satisfaction, pride and willingness to go beyond their job requirement, making work a priority, and measures work ethic base on punctuality and productivity (Clark, 2017). Shaped by major events such as the Great Depression, World War II, which includes the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Korean War, and increasing labor unions (Clark, 2017; DeVaney, 2015; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015).

The Silent generation birthed every major figure in the Civil Rights movement from Little Rock, Greensboro lunch counter, Martin Luther King Jr., Malcolm X, Cesar Chavez's farmworker and Russell Means in the American Indian Movement (Clark, 2017; Strauss & Howe, 1991). Nonetheless, not one Silent/Traditionalists emerged as the U.S. President, but to be fair there were quite a few congresspersons, as well as Dick Cheney as the Vice President, and five current Supreme Court Justices materialized from that generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They are an adaptive type who believed in systems, big corporations, and job security with a pension. Only about 2% of them had the desire to become an entrepreneur (Strauss & Howe, 1991). Silent/Traditionalists also, called the Sandwich Generation because they are the stuffing between the get-it-done GIs and the self-centered Boomers (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They are team players and have a sense of social obligation thus mediating and bridging gaps (Clark, 2017).

Traditionalists believed in openness, due process, and fairness (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They are known for respecting authority, family values, separating work and family time, takes pride in self-sacrificing and thriftiness (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). Motivated by currency and position, Traditionalists see working diligently as a sense of pride and determination and consider debt or obligation as embarrassing thus acknowledging that change comes gradually (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). Traditionalists consider themselves as loyal, disciplined, values integrity and character. They view education as a luxury (Clark, 2017). Duty motivates Traditionalists before pleasure; they seek a directive leadership style with clearly defined goals, directions, and measurements (Wiedmer, 2015).

Baby Boomers. Born between 1943 to 1960, the Boomers babies of World War II, the Idealists archetype arrived on the scene as the furious and violent youth of the twentieth century that metamorphosed from hippie to yuppie with great expectations (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Zinsser, 1967). By 1965, Time magazine described them as cheerful builders who would create disease-proof, smog-free cities, enrich the undeveloped world and no doubt write finis to poverty and war (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Zinsser, 1967). It was Zinsser (1967) who call the Boomers, the "Now Generation" – a mini-society that can infuse the future with a new sense of morality and transcendent ethics (Zinsser, 1967, p. 31). Many theorists would agree that Boomers had many opportunities that fed their ambitions and appetites for success (Clark, 2017; DeVaney, 2015; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015). Typically, Boomers were the first

educated in their families which translated into upward mobility (Wiedmer, 2015; Clark, 2017).

Boomers consider the healthiest, wealthiest generation, and grow up in a time of economic prosperity, suburban neighborhoods, (DeVaney, 2015) the absence of world wars, yet lived in the shadow of the Cold War, fearing a nuclear attack from Russia, build bomb shelters, and practice bomb drills in school (Wiedmer, 2015; Clark, 2017). The early events that molded many Boomers perspective was the turmoil of the 60s, Woodstock, Vietnam War; the assassinations of President John F. Kennedy, Martin Luther King, a Civil Rights leader, and Robert Kennedy; Civil Rights and Women's Rights Movements and Integration, the Watergate scandals are just a few of the major events that shape the perspectives of the Boomers (Clark, 2017; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015).

In the workplace Boomers, are characterized as work-centric, independent, goal oriented and competitive, career focus who worked their way up the ranks. They are committed to their personal and professional goals, motivated by perks, prestige, and position (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). Boomers equate the work and their position with self-worth. They favor the hierarchical structure and ranking having resulted in many earning significant positions of responsibility and authority (Wiedmer, 2015). Even today Boomers' primary motivators are money, power, and recognition (Wiedmer, 2015).

Their motto is *living to work,* with a take-charge attitude that aided them as they climb the ladder of success (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). Boomers are unwilling and refuse to relinquish their power, tying their identities to their work. Leading or

supervising Boomers is tricky because they are competitive and may get anger by any perceived threats to their authority or prestige (Wiedmer, 2015). Boomers are very skillful when it comes to collaborating and cooperating with their peers resulting in great teamwork and team building skills (Clark, 2017). Known as workaholics and describe as optimistic, sociable, and proud of their strong work ethic (Clark, 2017). They worked longer work weeks than prior generations believe that continuous learning and growth would lead to success. Boomers like to be recognized for their contributions, and view works as an adventure (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015).

GenXers. Born between 1961 to 1981, the GenXers are Reactive archetypes, also referred to as laid back, late-blooming, the lost generation overshadowed by the Baby Boomers (Clark, 2017; Gross & Scott, 1990). The first generation of the latchkey kids, exposed to daycare if parents could afford it, and the high risk of parental divorce (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). Events that shaped their perspective were their workaholic parents, broken families, and absent parents. A lack of meaningful family relationships led GenXers to create nontraditional families by bonding with friends and colleagues (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). GenXers are independent, self-reliant and have the ability to multitask efficiently and excel while working independent project in the background. Not really a team member but will work with colleagues to achieve a common goal. They prefer to manage their own time, set their limits, and complete work without supervision (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015). GenXers prefer informal dress code and work habits that are fun and motivating (Clark, 2017). They are technically savvy and embrace change (Clark, 2017). Historical events impacting their perspective were

AIDS, the explosion of Challenger shuttle, Rodney King beating, personal computers, Persian Gulf, the fall of the Berlin Wall, MTV, Music and Movie videos (Clark, 2017; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015).

The GenXers are the most educated generation to date (Wiedmer, 2015) and unlike their parents, balance their work and family life, are less loyal to employers and are not motivated by rewards. They demand a flexible work arrangement, are pragmatic, straightforward, expect change and require some flexibility in rules and workplace regulations (Wiedmer, 2015). After watching their Boomers parents get laid off, they have grown to expect change, thus resulting in a more independent perspective and job hop to increase their marketability. GenXers are more likely to question policies and projects (Wiedmer, 2015). Therefore, those who manage GenXers must provide credible reasons for tasks, decisions, and procedures and ensure that there is an opportunity for them to provide input (Wiedmer, 2015). Describe as geeks, independent thinkers, and efficient artists who prefer to be engaged in fast-paced, exciting work; GenXers enjoy working on self-directed and independent projects. They are not a fan of micromanaging bosses, formal policies on dress codes, workplace habits. They expect freedom and balance in their personal and workplace lives. GenXers see work only as a portion of the quality of life they possess and seek to achieve (Wiedmer, 2015).

Millennials. Born between 1982-2003, the Civic archetypes, known as the Millennials, Generation Y, Echo Boomers, Generation We, and Nexters, Digital Natives, and Gen Net (Clark, 2017; Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015). Historical events occurring like the Oklahoma City bombing, Columbine High School

shooting, the destruction of the World Trade Center and Pentagon, Nelson Mandela release and later becoming president, Hurricane Katrina, Asian Ocean tsunami, mobile phones all play a role in shaping the (Clark, 2017; Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991; Wiedmer, 2015) largest generational cohort in the US (Fry, 2015; Wiedmer, 2015). The internet, computers, cell phones, tablets, and other technology devices are second nature to the Millennial generation (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011; Wiedmer, 2015). Unlike the latchkey GenXers, the Millennials were escorted and supervised by their protective parents who were extremely cautious of dangers like kidnapping, drugs, school violence (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015).

Millennials tend to be more social, confident, and seek a balance between work and personal life. They are impatient, bore easily, yet motivated to make sense of their purpose and to belong to meaningful communities (Clark, 2017; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Smith & Galbraith, 2012). They are less independent, more community oriented and seeks meaning in a greater context. Millennials expect more supervision, feedback, clear goal, structure and mentoring. They have the ability to multitask and approach tasks from multiple creative vantage points, enjoy experimenting, discovering new approaches and solutions to problems (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015).

Generational Theory Implementations

The generational theory concept has initiated a plethora of research topics across the fields of sociology, psychology, anthropology, demography, and gerontology (Gurova & Endokimova, 2016; Joshi et al., 2011). Scholar-practitioners from industries like education have used generational theory to rethink teaching contemporary college

students (Buskirk-Cohen, Duncan, & Levicoff, 2016). Analyst in the tourism sector has used generational theory to investigate the attitudes and behaviors of American international travelers (Li, Li, & Hudson, 2013). Researchers are using generational theory as a tool for analysis to develop labor potential (Gurova & Endokimova, 2016).

In the past 2.5 decades, generational theory has been utilized to explore the multiple generations in the workforce, generational differences in work values and attitudes, teamwork, career patterns, work-life balance, recruiting and retaining (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Lyons, Urick, Kuron, & Schweitzer, 2017; Deery, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016) but not without some challenges. Most researchers have adopted the four-generation categories. Although there are some variations among studies relating to the names, sets of generations compared, (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt, & Glade, 2012; Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2010; Twenge et al., 2010) and the birth-year boundaries. Whereas researchers have asserted that the exact boundaries selected to demarcate the generations are not vital (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Many analysts (Kertzer 1983; Rosow 1978; Ryder 1965; Schewe and Noble, 2000; Troll 1970) have debated the age-period-cohort problem (Joshi et al., 2011) and tried to disentangle the ambiguous (Joshi et al., 2011) definition of generation. As well as debated when a generation's identity emerges, and collective memories form into attitudes and behaviors (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Lyons & Kuron, 2013). Mannheim (1927/28/52) and his followers asserted that two key elements of the term generation are (1) a common social location in historical time and (2) a distinct consciousness of that

historical location shaped by the events and experiences of that time (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

One of corporation's most significant challenges is the generational shift occurring in the workplace (Conger, 1997) more than 75 million Baby Boomers will be transitioning into retirement (Fry, 2015). Although managers must be careful not to use generational stereotypes as a generic rational (Joshi et al., 2011; Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Lyons et al., 2017). Generational theory assistance managers in understanding the nature and development of different generational cohorts' perspectives (Dencker, Joshi, & Martocchio, 2008). It aids in exploring employees' fundamental values, thus revealing additional operative methods (Schullery, 2013), and how to forecast the unfolding attitudes of the next generation (Strauss & Howe, 1991; Twenge et al., 2012). Generational theory is vital for framing the current study examination of the Millennial generation as it relates to job migration.

Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivational Factors

Herzberg's hygiene and motivational factors, also referred to as the two-factor theory was develop by Fredrick Herzberg in 1959. The two-factor theory focused on the effects of internal (motivators) and external (hygiene) factors relating to job satisfaction supporting the overall premise that job satisfaction positively correlates to job performance levels (Sypniewska, 2014; Miner, 2005).

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell, (1959) conducted an extensive literature review of job satisfaction studies and discovered variables Herzberg termed "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" deriving from different themes (Sachau, 2007). In 1959,

Herzberg and his colleagues, conducted a study, using a narrative method, on job attitudes in which factors, attitudes, and effects were examined as a unit Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010). Herzberg's team interviewed 200 professional accountants and engineers employed by nine companies in the Pittsburg area (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010). These participants were asked to describe circumstances related to their job when they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad (Herzberg, 2003; Guha, 2010). Herzberg and his colleagues examined the themes of their narratives and discovered job attitudes that reflected satisfaction related to their job content (Guha, 2010; Sachau, 2007); whereas job attitudes reflect dissatisfaction that relates to job context (Sachau, 2007).

Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are dual factor concepts, birth from two separate sources; therefore, satisfaction and dissatisfaction cannot be measured on the same continuum (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015; Bockman, 1971; Herzberg, 1965). Suggesting that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather no satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather no dissatisfaction (Lacey, Kennett-Hensel, & Manolis, 2015).

When hygiene factors are adequate, people may be pleased but not necessarily satisfied. Conversely when hygiene factors are inadequate people may feel dissatisfied (Lacey et al., 2015). Hygiene factors address a worker's basic needs such as wages, coworker relations, and working conditions. Motivating factors address the employee's needs at a higher level such as recognition, achievement, and responsibilities (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015; Herzberg, 2003). Motivating factors are self-stimulated (Herzberg,

2003) their presences create satisfaction, but the absence of motivating factors does not lead to dissatisfaction (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015).

The term hygiene factors derive from the medical principle (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015) and functions as a preventive measure. Hygiene factors tend to sustain the employee rather than motivate positive behavior or feelings toward the company (Herzberg, 1965). Job dissatisfaction occurs (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010) when the hygiene factors deteriorate below an unacceptable level for the employee. Simply put hygiene factors causes negative attitudes, prevent dissatisfaction, but do not contribute to satisfaction (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015). Herzberg's study revealed ten job dissatisfactions factors - company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, personal life, status, interpersonal relationships (subordinates, peers, and superiors) and job security (Herzberg, 1965; Herzberg, 2003).

Job satisfaction involves self-direction and productivity (Guha, 2010). Job satisfaction is symbolic of an employee's contentment with their job (Sypniewska, 2014), which occurs as the result of motivational factors - verbal recognition, advancement, challenging work, responsibility, and achievement (Herzberg et al., 2010; Miner, 2005; Sypniewska, 2014). Conversely, job dissatisfaction results from the effect of company policies and administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships (supervisors, peers, and subordinates), physical working conditions, job security, benefits, and salary (Herzberg et al., 2010; Sypniewska, 2014). These hygiene factors, when appropriately implemented, may eliminate dissatisfaction and improve work

performance up to a point, but do not generate positive job feelings or high job performance levels (Herzberg et al., 2010; Sypniewska, 2014).

Motivation-Hygiene Theory Controversial

Hertzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010) is one of the most controversial theories in management (Behling, Labovitz, & Kosmo, 1968, p. 99; McLean, Smits, & Tanner, 1996; Sachau, 2007). Since the publication of The Motivation to Work (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010) theorists have debated and criticized the validity of the two-factor theory (Bockman, 1971).

Herzberg's study findings challenged the underlying assumption (Lodahl, 1964; Lawler III, 1970) and incited criticism about the core hypothesis of the theory, the methodology utilized to measure satisfaction (Ewen, Smith, Hulin, & Locke, 1966; Behling et al., 1968) and the theory's ambiguity (King, 1970). Many critics (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967; House & Widgor, 1967; King, 1970) have voiced their objection to the two-factor theory (Schwab, DeVitt, & Cummngs, 1971).

Classical and contemporary theorists have validated (Myers, 1964; Harris & Locke, 1974; Islam & Ali, 2013; Schwartz, Jenusaitis, & Stark, 1963; Soliman, 1970) the two-factor theory for a variety of occupations (Lacey et al., 2015) at various level in different industries (Herzberg, 1965).

Analysts extended Herzberg's theory suggesting that the weight average of job satisfaction fluctuates contingent upon the type of profession or position held by the employee (Harris & Locke, 1974; Sypniewska, 2014). For example, Harris and Locke's (1974) revealed that blue collar workers desired more hygiene factors, which shaped their

sense of job satisfaction more than the internal factors. Conversely, the white collar workers preferred the motivating factors as a source of job satisfaction for them (Harris & Locke, 1974; Sypniewska, 2014).

Motivation-Hygiene Theory Still Relevant

Hertzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is still relevant today. Scholars are still exploring job satisfaction in different professions (Holmberg, Sobias, & Carlstrom, 2016). Theorists are implementing the two-factor theory in unique studies such as to examine corporate social responsibility (Lacey et al., 2015) and to evaluate consumer loyalty (Agustin & Singh, 2005). Analysts are expanding the concept by adding additional factors such as utility and convenience as motivators and price and technical quality as hygiene (Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015). Agustin and Singh, (2005) reversed the role of satisfaction in their study making satisfaction a hygiene factor, and trust a motivating factor. Whereas in consumer expectations, satisfaction is an insufficient influence toward the consumer loyalty relational value that functions as a bivalent factor because it reflects both economic costs and social benefits (2005, p. 99). Tuch and Hornbaek (2015) expanded the theory beyond job satisfaction to user satisfaction thus determining the factors that contribute to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the users' experience with smartphones.

Retaining Millennials is a major economic challenge for corporations (Adkins, 2016) thus making the Hertzberg's motivation-hygiene theory a vital element to this study. Motivation-hygiene theory provided a path to understanding how job motivation and satisfaction are linked to job attitudes that influence productive, grievances,

absenteeism, and turnover (Cuony, 1958; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Schwab et al., 1971; Yousef, 2017) as well as organizational commitment (Mercurio, 2015; Porter et al., 1974). Therefore it is imperative for managers to be aware of the importance of job satisfaction which can increase employee organizational commitment, performance levels for both the individuals and the overall organization, thus mitigating Millennials migration.

Psychological Contract Theory

Psychological contract theory "represents the employment relationship concerning the subjective beliefs of the employer (or the employer representative) and the employee" (Rousseau, 2011). The Social Exchange Theory supports the psychological contract, which suggests that workers and businesses participate in exchanges whereby each party to the exchange reciprocates the other's contributions (Blau (1964) as cited in (Lub, Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2016). According to Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity, when owners do not fulfill their agreements and obligations, workers experience psychological contract breach and reciprocate by adjusting their contributions to the company thus reducing their performance (Lub et al., 2016).

Psychological contract theory is a two-dimensional (relational and transactional) theory that encapsulates the perceived promises stated to the employee by the employer relating to motivational factors (Rousseau, 2011). The relational aspect of the theory refers to professional development, training, and job security; whereas the transactional aspect refers to compensation and working conditions (Rousseau, 2011). Both elements

of the psychological contract theory are vital because they link the employee expectations to job satisfaction, thus reducing job turnover (Rousseau, 2011).

Due to organizational changes generated by the past financial crisis and market competition, the interest in psychological contracts has increased (Costa & Neves, 2017). Workers are experiencing continuous discrepancy in their employment relationships and contracts thus being view as breaches of their psychological contract (Costa & Neves, 2017). According to Robinson and Rousseau (1994), breaching psychological contracts is the norm, not the exception. To view the psychological contract as a reciprocal obligation comprised of a belief that establishes some form of a promise that both parties agree to all terms and conditions of the contract (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The content analysis suggested that the psychological contract violations frequently relates to training and development, compensation and promotion (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Thus, making employees feel as if the organization reneged on their promises (Pate, Martin, & McGoldrick, 2003) in which their employee and employer relationship becomes unbalance (Robbins, Ford, & Tetrick, 2012).

Research indicates that the breach of psychological contracts has many negative consequences for employees such as disappointment, frustration, and distress (Pate et al., 2003). Breach psychological contracts increase stress (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), reduce commitment, satisfaction, and trust (Pate et al., 2003; Robbins et al., 2012) and increases turnover intentions (Kraak, Lunardo, Olivie, & Durrieu, 2017).

In recent research, theorists have examined multiple areas such as the impact of forgiveness and bullying on a breach psychological contract (Costa & Neves, 2017;

Kakarika, González-Gómez, & Dimitriades, 2017), plausible links between the

employees' career stages and their psychological contract preferences (Low, Bordia, &

Bordia, 2016), and if generations respond differently to diverse features of a fulfilled

psychological contract (Lub et al., 2016).

Costa and Neves' (2017) studied the impact of forgiveness on breach

psychological contract. They found that when forgiveness cognitions are high,

employees become less emotionally exhausted and are more capable of managing the

psychological contract breach. With workplace bullying becoming familiar, Kakarika,

González-Gómez, and Dimitriades (2017) researched the impact of workplace bullying

on a psychological contract and revealed that workplace bullying causes the

psychological contract breach between employee and employer and that workplace

bullying are toughest for older women. Low et al. (2016) highlighted the plausible link

between the employees' career stages and their psychological contract preferences in

their research, thus revealing different contributions and incentives expectation for the

employees perceive career stage. Lub et al. (2016) researched the generational response

to psychological contract fulfillment. They discovered that generations respond

differently to various aspects of a fulfilled psychological contract. For example, the social

atmosphere (good working environment, appreciation, recognition, and support from

colleagues and management) motivate Boomers and GenXers. GenXers also liked fair

organizational policies and rewards. Millennials favored job content, career

development, and rewards (Lub et al., 2016).

This study benefits from the perspective provided by the psychological contract framework because employers use psychological contracts to attract and retain employees in exchange for incentives (Low et al., 2016). Gaining an understanding of employees' different expectation relating to contributions and incentives can be an organizational benefit in motivating their employees. Research has increasingly shown that the one-size-fits-all approaches do not work (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dayne, 2010). Furthermore, the psychological contract is a useful concept for understanding changes in employment relationships incite by changing economics due to globalization, market and political developments.

Literature Review

The literature review for this qualitative research includes a discussion of Millennials dissimilarity to the other three generations in the labor force. The literature review encompasses the Millennials' career expectations, their work values, and incentives to recruit and retain them, as well as academic research and popular press reports on Millennials' job-hopping.

Millennials

There are four distinct generations currently in the labor force: The Silent/Traditionalists Generation (1925-1942), Baby Boomers (1943-1960), Generation Xers/GenXers (1961-1981), and the Millennials (1982-2003) (Clark, 2017; Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991). As stated early due to the inconsistency in the generational birth year boundaries, this study used Strauss and Howe's (1991) length that approximates the basic span of life, approximately 22 years.

Strauss and Howe (1991) considered the Millennials to be the next great generation, and note that they have higher expectations than previous generations (Ng et al., 2010). Howe and Strauss (2000) described this new generation as being rule followers, optimistic, collaborative, and racially and ethnically diverse (Keeling, 2003). Millennials have better education, are more affluent and ambitious, and have no plans or they have impractical plans for achieving their expectations. Characteristics like being unique, confident, sheltered, team-oriented, pressured, achievers, and conventionalists make the Millennials unique and remarkably different from the GenXers and Boomers (Keeling, 2003).

The Millennials' population is approximately 75.4 million, eclipsing the Baby Boomers (Fry, 2016) with a population projection of 81.1 million peaking in 2036 (Fry, 2015). As of May 2015, the Millennials U. S. labor force comprised of 34%, rapidly increasing with 53.5 million in the workforce surpassing the GenXers 52.7 million, thus making them the largest generational workforce (Fry, 2015). This workforce generational shift, maligned with the Millennials' poor retention rates (Brown et al., 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Schawbel, 2013) are causing theorist, practitioners, and managers in most industries to examine their businesses customs and industry principles, all in search of understanding of why Millennials migrate (Campione, 2015).

Scholars have discussed, researched, and evaluated the Millennial generation in the fields of business, technology, education, psychology, sociology, and religion (Beinhoff, 2011; Joshi et al., 2011). The Millennials are label as ambitious and impatient but directionless with unrealistic plans (Keeling, 2003; Ng et al., 2010). Instead of

contrasting the Millennials with other generations and perpetuating the stereotypes, the objective of this study was to contribute to the understanding of the Millennials work-related expectations and their career decision-making. This study includes the examination of relevant research relating to Millennials in the workplace, such as their career expectations, work ethic, attitudes, and values. This dissertation also includes relevant studies conducted relating to recruiting, motivating, and retaining the Millennial generation. An additional objective was to highlight, connect, and investigate psychological contracts' impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the Millennials.

Millennials Career Expectations

Career expectations denote career pursuits that an individual considers to be realistic and accessible (Armstrong & Crombie, 2000; Metz, Fouad, & Ihle-Helledy, 2009). Studies have revealed that an individual's interest, social habits, parental guidance, educational level, and race/ethnicity can influence career expectations (Kong, Wang, & Fu, 2015; Metz et al., 2009). Past researchers have suggested that Millennials hold significantly different career expectations, attitudes, and values than previous generations (Kuron et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2010; Twenge et al., 2010).

Millennials are smart, creative, ambitious, productive, and digital natives with high career expectations (DeVaney, 2015; Ng et al., 2010). Conversely, they are difficult, entitled (Deal et al., 2010), and narcissistic (Twenge & Foster, 2010). Listed below are the five predominant career related expectations continuously revealed in various empirical studies (Ng et al., 2010; PWC, 2011; Kuron et al., 2015).

- Opportunities for advancement

- Work-life balance

- Good pay and benefits

- Meaningful work

- Nurturing work environment

Opportunities for Advancement

Career growth and the opportunity to advance are the most important factors for Millennials considering a job (Kong et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2010). According to Ng et al. (2010), the Millennials' top priority for advancement opportunity confirms their ambition and impatient nature for rapid promotions. The positive side is that individuals with high career expectation usually are willing to embrace their careers, develop their job-related skills, and take on challenging jobs. The opportunity to advance encourages them to reach their full work potential and to perform their best (Kong et al., 2015).

Work-Life Balance

The era of living to work is transitioning out as the Baby Boomers retire (Ng et al., 2010). Unlike their Boomer parents, work-life balance matters to the Millennials. Most Millennials are skeptical (Ng et al., 2010) and unwilling to commit their lives to an exclusive priority of work even with the promise of substantial compensation later (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). This generation's significant life events included the failure of major companies (Enron, TYCO) due to unethical management (Twenge et al., 2010).

Work-life balance is important to Millennials; they want flexible work hours (Bristow, Amyx, Castleberry, & Cochran, 2011; Ehrhart, Mayer, & Ziegert, 2012), more leisure time such as paid time off (Campione, 2015), the ability to work from home, to start their day later, or the option to work at night (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). They believe that productivity should be the measurement of their value, not the number of hours they work (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). Work-life balance has become a vital concern not only for Millennials (Luscombe, Lewis, & Biggs, 2013) but organizations as well (Roebuck, Smith, & Haddaoui, 2013). Leading companies like Google, eBay, and KPMG have added amenities that focus on de-stressing and fun activities (Twenge et al., 2010). There is evidence of the increasing sentiments of work-life balance importance across the generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2013) and work-life balance will almost certainly become part of the Millennials negotiating terms (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011).

For the Millennials work-life balance highlights their desire to work and play, it suggests that there should be a balance between work and home. It infers that employees be equally satisfied with the time that is invested in both work and home while also spending pleasant times with family, friends, and pursuing happiness (Smith, 2010; Chimote & Srivastava, 2013). Work-life balance enhances job satisfaction (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013). It is the integration of an employee's personal life and their community involvement (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). According to recent studies, work-life balance means more to the Millennials than the previous generation (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011; Smola & Sutton, 2002) it means more than their salaries

(Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009). Of all the generations Millennials are likely to negotiate their terms under which they work at every stage of their career (Ng et al., 2010).

Work-life balance is not only beneficial for the employees, but for the organization as well. There are multiple benefits for both the employees and the organization (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013). For the employee, work-life balance can enhance job satisfaction, increase their productivity, job security, increases the autonomy, reduces job stress, and improve their overall physical and mental health (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013). The benefits for the organization include the increase embeddedness, organizational productivity, employee's loyalty, and commitment, thus reducing employee's absenteeism and turnover (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Tews, Michel, Xu, & Drost, 2015). Studies reveal that an organization's innovative work-life balance policies can enhance their reputation, thus enabling the company to attract and retain new applicants (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013).

Good Pay and Benefits

Money is the single most motivating factor for an individual to work for an organization (Agarwal, 2010; Twenge & Donnelly, 2016) and that is no different for the Millennials (Twenge & Donnelly, 2016). As individualism and income inequality increases in the United States so does the Americans' extrinsic values (money, image, fame). Extrinsic values grew at the same rate as income inequality (Twenge & Donnelly, 2016). Millennials may have a consumer mentality relating to education thus treating education as a transactional procedure, or a means to an end, but this trend began with the

GenXers. Studies reveal that money matters to Millennials (Baird, 2014; Smith & Galbraith, 2012; Twenge & Donnelly, 2016).

Meaningful Work

Several studies reveal that challenging and meaningful work matters greatly to Millennials, and it rates significantly as a job attribute (Madhavkumar, 2016; Ng et al., 2010; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011), that can lead to the perception of organizational attractiveness (Gomes & Neves, 2011). Coates' (2017) study capture five Millennials' perspective of meaningful work as passionate, job satisfaction, engaging and fulfilling, challenging, and a sense of ownership. Her research also exposed that education and the economy influence the participants meaning of work (Coates, 2017).

 Nurturing Work Environment

A nurturing work environment is an organizational attribute that is supportive, encourages productive, enhances self-esteem, increases job satisfaction, and promotes peer cohesion and retention (Gomes & Neves, 2011; Hayburst, Saylor, & Stuenkel, 2005). Supportive work environments attract Millennials who are optimistic, team players, collaborators, achievement-oriented, socially cognizant, and extremely educated (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011; Gomes & Neves, 2011). Conversely, they are described as needy, requiring constant feedback, and not a favor of micromanaging (Luscombe et al., 2013). Millennials, for the most part, want a nurturing work environment that emphasizes the social aspect of work such as, friends, coworkers, an enjoyable place to work. They want mentors who are strategic thinkers, inspirational, personable, and

visionaries. Millennials prefer a collaborative work environment instead of a competitive workplace environment. Collaboration makes the Millennial employee happier.

When it comes to the Millennials' careers, they do have great job expectations. They want career advancement, fast promotions, and significant pay increases. Millennials want work-life balance, and they expect to work with and for respectable people in a nurturing work environment (Ng et al., 2010). Millennials' expectation for their first job and pay is realistic, but they desire career development, training, and want rapid advancement. (Ng et al., 2010). They expect to receive a promotion within 15 - 18 months, all while ensuring that they achieve a meaningful and satisfying social life outside of work (Ng et al., 2010).

Millennials Work Values

For two and half decades, business, popular, and academic literature have contained discussions about generational differences that suggest Millennials are significantly different from the preceding generations (Kuron et al., 2015). Business literature relating to the changing workforce emerge with titles like Martin & Tulgan's *Managing the Generation Mix*; Lancaster & Stillman's *The M-factor: How the Millennial Generation is Rocking the Workplace*; and Howe & Nader's *Millennials in the Workplace* to list just a few (Beinhoff, 2011).

Popular literature such as *Fortune*, *Harvard Business Review,* and the *Wall Street Journal* has suggested changing company practices to adapt to the Millennials' work values (Twenge & Campbell, 2008; Twenge J. M., 2010). Various academic literature has found generational differences in personality traits, attitudes, and behaviors (Frieze,

Olson, Murrell, & Selvan, 2006; Kessler, Berglund, Demler, Jin, & Walters, 2005; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). A plethora of studies have been conducted to gain an understanding of the Millennials goals, work ethic, expectations, values, attitudes and behaviors (Costanza et al., 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2011), work values (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2007), work preferences (Ng et al., 2010; Twenge, 2010), and personalities (Twenge & Campbell, 2008).

Despite the assumption or the appearance of a changing workforce, very like empirical evidence exist to support the generational difference in work values (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Twenge & Campbell, 2008). The majority of the literature extrapolated information from non-empirical sources, with a few relying on qualitative interviews (Twenge et al., 2010).

Rokeach (1973) described values as an "enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct (instrumental values) or end state (terminal values) of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence" (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5) (as cited by Lyons et al., 2007, p. 340). Rokeach (1973) postulated that the concept of values is a unifying construct in the study of human behavior (Lyons, Higgins, & Duxbury, 2010) that highlights the wealth of research within the organizational behavior literature. The concept of values connects to motivation (Locke, 1991), job satisfaction (Locke, 1976), decision making (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), organizational commitment (Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998), organizational citizenship behavior (Feather & Rauter, 2004), and employee turnover (Kuron et al., 2015; Lyons et al., 2010; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

The term work values have captured a significant amount of attention since the Protestant Work Ethics of the16[th] Century, although the definition of work values has vastly changed (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998). Workers no longer believe that work is necessary for salvation or that hard work, perseverance, dedication, and frugality is pleasing to God (Smola & Sutton, 2002).   In 1997, Dose constructed a comprehensive two-dimensional definition that reflected the main elements thus reducing the confusion over the conceptual limitations (Smola & Sutton, 2002).

Therefore, work values are the *evaluative standards relating to work or the work environment* by which an individual discern what is *right* or *assess the importance of preferences* (Dose, 1997, pp. 227-228). According to Smola and Sutton (2002), values are what individuals believe to be right or wrong. Therefore, work values employ the definition of right or wrong to the workplace (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Values learned during an individual's formative years, were once seen as permanent, unchallengeable and remains for the most part consistent (Kuron et al., (2015); Lyons et al., 2007; Parry & Urwin, 2011).   Recent research suggests that work values change over time and is at it lowest during an individual's late teens to mid-twenties (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Krahn & Galambos, 2014). Work values are essential in constructing career decisions and typically ordered hierarchically in an individual's mind to their comparative importance (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Work values are "generalized beliefs about a relative desirability of various aspects of work (pay, autonomy, working conditions) and work-related outcomes (prestige, accomplishment, and fulfillment)" (Lyons & Kuron, 2013, p. 144).

This segment of the study will use mainly empirical evidence relating to generational differences in work values with the focus on Millennials. Starting with Rhodes' (1983) review of empirical literature that focuses on work attitudes and behaviors, concluding that most of the studies were insufficient cross-sectional studies thus making it impossible to have investigated the differences between generations (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Rhodes recommended the use of longitudinal and time lag data (a comparison of the individuals who are the same age in different time periods) to completely appreciate the generational differences in work value (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Although many of the studies reviewed utilized cross-sectional data making it impossible to disentangle the generational differences; Rhodes findings reveal that the values reviewed were consistent with the lifecycle or career stage interpretation of differences thus suggesting that needs and values change with age (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins (2007) research reveal significant generational work value differences that support the generational stereotypes by using the Schwartz Values Survey (Schwartz S. H., 1999). The Millennials did not differ much from the Boomers or Traditionalists, they scored lower than GenXers on open to change, and higher on conservationism (Parry & Urwin, 2011) As for self-enhancement values, both Millennials and GenXers scored higher than Boomers and Traditionalists. Cennamo and Gardner (2008) used a similar approach and discovered that the Millennials value autonomy and work-life balance (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Chen and Choi (2008) utilized a cross-sectional survey, although problematic, revealed that Millennials value economic return, higher than Boomers, who valued

altruism and intellectual stimulation, and GenXers, who valued security and independence (Parry & Urwin, 2011; Rhodes, 1983). The Millennials valued the work environment and were less concerned about personal growth like intellectual stimulation and achievement than the Boomers and GenXers (Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Extrinsic, intrinsic, social, and prestige are the four categories commonly classified as work values. First, extrinsic work values refer externally to the individual, tangible rewards in exchange for work such as income, job security, status, and the opportunity to advance (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Kuron et al., 2015; Twenge et al., 2010). Second, intrinsic work values pertain to the intangible rewards, such as the self-development, psychological satisfaction acquired while accomplishing challenging work, additional training, intellectual stimulation, and the opportunity to be creative (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Kuron et al., 2015; Twenge et al., 2010). Third, social/altruistic work values include work relationships (coworkers, supervisors) and values (the desire to support and contribute society) (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Kuron et al., 2015). Social work values also encompass unsupervised time, vacation, freedom, and social rewards (Twenge et al., 2010). Fourth, prestige/status work values refer to power, influence, and status (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Kuron et al., 2015).

There is a popular assumption that there are generational differences in work values thus requiring various managing techniques (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Schullery, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2011). The empirical data revealed evidence of generational variances as assorted at best, with several studies failing to find generational work value variances (Parry & Urwin, 2011). Some studies found variances that were not consistent,

small in magnitude, or was unable to differentiate between generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Parry & Urwin, 2011). To include researchers challenging the findings that contradict the generational stereotypes (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015; Parry & Urwin, 2011).

Several new studies have occurred since Parry and Urwin's 2011 study. Jin and Rounds (2012) and Krahn and Galambos (2014) studies uncovered that work values are not stable and are subject to change as an individual transition from adolescence to adulthood suggesting that Millennials work values will change as they gain work experiences. Both Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, and Lance, (2010) and Wray-Lake, Syvertsen, Briddell, Osgood, and Flanagan, (2011) studies revealed all generations have increased leisure time values, decrease work centrality (Campione, 2015), and extrinsic values spiked in the mid-1990s. There were no significant differences in intrinsic or altruistic work values. Wray-Lake et al., (2011) research also revealed that the importance of job security has decreased.

Although there are recent studies that reveal greater differences, still there is very little useful information that can be gleaned from the hodgepodge of data. Reason being, there is no standardization in methodologies, there is still generation/cohort definition confusion, cross-sectional studies are sampled from different countries and industries. Researchers are using different measurements, comparing different generational ranges, and most of the studies were conducted more than a decade ago, thus leaving a gap in the literature relating to generational work value differences. There are high hopes that as time passes and theorist continue to used time-lag designs, well constructed cross-

sectional studies, and validated measurements that the data will reveal more convincing evidence of work value differences across generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2013).

Incentives to Recruit and Retain Millennials

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017), the monthly average of people quitting their jobs in the United States is 3.0 million. Retention is a real concern for many companies. What does it take for an organization to keep their top Millennial performers? Low morale, increased absenteeism, and low productivity usually leads to high turnover. Most if not all articles written today would agree that employee retention is complex and influenced by many factors and the old way of keeping employees is not working for the Millennials.

Organizations like Lockheed Martin are allowing their Millennial knowledge workers to work on the newest and coolest high-profile projects like the deep-space exploration spacecraft (Putre, 2016). In the past, the new employee's position would have been some inconspicuous role, until they gain enough experience or put in more time. Companies are now supporting flexible work schedules, cross-training, and time off for working on community projects like Habitat for Humanity (Putre, 2016).

CEOs of the banking industry want their employees to have family and personal lives, exciting work tasks, charitable outreach, and faster promotions (Stewart, Oliver, Cravens, & Oishi, 2017). The banking industry has chosen to respond to the Millennial high turnover rate with rapid promotion paths, year-long leave for charitable work, and an opportunity to work on microfinance projects, which are all incentives to recruit and retain the Millennials (Stewart et al., 2017).

After reading many articles, it appears that there are five common characteristics advancement opportunity (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008), work-life balance (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013), good pay and benefits (Twenge & Donnelly, 2016), meaningful work (Madhavkumar, 2016), and a nurturing work environment (Hayburst et al., 2005) that attract Millennials to an organization (Kong et al., 2015). The question remains if a company provides all five characteristics will those career-related factors convince the Millennials to stay with a company for more than three years (Campione, 2015).

Millennials and Job Satisfaction

Campione (2015) explored beyond compensation packages and workplace policies to examine the businesses practices and industry standards. Campione asked: Why are the Millennials not staying? Campione used the National Longitudinal Surveys, designed to collect labor market activities at various points in time, which consisted of a cross-sectional sample of 1400 Millennial employees of 25 years of age.

Campione (2015) used several variables to measure the employees' job satisfaction. Wages, working environments, interpersonal relationships, and the activities of the job, correlate with job satisfaction (Campione, 2015; Herzberg, 1966; Sypniewska, 2014). Studies have provided data that supports the concept that job satisfaction positively correlates with retention consistently and significantly (Coomber & Barriball, 2007; Tourangeau & Cranley, 2006). Several studies have revealed that low job satisfaction is a determinant of intentions to quit (Dick et al., 2004; Olaniyan & Hystad, 2016). Low job satisfaction negatively affects motivation, absenteeism (Judge et al.,

2017), productivity (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) behavior and intrinsic work values (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Twenge et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction is vital to retention (Lee, Miller, Kippenbrock, Rosen, & Emory, 2017) it is a positive central indicator of the employees' assessment of their work (Campione, 2015; Yucel, 2012). Job satisfaction involves the employee's productivity and their self-direction. "Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It symbolizes their contentment, their positive attitude directed toward the company, their relationship with coworkers, and their job (Guha, 2010; Sypniewska, 2014).

Campione (2015) examined nine work characteristic variables: wages, paid leave, flexibility, working greater than 50 hours a week, irregular schedule, company size, union coverage, supportive coworkers, and controls. As expected, extrinsic values such as wages, paid leave, and flex time positively contributed to job satisfaction, but only moderately (Campione, 2015). Long work hours (i.e., greater than 50) and irregular schedules were negative and highly significant factors in reducing Millennials' job satisfaction. Working greater than 50 hours a week or working an irregular schedule makes it challenging to maintain a work-life balance (Campione, 2015).

During this study, the Millennials viewed the unions negatively (Campione, 2015). Campione suggested that the unions' negative influence on job satisfaction was due to the Millennials rejecting the establishment and seniority rules. Both the establishment size and supportive coworkers contribute positively to job satisfaction although the organizational size was substantially greater than the supportive coworkers

(Campione, 2015). The smaller establishment size result was a highly significant positive contributor to job satisfaction thus suggesting that a small organization will address the Millennials' needs better. Whereas the coworkers were a moderately, significant positive contributor to job satisfaction (Campione, 2015).

Campione (2015) indicated a different twist, instead of focusing on the positive contributors to job satisfaction, she highlighted the variables that negatively impact job satisfaction because those are the characteristics that will reveal the Millennials' dissatisfaction, possibly their intent to leave or quit. According to the author, offering more money and promotional opportunities most certainly attracts, but are moderately significant they do not tip the scale. It is the highly significant (excessive work hours and irregular schedules) (Brown et al., 2015) that Millennials perceive as negative, or anything they deem unfair, unmanageable or unreasonable will cause them to migrate to another organization (Campione, 2015).

Millennials and Turnover

Millennial employee turnover is a challenge for most industries. The cost to replace them is expensive and various depending on whether the Millennial is an hourly or salary employee. According to the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM), companies may need to spend the equivalent of six to nine months of an employee's salary. If the Millennial is a low-level manager making about $60,000 it can cost an organization $30,000 - $45,000 to hire and train. High turnover rates are not only (training, advertising, interviewing) costly, it negatively affects tacit knowledge,

productivity, morale, and customer services (Goud, 2014; Moon, 2017). The Gallup report estimated that it costs the U. S. economy $30.5 billion annually (Adkins, 2016).

It is true that the Millennial generation job hops twice as must as the other generations with an average turnover of 1.8 years (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017; Schawbel, 2013). Academic literature tends to suggest a variety of reasons that relate to or influence both voluntary and involuntary turnover (George & Wallio, 2017; Yucel, 2012). Depending on the profession, the reasons for job-hopping maybe the lack of motivation, job satisfaction, job demands, stress, emotional exhaustion, organizational fairness, organizational commitment, poor psychological contracts, burnout, gender, and tenure (George & Wallio, 2017; Yucel, 2012).

Turnover is the act of an employee physically quitting their employer thus relinquishing all jobs and responsibilities (George & Wallio, 2017). The term turnover intentions are the precursor to the actual turnover. Current data states that employment turnover intention levels are low when employees are satisfied (George & Wallio, 2017; Yucel, 2012). Not all Millennials need to feel significantly dissatisfied with their current job to migrate. If they see an opportunity that is attractive that relates to career advancement or a desired lifestyle aspiration, they will job-hop, regardless of how long they have been with their current employer.

Studies have revealed that job satisfaction is one of the strongest antecedents of organizational commitment and turnover intentions thus signifying a high level of job commitment (Ertas, 2015; Meyer et al., 2002; Yucel, 2012). The result suggests that the higher the level of commitment, the lower the level of turnover intentions (Yucel, 2012).

Job satisfaction is a positive influence on affective, continuance, and normative commitment thus reducing turnover intentions (Yucel, 2012). Turnover intentions have a negative association with job satisfaction, affective, and continuance commitment (Yucel, 2012).

- The *affective* organizational commitment concept represents the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and their involvement in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

- The *normative* commitment is two-dimensional, and it mirrors the employees' feelings of moral obligation and a sense of indebtedness to their organization (Gallicano, 2013; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010).

- The *continuous* commitment represents a cost consciousness associated with leaving the organization, which signifies an employees' intentions to stay due to the anticipated cost of leaving an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Singh & Gupta, 2015).

Job dissatisfaction is an unpleasant emotional state that can result from a negative appraisal, job frustration, administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships (supervisors, peers, and subordinates), physical working conditions, job security, benefits, and salary (Herzberg et al., 2010; Sypniewska, 2014; Yucel, 2012). Employees who feel stress (DeTienne, Bradley, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012) or burned out (Herda & Lavelle, 2012) are likely to look for new employment. Employees unfairly treated or feel mistreated will have high intentions of leaving their present employer (George & Wallio, 2017). Studies have shown that women tend to have higher turnover

intentions than men (Reed et al. 1994). Employees that have a long tenure with an organization are less likely to quit (Herda & Lavelle, 2012; Reed, Kratchman, & Strawser, 1994).

Recent studies like Deloitte (2017) Survey suggests that this unpredictable environment has made some Millennials more loyal to their employers this year, than a year ago. The uncertain times has dampened the Millennials' desire to job hop. Whereas, the 2016 Deloitte Survey asserted that Millennials lack loyalty and they anticipated leaving their present employer within two to five years. After a year of political and social unrest, the Millennials' migration desires have lessened (The 2017 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2017). Millennials in the U. S. are now more likely to stay more than five years with organizations that support and give them the opportunity to contribute to charities or causes they care about (The 2017 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2017).

Companies are being creative in boosting the Millennials sense of empowerment. The majority of the data suggest that Millennials want their jobs to be meaningful, they want to make a difference (Madhavkumar, 2016; Ng et al., 2010; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). When Millennials feel that they are making a difference they have a more positive mindset, which is good for the overall business performance (The 2017 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2017). Flexible working conditions continue to be a desire for most Millennials (Benson, 2016). Flexible working practices (flex-time, flex-roles, flex-location, and flex-recruitment) establishes the foundation for trust and loyalty.

- Flexible time allows the employee to choose when they start/finish work.

- Flexible role – the employee chooses within certain guidelines what they do as a part of their job.

- Flexible recruitment – offers different types of contracts, crowd-sourcing talent.

- Flexible location – employees choose to work from the office, home or other locations.

Flexible working practices relate to improved organizational performance, personal benefits, and loyalty (The 2017 Deloitte Millennial Survey, 2017).

Based on Deloitte's 2017 study if a company wants to attract, retain, and motivate Millennials for more than five years, then corporations and executives need to be transparent, honest, direct and provide feedback frequently. The Millennials, also called the "trophy generation" is accustomed to receiving immediate feedback (Holm, 2012), silence signifies negativity and has the potential to impact job performance (Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Organizations need to invest and engage in social issues/charities and implement flexible working practices to establish trust and loyalty (Benson, 2016). Companies need to embrace technology that supports collaboration beyond functional and geographical boundaries thus making collaboration a way of doing business (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). Embracing instant messaging, networking, and social networks that include Twitter, Facebook, and LinkedIn, which enhance innovation opportunities for Millennials engagement (Benson, 2016; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011).

Millennials and Motivation

It has become apparent to most organizations that the one size fits all does not attract, motivate, or retain the Millennials (Marinova et al., 2010). The Millennials have identified meaningful work, compensation, work environment, advancement potential, and flexible work hours as their essential motivational factors (Kong et al., 2015; Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Motivation affects job performance (Kong et al., 2015) and productivity (Ertas, 2015). Millennials want immediate feedback on their job performance (Holm, 2012; Smith & Galbraith, 2012) and guidance throughout their career development.   Millennials with high levels of mentoring and support tend to develop maximum efficiency and satisfaction in their careers (Kong et al., 2015).

 In search of what motivates Millennials, Calk and Patrick (2017) conducted research to investigate factors that affect workplace motivation. The study examined the Millennials' perception of the five motivational needs identified by the latest revision of Work Motivation Inventory (WMI) (Hall & Williams, 2002) base on Maslow's (Maslow, 1943) Hierarchy of Needs concept and Herzberg's (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010) Hygiene-Motivator model of job satisfaction (Calk & Patrick, 2017).

The five characteristics of motivational needs in the workplace utilized in the study were (Calk & Patrick, 2017):

- *Basic* - relates to a pleasant working environment, more leisure time, more luxurious personal property, increase salary, the avoidance of physical strain and discomfort.
- *Safety* - relates to performance standards, safe working environment, fringe benefits like insurance and retirement plans.

- *Belonging* - refers to friendly coworkers, team membership, and collaboration.

- *Ego-status* - relates to job advancement opportunities, recognition, and performance rewards.

- *Actualization* - relates to challenging and meaningful work that allows creativity and lead to a sense of personal fulfillment.

The higher score indicates the level of importance, the study revealed that the participants scored highest on *Ego-status*, *Belonging*, and *Basic* successively. Safety was scored the lowest supporting the theory that Millennials are willing to take career-related risks by changing job to experience more meaningful and satisfying work as long as their basic needs are met (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Twenge et al., 2010).

Every driver or motivation relates to the state of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with other drivers (Maslow, 1943). Work ethic is not a defining value for the Millennials like it was for their parents and grandparents (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011; Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Meaningful work, flexibility, supervisor relationship, and growth opportunities are motivational factors for Millennials (Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Supervisors can motivate Millennials by providing regular feedback. Millennials raised in an era of high attention and affirmation are not accustomed to an organization ignoring or devaluing them. Supervisors must hold them accountable, raise expectation, and affirm them constantly (Sujansky & Ferri-Reed, 2009).

It is essential for organizations to understand the Millennials' motivation (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Stewart et al., 2017). Motivation is an individual decision (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010) and people are naturally motivated to satisfy their

needs (Ertas, 2015). Therefore, companies must develop a work environment that addresses those needs (Calk & Patrick, 2017).

Studies have shown that to recruit and retain Millennials; organizations must endorse collaboration, a pleasurable work environment (belonging) and challenging and meaningful work (ego-status). Companies must go beyond the predictable salaries, retirement, insurance, or other (safety) benefits (Calk & Patrick, 2017; Kong et al., 2015). Millennials are diverse in their motivational needs thus making it challenging for an organization. The era of IBM, suits of dark blue with the white-collar shirts are gone. Organizations ran in a soldierly or mechanistic style are no more.

Supervising Millennials

Campione's (2014) study went beyond the standard business model of job satisfaction that asserts that compensation packages and work environment characteristics as the primary correlations of employee job satisfaction. The author added supervisor demographics of race, gender, age, and cohort to determine if there were any relational differences within the supervisor-subordinate dyad relating to job satisfaction. Her study real that the supervisor's demographics and the relational differences significantly affect the Millennials' job satisfaction (Campione, 2014).

The supervisor's importance is well established in the work environment. Studies have shown that supervisors are vital to retaining Millennials by offering things the generation value such as meaningful work, growth opportunities, flexibility, and personal satisfaction (Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Millennials value jobs that offer personal satisfaction and meaningful work they believe they can make a positive difference in the

world and want to feel as if they are doing so (Smith & Galbraith, 2012). Literature supports that trusting an individual's supervisor positively and significantly relates to satisfaction with the supervisor and innovative behavior (Campione, 2014; Tan & Tan, 2000). Trust is the acceptance of vulnerability related to the actions of someone else with the expectation that their intentions are honorable (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Trust has positive and significant influences on an employee's job satisfaction (Flaherty & Pappas, 2000). The supervisor's support influences job performance, job satisfaction, and job evaluations thus resulting in reduced turnover rates, increased career satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Janssen & Yperen, 2004; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003).

Campione's (2014) research indicated that race, gender, age, and cohort plays a significant role in the workforce. The immediate supervisor demographic characteristics have a significant effect on employees' job satisfaction. The data for this sample of Millennials suggested having an older white supervisor positively affects job satisfaction. Interesting enough the gender was not significant (Campione, 2014). Relationally Millennial workers prefer the same-gender supervisors, but also prefer an older cohort. The assumption is that white supervisors are the norm, more qualified, and position within the organization to satisfy the Millennials' job, career desires, and goals (Campione, 2014).

The study indicated that the Millennials prefer and are more comfortable with the same gender whom they view as less threatening and better suited to be a mentor. Older cohort supervisors were more trustworthy, less competitive with the Millennial workers,

most acceptable and fruitful in the mentor role (Campione, 2014). As expected, the
extrinsic values of pay and sick leave were moderately significant and positively affect
job satisfaction (Campione, 2014). For this study, working greater than 50 hours a week
was highly positively significant to job satisfaction. Working a regular schedule and the
use of flex time positively relates to job satisfaction. Also, highly significant was the
organizational size resulting in Millennials preferring smaller companies instead of larger
organizations, which were negative. Somewhat surprising was the highly negative
significant score for coworkers.

Part of the retention process for an organization is to understand the dynamics
within the supervisor-subordinate dyad relationship and to ensure a satisfying work
environment for employees. The quality of a supervisor-subordinate relationship is
critical to productivity, job satisfaction, and the retention of employees (Campione,
2014). Some would argue that extrinsic factors are all that a Millennial employee needs
to be content with their job. However, a good relationship with their supervisor could
influence the Millennials to stay, especially given their need for guidance and mentoring.
Without understanding the value of a trustful relationship, the Millennials may seek out
another employer.

Millennials Fun Work Environment

Many organizations are implementing fun in the workplace, which has been
advocated in modern and academic literature as a vehicle to facilitate the Millennials
needs. Although not all scholars (Baptiste, 2009; Fleming, 2005) agree with the value of
fun in the workplace thus expressing skepticism. It has been argued that creating a fun

work environment enhances employee motivation, productivity, and reduces stress (Karl, Peluchette, & Harland, 2007).

Fun may be a strategy to enhance embeddedness thus promoting retention, increasing job satisfaction, and organizational commitment while lowering stress and turnover (Tews et al., 2015). Various studies have confirmed that fun relates to employee attitudes and affective states like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, engagement, positive emotions, and moods (Karl & Peluchette, 2006; Karl et al., 2007; Karl, Peluchette, & Hall, 2008; Tews et al., 2015). Data also supports fun as an attraction to an organization in the recruiting context and lower turnover intentions (Karl et al., 2008; Tews et al., 2015).

Tews, Michel, Xu, and Drost, (2015) research examined the influence of fun on job embeddedness. Job embeddedness is the degree to which an individual is enmeshed in the organization. A high level of embeddedness characterizes employees as being immersed, integrated, and tied to their place of employment (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, & Erez, 2001; Tews et al., 2015). Tews et al., (2015) study focused on the fun activities, fun work responsibilities, fun supported by managers, and coworker socializing. The authors tested the importance of fun by examining the central concerns of the Millennials such as recognition and praise, work-life balance, weekend work, praise and rewards, pre-study organizational tenure, and perceived career opportunities.

Tews et al., (2015) study revealed the most dominant predictor of embeddedness was fun job responsibilities. This finding somewhat contradicts Ng's et al., (2010) study that asserted that advancement opportunities for Millennials were the most vital to their

career. Next, perceived career opportunities predictor followed successively by pre-study tenure, praise and rewards, manager support for fun, coworker socializing, and fun activities. The least dominant embeddedness predictors were work-personal life conflict and weekend work (Tews et al., 2015).

Tews' study reveals that not all aspects of fun (fun activities, coworkers socializing and manager support) are equal predictors to embeddedness. Fun job responsibilities fall into the line of interesting and meaningful work (Kuron et al., 2015). If ones' work is exciting and meaningful, then a sense of joy and satisfaction comes from the work. These findings illustrate that Millennials value more informal and less structured types of fun, in line with previous quantitative research.

Millennials and Psychological Contracts

The subject of Millennials and psychological contracts have become an interest for scholars in how organizations will effectively manage and understand the expectations of the Millennials. A psychological contract is an individual's pre-employment beliefs about their future employers that include perceived promises of both the future employee and prospective employer (Hauw & Vos, 2010). The Millennials' base their beliefs on the perception that an employer has promise career-related factors (competitive wages, promotional opportunity, and job training) in exchange for their time and technical skills (Kickul & Lester, 2001; Rousseau, 2011). Modern literature has shown the psychological contract as a significant precursor for employee results like performance, commitment, satisfaction, and intentions to remain with an organization (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Kickul & Lester, 2001; Hauw & Vos, 2010).

This segment encompasses the discussion of the Millennials' expectations and career strategies of the psychological contract. To include honoring and breaching the psychological contract. The Millennials generations require a different psychological contract than the previous generations. Their expectations relating to the employer's incentives are incredibly high (Hauw & Vos, 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002). The Millennials place a significant amount of value on freedom-related work (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008) and have high expectation on work-life balance (Hauw & Vos, 2010; Smola & Sutton, 2002). They are collaborative and motivated highly by social involvement and a cooperative work environment (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Couon, 2008). The Millennials are more ambitious than previous generations and has high expectations in career opportunities regarding training and organizational development (Wong et al., 2008). They value mentoring, training, and continuous growth in new skills thus keeping them marketable (Wong et al., 2008).

Several individual factors can impact the Millennials' psychological contract expectation such as (1) career strategy, (2) individual career management, and (3) work importance (De Vos, De Stobbeleir, & Meganck, 2009). Millennials may differ in their *career strategies*. Some may prefer a *local career strategy* where an individual develops their career with a limited number of organizations. Others may prefer the *cosmopolitan* career strategy, thus changing their employers frequently, also termed *careerism* (De Vos et al., 2009). Employees that lean toward the local career strategy tend to have a stronger organizational commitment and are less likely to job-hop (Sparrow, 1996; De Vos et al., 2009). Millennials that prefer the careerism strategy see the organization as a stepping

stone and are less willing to make promises of loyalty, but still, expect their employer to offer an exciting job and attractive financial compensations (Sparrow, 1996).

Individual career management is the initiative an individual takes to manage their career, which includes career ambitions and self-analysis of skills (De Vos et al., 2009). Employees with a high level of career management tend to show a higher level of organizational commitment as well as expect more from the employer's promises as it relates to job content and career perspectives (De Vos et al., 2009; Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefooghe, 2005).

The *importance of work* is another factor that may impact the Millennials psychological contract expectation (Sturges et al., 2005). Work importance is the overall *importance* an individual attaches to working and career progression. Central work has a positive influence on job satisfaction and commitment. Individuals with a high level of central work attach value to development, advancement, and obtaining power (De Vos et al., 2009).

Breaching the psychological contract has many negative consequences for employees such as disappointment, frustration, and distress (Pate, Martin, & McGoldrick, 2003). The perception of a breach psychological contract whether true or not can increase stress (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), reduce commitment, job satisfaction, and trust (Pate et al., 2003; Robbins et al., 2012) as well as increase their turnover intentions (Kraak et al., 2017).

The psychological contract, designed to create stability within the working environment and improve the relationship between the employee and the organization

(Anggraeni, Dwiatmadja, & Yuniawan, 2017; Low et al., 2016). Corporations and

management can avoid breaching psychological contracts by honoring the psychological

contract through competitive wages, rewards, and opportunity advancement. An honor

psychological contract leads to a deeper organizational commitment by the employee

(Anggraeni et al., 2017). Corporations have the ability to create employees' commitment

by understanding and meeting their needs and expectations through employee self-

development opportunities like various training programs, a pleasant working

environment, and meaningful and challenging work (Anggraeni et al., 2017).

Research on Job-Hopping

This section encompasses three recent studies that extend the literature on job-

hopping, a component of voluntary turnover, which is an under-investigated

phenomenon. All three studies extended previous research knowledge on voluntary

turnover and job mobility while focusing specifically on job-hopping.

Ghiselli (1974) introduced the *hobo syndrome*, the precursor to the term job-

hopping, 44 years ago and defined it as "the periodic itch to move from a job in one place

to some other job in some other place" (p. 81). Ghiselli likened these internal impulses to

those that cause birds to migrate. Dougherty et al. (1993) termed this syndrome as job-

hopping. It is "the behavior of employees frequently changing companies, instead of

changing jobs" (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016, p. 494).

There was a time when job-hopping was distasteful to employers (Jules, Ghazali,

& Othman, 2017), but it has become the trend and the expectation of many employers

(CareerBuilder, 2014). Job-hopping has become a favorite term used to describe

Millennials who make it a frequent habit of voluntarily changing jobs (Lake, Highhouse, & Shrift, 2017). Lake's et al. (2017) study, the first of its kind, combined two fragmented perspectives (*advancement* or *escape*) of job-hopping to create an integrated framework. Lake's et al. (2017) referred to the *causes* of job-hopping behavior as a *motive*, a term adopted from Maertz and Griffeth (2004), who wanted to share a new perspective of viewing turnover through the lens of *causal motives* instead of *significant predictors* (Maertz Jr. & Griffeth, 2004). The first emerging motive perspective of job-hopping is *advancement,* derived from the career perspective, and the second motive term *escape* emerged from an organizational standpoint (Lake et al., 2017). Job-hopping *advancement motives* reflects qualities of personal drive, ambition, and initiative, thus describing job-hoppers' desire for career advancement as the motive to change jobs often (Lake et al., 2017). Conversely, the *escape motive* reflects characteristics of impulsivity, unpredictability, lack of moral force, persistence, and fortitude, thus describing job-hoppers' desire to escape a disliked work environment immediately (Lake et al., 2017).

Lake's et al. (2017) systematically evaluated the underlying motives of job-hopping of university students and Unites States employees from diverse organizations with different work histories, occupations, and socioeconomic backgrounds in their cross-sectional research (Lake et al., 2017). Most of their participants were working adults that fell within the Millennials (18-35) age range or on the cusp. The findings revealed that both motives are distinct yet related to organization withdrawal, such as increased turnover and quick turnover decisions. Job hopping motives can help researchers to

predict historical job change rates in relation to career, demographic, and organizational turnover variables (Lake et al., 2017).

Jules, Ghazali, and Othman (2017) examined the relationship between job-hopping behavior and job satisfaction mediated by affective commitment. Their cross-sectional study centered around 230 local Malaysia employees who work in the casual restaurant industry. All their participants were working adults that fell within the Millennials (18-35) age range except for 3. Jules et al. (2017) research consisted of a questionnaire of 15 demographic questions and 49 questions related to emotional exhaustion, organizational support, job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intention, and job-hopping behavior. However, in this article, the authors only discussed the relationship between job-hopping behavior and job satisfaction mediated by affective commitment (Jules et al., 2017).

Researchers have demonstrated in past studies, as well as, in this study that job satisfaction has a strong relationship with organizational commitment to include an inter-correlated relationship with affective commitment (Jules et al., 2017). Their findings contradict those of Feng and Angeline's (2010) study of teachers by revealing no relationship between job satisfaction and job-hopping behavior, which means that job satisfaction may not be a predictor of an employee's behavior. The results of the study revealed that affective commitment has no mediating effect between the relationship of job satisfaction and job-hopping behavior with employees in the casual dining restaurant (Jules et al., 2017).

Steenackers and Guerry (2016) introduced a new measure, job-hop frequency, and conducted an empirical study in Belgium trying to specify the determinants of job-hopping. They defined job-hopping for their study as frequently making voluntary inter-organizational changes (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). The purpose of their study was to extend previous research on voluntary turnover and job mobility by focusing on job-hopping specifically. Turnover, job mobility, and job-hopping are related constructs but differ in employee behavior (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). Turnover referred to employees involuntarily and voluntarily leaving an organization, job mobility measured the number of job changes over the course of an individual's career, and specifically for this study job-hop frequency measured only voluntary inter-organizational transitions (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016).

The authors investigated the effects of an individual's gender, age, and educational level, to include the organizational size, as well as, the sector to examine if any of these determinants influenced the frequency that an individual changes jobs (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). The results of their study revealed that young women tend to job-hop significantly more than young men, but as they age women are significantly more likely to remain within the same company than men. The data also showed that as employees age, job-hopping frequency declines and employees are more likely to remain within the same company (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). The educational level had no significant influence on employees job-hop behavior. As for the size of the organization, job-hop frequency tended to be lower in large and medium corporations than smaller companies (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). Although, the

difference is insignificant in large organizations, in contrast with medium companies where the job-hop frequency is significantly lower than smaller organizations. When comparing the private and public sectors, there was no significant difference, contrary to research that utilized turnover intention and turnover rate as the construct (Steenackers & Guerry, 2016).

Popular Press Reports on Millennial Job-Hopping

The popular literature tends to mirror the relevant journal articles as practitioners and managers discuss their Millennial job-hopping concerns. O'Shea (2017) asserted that job-hopping could hurt Millennials, and Landrum (2017) said Millennials are not afraid to change jobs. But, does job-hopping hurt or help the Millennials? Most people would agree that changing job for better benefits and more income is not wrong (O'Shea, 2017).

For the Millennial in their 20's, job-hopping is the norm, but according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Baby Boomers did just as much job-hopping as the Millennials (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Millennials are not afraid to change jobs because it is working for them. They no longer want to be stuck in a dead-in job or a job that is the wrong fit. Job-hopping supports the Millennials in improving their skills and developing their careers for the fast track (Landrum, 2017). The negative stigma of job-hopping is gone (Landrum, 2017).

A CareerBuilder (2014) survey revealed that 55% of the employes surveyed had hired a job-hopper and a third of the employers expect workers to job-hop. The study reveals that companies' job-hopping expectations vary based on the candidate's age. For example, 41% of employers surveyed found job-hopping less acceptable when the

workers' age ranges between 30-35 years of age (CareerBuilder, 2014). Moreover, 28 % found it less acceptable after the age of 40. Forty-five percent expected new college graduate, the younger employees to be with the organization for two years or less, while 27% expected new college grads to stay 5 years or longer (CareerBuilder, 2014).

The Information Technology industry, known for its talent shortage and competitive recruitment tactics, has the highest percentage of expected job-hoppers rounding out at 42%. Follow by Leisure and Hospitality at 41%, Transportation placing third with 37%, followed by Retail with 36% and placing fifth place is Manufacturing with 32% (CareerBuilder, 2014).

Most employers assume Millennials are job-hopping to chase of the dollar, instead of waiting their turn and paying their dues (Landrum, 2017) as the Boomers did. Most Millennials are job hopping in search of the right company with a positive work culture, positive work-life balance, to include a company that is social and environmentally conscious (Landrum, 2017). The typical pay increase averages 8-10% per job-hop in a healthy job market and 20% on the higher end. Conversely, employees that stay with the same company for over 2 years will earn 50% less over their lifetime (Keng, 2014).

The essential point is that job-hopping allows the Millennials to become the authors of their career narrative and to determine their career goals thus avoiding any preconceived notion about what their career advancement should or should not look like in the eyes of their colleagues, as well as their employers (Landrum, 2017).

Summary and Conclusions

Despite being a generation stereotyped as narcissistic, demanding, and entitled (Deal et al., 2010; Twenge & Foster, 2010), the Millennials have forced most, if not all, organizations to take notice. The Millennial generation is not willing to sacrifice their families or endure the pain and stress of long work hours. They are rejecting working meaningless jobs in an unpalatable environment that lack supervisor support or guidance.

Is it the historical events or the economic and social shifts that influenced the modification in their values and lifestyles thus requiring new skills and new patterns of social organization (Mannheim, 1927/28/52; Lyons & Kuron, 2013)? Perhaps it was September the 11th, the banking crisis, the recession, or watching organizations downsized their parents or laid them off that cause a new generational consciousness to emerge. Well, maybe they are not the entitled brats as branded. Maybe they are heroes and sheroes that question the organizational practices. With each new generation, change is inevitable.

As of August 2015, the Millennial generation outnumbered both the GenXers and Boomers in the workforce (Fry, 2015). The monthly average of people quitting their jobs in the United States is 3.0 million (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Corporations in all industries, both private and public are finding it challenging to attract and retain talented Millennials (Johnson & Ng, 2016). Prompting the question; what do Millennials want?

Millennials expectation studies revealed that the Millennials want career advancement, work-life balance, competitive pay with fast promotions, and meaningful work all while working in a nurturing work environment for respectable people (Ng et al.,

2010; PWC, 2011; Kuron et al., 2015). Although these studies (Ng et al., 2010; Twenge et al., 2010) were conducted on a large population of students with no full-time employment experience. The findings aligned with PwC's NextGen (2011) study which listed the Millennials' desires as motivating factors that connect their employee's emotions to the firm thus increasing job satisfaction and retention.

Job satisfaction incorporates four components: meaningful work, healthy interpersonal relationships, good working conditions, and economics (Johnson & Ng, 2016; Smith & Galbraith, 2012; Sypniewska, 2014). Employee turnovers (Campione, 2015; Deery, 2008; Kowske et al., 2010) link directly to job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959/1993/2010; Lee et al., 2017; Sypniewska, 2014), which in turn leads to organizational commitment (Park, 2012; Sypniewska, 2014). Job satisfaction increases loyalty, organizational commitment, intention to stay and reduces stress (Sokmen & Biyik, 2016; Sypniewska, 2014). Stress reduction for the Millennials in their work environment leads to work enjoyment, reducing turnover (DeTienne et al., 2012), thus creating economic stability for corporations (Sypniewska, 2014).

Numerous studies on generational differences exist as it relates to work values and twice as many contradictions, partial due to the two distinct theoretical perspectives of generational theory; Mannheim's (1927/28/52) social forces that posit the social-historical location concept and Ryder's (1965) cohort's age-period-cohort concept. Challenges also include comparing various countries and the utilization of different methodologies; time-lag, cross-temporal meta-analysis, retrospective accounts, and cross-sectional studies.

Work values implicated the kind of career an individual chooses, the environment an individual prefers, and the types of decisions an individual makes (Dose, 1997, p. 236). The empirical results from multiple studies suggest that generational work values do differ thus, creating data that is contradictory (Coates, 2017) making it challenging to draw a conclusion (Lyons & Kuron, 2013). To a lesser degree, the results suggest that work values change as workers grow older (Kuron et al., 2015).

Finally, the work value results indicated an increasing desire among American workers to stabilize their work-life-balance and personal goals. This change in attitude reflected the same in all generational cohort groups (Smola & Sutton, 2002). The utilization of different measurements, comparing different generational ranges, and the fact that the majority of the studies were administered more than a decade ago leaves a gap in the literature relating to generational work value differences. There are high hopes that as time passes and theorist continue to use time-lag designs, well-constructed cross-sectional studies, and validated measurements that the data will reveal more convincing evidence of work value differences across generations (Lyons & Kuron, 2013).

There is ample data on recruiting and retaining Millennials (Deery, 2008; Johnson & Ng, 2016), as well as popular literature containing suggestions for retaining Millennials (Joyce & Barry, 2016; Putre, 2016). Many popular articles theorize on why the Millennials migrate (Vanderkam, 2014; Zimmerman, 2016), and a few phenomenological studies on the Millennials turnover (Bateman, 2015; Kiah, 2015). Yet, no comprehensive theory explains the Millennials' decision-making process to job-hop or stay with an organization from their perspective.

Understanding the Millennials' perspective and decision-making process to job-hop may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, interesting training programs, flexible working practices, and compensation and benefits packages, thus increasing the Millennials' job satisfaction. To develop an understanding of why Millennials, job-hop, conducting a grounded theory study will help establish a substantive theory that goes beyond the motivational factors and themes by facilitating a deeper probing to construct a theory of the process of Millennial job-hopping in hopes of extending the knowledge base on Millennial retention.

Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the research method, a qualitative research approach using grounded theory, and the rationale for choosing this approach. Also discusses in detail the role of the researcher, the methodology, and issues of trustworthiness.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory that explains the Millennials' process for deciding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization. This chapter includes the research design and rationale, the role of the researcher, the methodology, and issues of trustworthiness.

Research Design and Rationale

The central phenomenon addressed in this study is the frequent job-hopping of the Millennial generation, who are individuals born within the yearly range of 1982-2003 (Clark, 2017; Schullery, 2013; Strauss & Howe, 1991). Millennials' frequent movement from job to job defines job-hopping.

Using grounded theory as the research method is critical to developing an understanding of why Millennials migrate and establishing a substantive theory that goes beyond a list of reasons and themes thus allowing deeper probing to construct an argument in hopes of making the ultimate theory more insightful and incisive (Charmaz, 2014). Possibly a more in-depth examination will uncover the "*why"* that may help organizations learn how to retain their Millennial employees. Understanding the "why" may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, including compensation and benefits packages.

The central research question is: What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an organization? The following research questions provide a beginning framework to examine the Millennials' decision-making process to migrate or remain with an organization.

RQ1: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to job-hop?

RQ2: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to stay with an organization?

Other research methods considered were phenomenology and narrative inquiry. Phenomenology is about the *lived experience* of the participants regarding a phenomenon and focuses on exploring how humans comprehend and transform their experiences into consciousness (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015). Narrative inquiry begins with an individual telling a story about personal experiences, be it in the form of literary nonfiction, family stories, or graffiti (Patton, 2015). Its purpose is to give meaning to the participants' experiences by retelling the story in chronological order (Creswell, 2013).

Even though the phenomenological approach captures how individuals experience the phenomenon (Patton, 2015) and narrative inquiry captures the meaning of those experiences, neither results in the development of a substantive theory about the phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The flexibility of grounded theory methods allows the theorist to see the data in new ways with the ability to explore those new ideas (Charmaz, 2014). It allows the researcher to study the processes by means of the constant comparative methods which shapes and reshapes the data collection (Charmaz, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). With grounded theory methods, an individual can manage, direct, and streamline data collection, thus constructing innovative analysis (Charmaz, 2014).

Grounded theory is a set of systematic, yet flexible guidelines for conducting inductive and qualitative inquiry aimed at theory construction (Charmaz, 2014). Grounded theory is analytical (comparative and interactive), with both the analysis and data collection continuously shaping and informing each other in tandem, thus guiding the researcher to make logical comparisons (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Grounded theory enables the generation of an explanation, an understanding of the actions, processes, and interaction that create the phenomenon based on the perspective of the participants (Creswell, 2013).

Role of the Researcher

As the researcher, I have multiple roles and responsibilities that include being the designer of the grounded theory study, and the primary data collection and analysis instrument (Brodsky, 2008), the protector of the rights of the participants, the creator of the semi-structured interview guide, and the individual who must obtain permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct the study. My goal was to conduct semi-structured interviews that are honest and ethical with the hope of enabling truthful findings. I have no personal or professional relationships with the participates, thus alleviating the issue of relationships involving formal or informal power as well as minimizing conflicts of issues. As the study progressed, I was sure that a clearer understanding of my perspective and potential biases would unfold and I would document those perceptions and biases, if any, at the time they arose.

My primary concern was theoretical sensitivity; that is, my ability to recognize and express phenomena in abstract terms and to "demonstrate abstract relationships

between the studied phenomena" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 161). Charmaz (2014) asserted that theoretical sensitivity amplifies the analytic power of an individual's coding as the practices of coding stimulates the development of theoretical sensitivity. My specific concern was after having read so much information on why the Millennials migrate that I would be sensitive to the data, rather than filtering it through pre-existing theories and biases (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006). As an alternative, I hope the information read stimulates my thinking as I build my semistructured interview guide and it reminds me to validate the questions by framing all questions naturally to include aligning them with the problem and purpose statements; as well as to ensure that I manage my values and assumptions to mitigate bias as it relates to the Millennial migration.

In social science, ethical considerations can be subjective (Berg, 2001); therefore, my goal was to avoid unethical issues by being mindful of protecting the participants by establishing a rapport and developing trust. The plan promotes the integrity of the research, and thus guard against misconduct, impropriety, and all deception practices. Moreover, it helps avoid identity misrepresentation by self-identifying my role and objectives. Also, I worked to minimize the ethical issues of deception related to the purpose and questions by conveying the purpose of the study to the participants. Deception occurs when the participants comprehend one purpose and the researcher analyzes another (Creswell, 2009).

A research plan approved by the Walden's University Institutional Review Board (IRB) will help minimize most ethical data collection issues. I respected and heeded the rules of confidentiality to mitigate each participant's concerns by replacing their names

with a pseudonym thus conducting interviews away from their respective work sites. To

minimize bias, I ensured no participants were aware of any projected outcomes or efforts

to confirm or refute any previous study. The goal was to discover and explain the

Millennials' decision-making process to migrate or stay with an organization from their

perspective.

Prior to the research, the participants received, reviewed, signed, and returned the

informed consent form and cover letter (Appendix A). Participation in the study is

voluntary and non-incentive. There was no exposure to any unreasonable discomforts,

risks, or violations of human rights, nor will participants have to endure any bodily,

emotional, or psychological harm. Also, individuals had the option to withdraw from

participation or decline to answer specific questions without prejudice. There was no

need for intellectual property or data from the participant's organization, and there was

no utilization of biased words when writing and disseminating the final research.

Methodology

The grounded theory method is a distinct qualitative research methodology that

focuses on substantive theory building that has practical uses. Grounded theory is also

instrumental in addressing questions relating to processes (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016),

such as explaining the Millennials' decision-making process to job-hop or stay with an

organization from their perspective. I centered the interview questions around the

Millennial generation migration/job hopping rate and the conceptual framework that

aligns with the research problem and purpose statements (Charmaz, 2014). Intensive and

in-depth interviews with semi-structured open-ended questions enabled the generation of

the data for the study (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2014; Creswell, 2009). The grounded theory methodological procedures established a balance between the participants' answers and the researcher's interpretations by utilizing the appropriate data collection methods (Jensen, 2008).

Participant Selection Logic

The purposive sampling strategy is synonymous with qualitative research (Palys, 2008). In grounded theory, purposive sampling is an initial sampling (Charmaz, 2014) that allows the researcher to select the appropriate participants that meet the predetermined criteria that are relevant to the research questions (Saumure & Given, 2008) thus enabling the collection of data that is richer and more reflective of the participants' experiences. Therefore, the purposive sampling strategy involved targeting specific members of the Millennial generation between ages 18-36 who have changed their job within the last 6 months and worked at least 90 days with their new employer. Excluded from this project will be anyone younger than 18 or older than 36.

Theoretical sampling is another sampling strategy that occurred throughout the research as a guide in obtaining data to help expand and clarify the categories. Theoretical sampling occurs almost simultaneously as the researcher collects, codes, and analyzes the data thus supporting the analyst in deciding what data to collect next (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Theoretical sampling is not about representing the population or generalizing the results; it is about concepts and the theoretical development of the analysis (Charmaz, 2014). The plan incorporated three recruiting methods to support this sampling strategy such as LinkedIn, Facebook, and Walden's Student Pool.

To facilitate the data collection process and to ensure that participants meet all criteria, I screened all potential participants verbally, first by phone, in person, or by email regarding their demographic information. Once approved, all participants received, reviewed, signed, and returned the informed consent form. Theoretical saturation, which is the aim and difficult to predict, occurs when gathering new data reveals no new insights, new categories, or themes about the emerging grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014). It is vital to remember that grounded theory sampling strategy is not about generalization or representation. Some theorists' (Glaser, 1992,1998,2001; Stern, 2007) argued that logic supersedes the sampling size, suggesting sampling until saturation occurs. Others contended that the sample size and saturation need to consider the research objectives (such as a modest claim vs. broad claim), the quality of the data, as well as, the credibility of study (Charmaz, 2014). For example, a skillful analyst may only conduct 12 interviews thus producing a more significant analysis than a novice researcher who conducts 30 interviews.

Whereas quantitative sample size is a preselected number of data sources used to determine the accuracy of the results based on the theory that the larger the sample generated, the more precise the estimates (Morgan & Guevara, 2008). The projected ideal sample size for this qualitative study is 20 participants, as supported by articles referencing the number of participants to be involved in a study that requires the sample size up front, prior to proposals and protocols (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2016; Mason, 2010). The final sample size was 13 participants, although saturation occurred at five participants.

Instrumentation

For this study, interviews, memos, and audio recordings were the three types of instruments used as data collection sources. The primary source of gathering data is the projected 20 interviews collected through either face-to-face, phone, or Skype interviews. I used Walden's Interview Guide Worksheet, *Constructing Grounded Theory* (Charmaz, 2014), and literature referencing the Millennials job-hopping (Adkins, 2016) to develop the initial questions for the interview guide and ensure the questions align with the problems.

Interviews in grounded theory studies can be unstructured (no predetermine questions) or semi-structured (pre-determine open-ended questions) (Foley & Timonen, 2015). Semi-structured qualitative research interviews begin with open-ended questions, followed by probing questions. The goal was to let the participants (the subject matter experts) explain the phenomenon from their perspective, not to guide them by asking leading questions based on prior theory (Charmaz, 2014). For this study, I used a semi-structured, intensive interviewing technique that gently guides a one-sided conversation that explores the participates' perspective and personal experience on job-hopping, although the interviewing approach may change as the study develops (Charmaz, 2014).

The interview protocol (Appendix B) is a systematic framework that provided the initial interview schedule for my participants - the first of three interview cycles as recommended by grounded theory methodologists (Hunter, Murphy, GreaUsh, Casey, & Keady, 2011; Williams, King, & Fox, 2016). After the initial interview began, probing questions were added as needed to the initial interview protocol. The interview protocol,

in concert with the constant comparative method, facilitates the construction of the theory from the emerging information and ideas.

I selected Millennials that were knowledgeable about the topic and could speak on their personal experience in rich detail, thus increasing transferability (Given & Saumure, 2008; Jensen, 2008; Shenton, 2004). Follow-up probing questions occurred when appropriate, which allowed for and supported theoretical sampling, thus increasing credibility. I digitally recorded all interviews for accuracy, transcribed, analyzed the transcript, and verified all transcripts and my interpretation with the specific participants through *member checking*. Other methods of ensuring rigor and increasing credibility are time, angles, colleagues, and triangulation (Given & Saumure, 2008; Jensen, 2008; Shenton, 2004). Memoing, audio recording, member checks, and journaling are data collection methods that support accuracy, rigor, and credibility (Brodsky, 2008; Groenewald, 2008).

Memos, journaling, and audio-recording supported the analyzation of data and the development of code into categories (Charmaz, 2014). Memoing is a reflective process that adds credibility and trustworthiness to qualitative research. It is also an instrument to capture the outflow of ideas, intuitions, and potential codes or themes to analyze later (Groenewald, 2008). Journaling helped formulated and collected my thought process, refined my ideas, beliefs, and responses to the research progress (Janesick, 2016). The audio recording captured an accurate summary of the interviews actual conversations and interactions such as emphasis and the tone of the dialogs. (Morgan & Guevara, 2008).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participant recruitment will occur in either one or three ways, through LinkedIn, Facebook, and Walden's Student Pool. After acknowledging the potential participants' interest, I conducted a quick verbal check of their background and demographics to prevent spending time and efforts on nonqualified participants. Thus concluding with a short questionnaire (Appendix C) via email to document their contact information, background, and demographic information, therefore ensuring the participants are a part of the target population.

Individual intensive interviews are likely to take place in various locations that are convenient for the participants in a conducive environment that is suitable for an in-depth interview without distractions. Intensive interviews create an open interactional space in which the participants can relate their experiences (Charmaz, 2014). An intensive interview is a gently guided, one-sided conversation where the participant gets the opportunity to express his or experiences in his or her own words. As the interviewer, I listened intently, observe the non-verbal behavior, and encourage the member to talk with kind gestures and head nods.

The planned frequency of these intensive interviews were approximately three or four interviews a week, which will allow time and opportunity to sort, reflect, analyze, write memos, transcribe, and code the interviews thus allowing alteration of the interview approach, if necessary, as the study develops. I recorded the duration of all interviews with a digital audio recorder for approximately 60 minutes and jotted down all relevant notes quickly to minimize distraction during the interviewing process. All participants

were aware when the recording process began and ended. The objective was to conduct interviews until saturation or 20 interviews occur, whichever comes first. Therefore, the follow-up plan was to revisit the projected three recruiting methods if prior recruitment produces too few participants.

Debriefing the participants at the close of the interview will include thanking them for their time, answering any questions that they may have regarding the study, and informing them of possible future contact for follow-up information. Exiting the interview will also include the reassurance of maintaining their confidentiality, re-explaining the purpose, and the outcome of the study along with providing the results of the study if they desire the results.

Data Analysis Plan

The data analysis plan is the heart of qualitative research and is the method utilized to answer research questions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) it establishes a vital step toward data collection thus connecting the finding with higher concepts (van den Hoonaard & van den Hoonaard, 2008). The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory that explains the Millennials' process for deciding whether to migrate or stay with an organization. The *central research question* is: *What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an organization?*

In grounded theory, unlike other qualitative approaches, the emphasis is on the analytic components of research, such as collecting data (in-depth interviews) and analyzing in tandem (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Grounded theory analytic strategies are

fundamentally inductive and follow the constant comparative method. Grounded theory research consists of an iterative process that guides the researcher throughout the research process to make systematic comparisons, to engage the data and emerging theories actively (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). As I conducted the interviews, I went back and forth between data collection and analysis, thus allowing the emergence of ideas to construct meaning to the participant's experiences. It is vital to point out that coding in grounded theory is not linear and that there are no sharp boundaries in the actual practice of coding (Charmaz, 2014).

A crucial element in grounded theory research is the systematic coding process that involves generating categories of information first through open coding. Open coding, also called initial coding, can occur in several ways, like word by word, line by line, or incident with incident (Charmaz, 2014; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). I begin the initial (open) coding by conducting word by word coding, looking for repeating words, statements, or events. Then I would follow-up by asking myself a few questions, such as (a) what is happening in the data? (b) What is the data telling me? I kept my mind open so I could visualize the codes (Charmaz & Belgrave, 2014). Keeping an open mind positioned me to discover subtle meaning and new insights that assist in making discoveries and gaining a deeper understanding of the phenomenon (Charmaz, 2014).

Next, I performed line by line coding that allows the analyst to discover gaps in the data. According to Charmaz (2014), one of the advantages of the grounded theory method is that it allows the analyst to become aware of holes in the data early in the research process. Initial coding, such as word by word, line by line, or code the codes,

aids the researcher in gaining insights about the subsequent data collection. This insight may introduce new directions to explore that suggest emerging connections to investigate between the processes in the data (Charmaz, 2014).   For example, line by line coding with gerunds enables the analyst to detect processes and connect to the data. Noun forms like stating, describing, and leading versus statement, description, and leader, enables the researcher to gain a sense of the actions, the sequence of events/processes, as well as aids in defining implicit meanings (Charmaz, 2014). This method encourages the analyst to analyze from the perspective of the participants (Charmaz, 2014).

The second stage is focused/axial coding (Charmaz, 2014). At this stage, the analyst systematically develops and links the subcategories to the categories (Charmaz, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). As critical groupings emerge, they may represent incidents, actions, events, or objects (Benaquisto, 2008; Charmaz, 2014).   Focused coding is where the analyst sifts, sorts, and synthesizes the initial coding. It enables the analyst to condense, sharpen, and expedite the analytical work, thus helping to clarify emerging theoretical ideas (Charmaz, 2014).

Axial coding offers a framework that links categories, answering such questions as *who, when, where, why, how, and with what consequences*. Therefore, when I implement the axial coding process, I tried to link the categories to *conditions*– the circumstances or situations that create the structure of the phenomenon; and the action/interactions – the participants' routine or strategic responses to issues, events, or problems; and consequences – *the outcomes of actions* (Charmaz, 2014, p. 148)

The third stage of coding is *selective/theoretical coding*. At this point, the focus is on the processes of integrating and refining categories (Benaquisto, 2008; Charmaz, 2014; Yin, 2011). Selective coding is where the analyst explains or writes the narrative (the storyline) of the interconnection of the categories (Creswell, 2013). Theoretical coding results in new modes of thinking or fresh ways of integrating codes or categories (Charmaz, 2014, p. 150). It is integrative and supports the formation of the analyst's focused coding that helps express the rationality of the analytic story. Theoretical coding shows merely the possible relationships developed between focused coding and categories (Charmaz, 2014).

Theoretical sampling is the act of seeking and gathering relevant data to elaborate, refine, and develop the properties of categories until no new properties emerge (Roulston & Martinez, 2016). It is an emergent process (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) that I implemented as needed throughout the coding process. Theoretical sampling is a valuable tool that guides the development of the analysis and enables the analyst to follow up on analytic leads, such as constructing distinctive categories and delineating links between views and actions (Charmaz, 2014). Theoretical sampling aids in checking and qualifying the boundaries of the categories. It helps the analyst to stipulate the relationship between the categories and helps narrows the analyst focus on emerging categories (Charmaz, 2014). It also helps to provide depth and precision to the study that can lead to samples across substantive areas, as well as raise the theory to a formal level of abstraction (Charmaz, 2014).

Theoretical saturation, a key criterion for validity in grounded theory research (Sandelowski, 2008), which is the aim, is difficult to predict (Charmaz, 2014). As the researcher, I achieved theoretical saturation by implementing the constant comparative method with theoretical sampling. Saturation emerges when the collection of new data reveals no new insights, new categories, or themes about the emerging grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014).

Theoretical saturation signals in grounded theory a comprehensive end to the investigation. It is the endpoint of theoretical sampling, accomplished through the constant comparison analysis, purposeful sampling, and strategic analysis in grounded theory inquiry (Sandelowski, 2008). Similar to data saturation, which is also called information redundancy, yet different because theoretical saturation refers to the interpretation of the data versus the researcher's sense of having seen or heard the information repeatedly (Sandelowski, 2008). Theoretical saturation occurs when the researcher has satisfied the theoretical rendering of the phenomenon. It depends on the researcher's experience, the sample variation, and the field study length of time (Sandelowski, 2008).

The goal of this grounded theory study was to construct a substantive theory about the Millennials job-hopping. Substantive theory is the process of identifying differences, similarities, and patterns of contextualized instances across and within the study that focuses on a similar theme (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The construction of substantive theory occurs through the constant comparative method and analysis conducted throughout the study (Puolakka, Haapasalo-Pesu, Kiikkala, Astedt-Kurki, &

Paavilainen, 2013). Therefore, as the researcher, I continuously reviewed the data, refined my questions, and re-evaluated the changes to construct the substantive theory.

The plan was to employ NVivo software to organize, store, and strengthen the data analysis by revealing connections, highlighting insights, and creating reports. Use of the NVivo data management software will increase the integrity, trustworthiness, and robustness of the research. First, create the research file; then import the interview transcripts, memos, and journals. The NVivo software can import any converted digital information, such as PDFs, audios, videos, pictures, and datasets (QSR International Pty Ltd, 2017).

Discrepant cases or negative cases are irregular and tend to refute the emerging data (Roulston & Martinez, 2016). Collecting and analyzing data may reveal discrepant cases or variations in understanding the phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). To combat the natural tendency to seek similar emerging findings, I sought disconfirming evidence and discrepant data (Morrow, 2005), which is an evaluation of all the data that supports alternative explanations. Searching all data for cases that do not fit the emergent finding and using those discrepant cases to modify the emergent theory and explanations will support and increase validity and reliability in the research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Issues of Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness, a powerful concept that frees qualitative researchers from the shadows of the quantitative approach (Given & Saumure, 2008). Trustworthiness defines the characteristics of qualitative research, such as credibility, transferability,

dependability, and confirmability (Given & Saumure, 2008). Those terms allow

qualitative researchers to describe their studies in a manner that illuminates the rigor of

their qualitative research (Given & Saumure, 2008). As the investigator, the aim was to

satisfy all four criteria by implementing trustworthiness strategies. Patton (2015) asserted

that the intellectual rigor or rigorous thinking of the researcher determines the credibility

of qualitative research.

Credibility

Credibility is an essential criterion for establishing trustworthiness (Shenton,

2004). Internal validity and credibility reflect how research finding reflect reality

(Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). To increase reliability in the study, I implemented

triangulation (Bowen, 2009) by *cross-checking* the data collected from people with

different perspectives or follow-up interviews (*member check*s) with the same participant

(Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Cooney, 2011). *Cross-checking* also includes verifying the

verbatim transcripts, the emerging concepts, and the substantive theory (Brown, Stevens,

Troiano, & Schneider, 2002; Cooney, 2011). *Participant guidance of the inquiry* through

interview questions updates based on the initial findings or emerging concepts is a third

credibility strategy (Cooney, 2011). The *use of participants words* in the emerging

theory; *negative analysis*, the examination of emerging data that contradict the main

findings (Cooney, 2011; Sikolia, Biros, Mason, & Weiser, 2013); and researcher's

reflexivity are all strategies the will increase the study's credibility (Morrow, 2005).

Transferability

Transferability is the need to describe in detail (audit trail) the scope of the study so it can be applicable in different contexts (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The goal was to implement strategies that encourage *thick descriptions* of the phenomena from the participants perspective, to provide a full detail description of the methodology, and to ground the interpretation of the results in research, as well as, the emerging theory (Bowen, 2009; Cooney, 2011; Morrow, 2005). Purposive sampling is another strategy that increases transferability by ensuring the participants' selection are appropriate and relevant to the study as well as consistent with the research design (Jensen, 2008; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Dependability

Dependability addresses the reliability of the study and ensures that the researcher provides enough details (audit trail) to enable other researchers to replicate the research and its findings (Shenton, 2004). To ensure dependability, I documented in detail the research design plan, its execution to enable future researchers to replicate the study. Also, I ensured the participants' data consistently and accurately reflects their intended meanings, thus increasing the dependability of the study (Jensen, 2008; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) with an examination of the detail audit trail by an observer (Brown et al., 2002; Morrow, 2005).

Confirmability

Confirmability is ensuring that the findings are the results of the participants' experiences and ideas, versus the researcher's characteristics and preferences (Shenton, 2004). In qualitative research, confirmability typically equates with reliability and

objectivity (Given & Saumure, 2008) I implemented confirmability strategically by reducing the investigator's bias through the data collection by interviews, continually writing memos, and maintaining a detail audit trail throughout the study (Shenton, 2004) for examination by an observer (Brown et al., 2002; Morrow, 2005). I also increased confirmability by documenting my predispositions and biases relating to the Millennials' retention suggestions (Shenton, 2004; Jensen, 2008).

Ethical Procedures

The purpose of ethical procedures was to protect the rights and welfare of the participants, and to ensure the accuracy of data and to protect the intellectual property rights (Israel & Hay, 2008). The first ethical procedure was to gain approval from Walden's University Institutional Review Board (IRB) (IRB approval number 03-14-18-0326465) before addressing the participates. The implementation of ethical processes was to protect the participants which include being respectful of the informant rights, privacy, needs, and, desires (Creswell, 2009).

Ethical procedures also include honoring the interviewees' time and letting them know what to expect in addition to ensuring that the information collected does not cause any harm or embarrassment (Creswell, 2009; Israel & Hay, 2008). It also includes seeking cooperation, abiding by and guaranteeing all terms of the agreement, and ensuring the truthful reporting of findings (Israel & Hay, 2008). I reiterated that all participation is voluntary and that all participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time for any reason. Implementing these procedures would assist in

minimizing and avoiding issues like deception, disempowering, or marginalizing the participants (Creswell, 2009).

As of now, there are no ethical concerns regarding recruitment materials for the study. Data collection included concealing all participants' identities with fictitious names, thus maximizing their confidentiality, which allows the participants to be frank and forthcoming in their responses. The risk of privacy breaches is small as (a) no prospective organization received any of the participant's information, and (b) sanitization of all identifiable data occurred before coding and the dissemination of the findings.

Recorded interviews are on a surface computer with an additional backup on an external hard-drive to prevent data loss. I used MAXQDA instead of NVivo to organize, code, import all transcribed interviews, and secure it with a password for protection. No one other than me will have access to the data. I will also retain all data for a minimum of 5 years after publication (Publication manual of the American psychological association, 2009, p. 12), at which time I will destroy it. There were no ethical concerns related to conducting the studies in the participants' work environments because interviews will take place at various locations that are convenient for each participant and conducive for an in-depth interview without distractions. Participation in this study is voluntary; there was a $10.00 incentive for participating, and there were no power or influence disparities because there is no existing or expected relationship between the researcher and the participants.

Summary

This chapter encompasses the discussion of the projected qualitative research method that would explain the Millennials' decision-making process to job-hop or stay with an organization. Selecting grounded theory methodology as the appropriate research design enables a researcher to build a theory supported by the method's flexible guidelines, and its emergent and iterative nature, which shapes and reshapes data collection, thus allowing the researcher to probe deeper to construct a substantive theory (Charmaz, 2014).

Chapter 3 also incorporates the discussion of the role of the researcher's responsibilities that include obtaining approval from the IRB, designing the study, protecting the rights of the participants, and conducting an ethical and honest investigation that presents truthful findings. This section also includes the methodology discussion that covers purposive sampling as the participant selection logic. It consists of the instrumentation used to collect data such as interviews, memos, and digital audio recordings. Also included is the discussion was LinkedIn, Facebook and Walden's Student Pool, as three methods for recruiting participants, which will provide participants with multiple professions, economic backgrounds and races thus providing various perspectives from the Millennial generation, as well as, the data analysis plan. Covered last are (a) the issues of trustworthiness, which include the virtues of qualitative research, such as credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and (b) ethical procedures.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory of Millennials job-hopping. The central research question was: What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an organization?

RQ1: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to job-hop?

RQ2: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to stay with an organization?

This chapter consists of a description of the research setting, a brief discussion on challenges I had with individual participants and changes I made to the study as a result of these challenges, followed by the participants' demographics. The subsequent section deals with data collection, which includes information on the number of participants, the data collection instrument, and the locations, frequency and duration of the interviews. The rest of the chapter consists of a description of the data analysis, evidence of trustworthiness, study results, and a summary.

Research Setting

The first stage of research involved posting invitations on Facebook and LinkedIn social media sites, followed by posting an invitation to the Walden Participant Pool, none of which yielded any responses. After making multiple posts on Facebook and LinkedIn in the hope of sparking interest in other states, two women from the state of Louisiana expressed an interest in participating in the study. Unfortunately, one changed her mind for medical reasons. After a week passed, I submitted an IRB change to add a $10

incentive in hopes of increasing the participant's interest in completing the interview. In the beginning, the incentive seems to have had little or no effect on the commitment level of the Millennials, but all were happy to receive the $10.00 after the verification phase of the interview.

Part of the process of choosing the participants was ensuring that they met the primary selection criteria, that they were Millennials, born between the years of 1982 – 2000, and had changed employers within the past 6 months. Initial contact and communication used to identify and interact with the purposively selected pool of participants in the second stage took place either by means of email, telephone or in person, with the majority of participants coming from referrals by other participants (i.e., via snowball sampling). I found it challenging to get Millennials to follow up on their commitment to complete the interview. Twenty-four people initially agreed to participate in the study, but 11 backed out, forcing me to change my approach. Instead of just leaving my contact information with the potential participants, I started collecting their contact information and trying to establish a date, time, and place to conduct the interview.

I called each participant who agreed to a phone interview from my home office. Before calling the participant, I would prepare for the digital recording. Once the participant and I had chatted briefly to answer any additional questions he/she had, I performed a volume and clarity check to ensure the digital recorder would pick up the participant's voice from the phone. I followed the same procedure for the face-to-face interviews.

The research setting for each face-to-face interview depended upon the participant's location and schedule. For example, the first participant interview took place in a local bookstore, while the second interview took place in the next town over in the city library, and the third interview took place at another city library which was close to the participant's workplace. I completed three phone interviews and 10 face-to-face interviews. These 13 interviews were sufficient to achieve data saturation.

Demographics

Table 1 contains the demographics of the 13 interview participants, who ranged in age from 21 to 36. All had 3 or more years of college. The participants worked in several different industries and were from multiple cities.

Table 1

Characteristics of Millennial Research Participants

Characteristic	Number of Participants
Gender	
• Male	5
• Female	8
Ages	21 - 36
Education Level	
• Some College	1
• 4 yr. Degree	9
• Masters	3
Marital Status	
• Single	11
• Married	2
Years with Previous Employer	
• Less than 1 yr.	8
• 1 - 3 yrs.	2
• 4 - 5 yrs.	2
• 6 – 10 yrs.	1

Characteristic	*Number of Participants*
Race/Ethnic Identity	
• Black/African American	8
• Latino/Hispanic	1
• White/Caucasian	3
• Mix	1
Types of Industry	
• Banking	1
• Higher Education	5
• Retail	2
• Local Government	2
• Non-Profit Public Health	1
• Utilities, Energy, & Extraction	1
• Health Care Manufacturing	1
Participant Locations	
• New Orleans, LA.	1
• Daytona Beach, FL.	7
• Ormond Beach, FL.	1
• Lady Lake, FL.	1
• Orlando, FL	1
• Port Orange, FL.	1
• Jacksonville, FL.	1

Source: This table contains data collected for this study.

Data Collection

The data collection was by means of a purposive sampling strategy implemented through the semistructured interviews of 13 participants. The initiation of eight interviews occurred through snowballing, one through Facebook, one through LinkedIn, one by flyer, and three by me. All participants received a follow-up email invitation, consent form, and demographic sheet. Although all participants had the option of interviewing via face-to-face, phone, or Skype, 10 of the interviews occurred via face-to-face, and three interviews occurred by telephone.

The first phone interview was with a participant from New Orleans, Louisiana and the phone connection and recording were great. There was no problem with the transcription, thus increasing my confidence in the phone interview process. After reflecting on the process, the first interview was a little shorter than the other interviews. I felt that it was a combination of it being the first phone interview, the inability to see participant's body language, and the participant being in the process of preparing a room for an evening event. After transcribing the interview, I had the most follow up questions of the third participant regarding the initial interview and the member checking summary, which led to her answering specific questions related to gaps in her initial interview. With the other two phone interviews, connection quality was not as good, necessitating a lot more time when transcribing.

The site for the face-to-face interviews varied depending upon the location chosen for the convenience of the participants, but all locations were conducive for an interview. Two participants face-to-face interviews occurred in their specific offices during their lunchtime. Three face-to-face interviews occurred in various libraries and five occurred in a local bookstore.

The planned frequency of interviews was aggressive with the hope of accomplishing three or four interviews a week. The actual frequency of interviews was random at best ranging from one to two a day with a gap as wide as 18 days between interviews. The first interview commenced on April the 15th, and the last interview occurred on July 8th, a span of 4 months.

While the planned duration for each interview was an hour, the actual interviews varied from 18 minutes to 57 minutes. The shortest interview was the third interview, the first phone interview. The Surface notebook digital recorder recorded all interviews, with extra battery chargers present for additional notebook power.

I transcribed all interviews verbatim, de-identified them, and entered them into MAXQDA software for analysis utilizing the initial/open, focused, and theoretical coding, memoing, and constant comparative methods. I utilized a transcript software to accelerate the transcribing process with the transcribed interviews ranging from 6 to 18 pages. I wrote a summary of each interview that highlighted the data that was relevant to the study and submitted it to each participant for review to ensure the summary was correct as well as captured the essence of their remarks along with the option of adding, deleting, and correcting anything that I might have misinterpreted.

Debriefing the participants at the close of the interview included thanking them for their time, answering any questions that they had regarding the study, and informing them of possible future contact for follow-up information, and that they would receive the $10.00 incentive after completion of the verification process. The last stage of the interview also included reassuring them of the confidentiality of the information they provided, re-explaining the purpose of the study, and offering them a summary of the study results if they wanted them.

The planned computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) changed from NVivo to MAXQDA. This software aids in organizing qualitative data for a more in-depth coding process. NVivo 12, the latest version was not as user-friendly as

the previous versions with which I was more familiar; therefore I decided to use

MAXQDA instead of NVivo. MAXQDA is more user-friendly than NVivo, and I liked

the user interface and the easy access to support video tutorials and manuals on their

website.

Data Analysis

The data analysis for this grounded theory study included initial, focused, and

theoretical coding. The grounded theory data analysis process is an iterative inductive

process, which means going back and forth between the coding phases almost

simultaneously. Inductive reasoning is a generalization used to develop the explanation

from the data explored from a selected set of data, such as from interviews, to identify

patterns that link to a theory (Olson, McAllister, Grinnell, Walters, & Appunn, 2016).

The coding process in grounded theory is far from linear with no sharp boundaries in the

actual practice of coding (Charmaz, 2014). According to Charmaz, grounded theory

coding is a combination of work and play, which allows the coder to sift, sort, and

synthesize data while making leaps from concrete events and descriptions to theoretical

possibilities. Grounded theory coding unifies analytical ideas (Charmaz, 2014).

Initial/Open Coding

The initial coding process fits closely to the data and is temporary, comparative,

and grounded in the data, thus allowing the for other analytic possibilities (Charmaz,

2014). Initial coding helped to identify, label, and categorize the participants' response.

As I verified the transcript, I was able to implement the initial coding process with a

combination of line by line, in vivo, and incident coding of my first interview, ending

with 49 segments of data and 11 categories. This process was easy to implement due to the flexibility of the MAXQDA software in manipulating and re-naming codes, concepts, and writing memos as part of the data analysis process. I coded the second interview ending with 32 segments of data and 10 categories and compared it to the first interview. The constant comparative method helped me to highlight the similarities and differences. For example, money, flextime, and enjoying work were some of the coded similarities; while some coded differences were related to relocating, helping people, difficult coworkers, and benefits. After completing the initial coding my third interview and conducting comparative analysis against interviews one and two, I discovered five concepts that were consistent throughout the data collection process.

Focused/Axial Coding

Focused coding, the second phase, is a modernized adaptative version of grounded theory's classic axial coding (Saldana, 2009). The approach differs in that the analytic strategies are emergent rather than procedural (Charmaz, 2014). The guidelines for focused coding are simpler and more flexible than that of Strauss and Corbin's formal use of axial coding. Focused coding helps in the early stages of data analysis, allowing the analyst to determine the relevance and theoretical strength of the initial codes. Use of focused coding accelerates the analyst's work without forfeiting the details within the data. Although Charmaz labeled this the second phase of coding, I intertwined this process with the initial coding process with each interview cycle of coding. Progressing from the initial coding process to focused coding can be seamless because "focused coding is not entirely a linear process" (Charmaz, 2014, p. 141). The focused coding

process allows the analyst to analyze and conceptualize the data almost simultaneously (Charmaz, 2014). The systematic analysis and constant comparison of the codes helped to reduce the number of codes and reveal the relationship between the codes.

Focused coding enabled me to capture the things that matter to the Millennials, such as *money* –"I looked at the job opening, it was basically what I was doing before, but it paid about 10 to $15,000 more" (P4); *Free/Flex Time* – " Um, they offer flexibility, like you basically pick your schedule as long as you work your eight hours. So that's nice." (P12); "free time is very important" (P7) *benefits* - "I'm 26 now so, I had to get off my parent's insurance, so I needed to look for a job that had good benefits" (P2) or *less commuting* - "I was kind of okay with the commute um, but after a while, it kinda got a little taxing on me" (P5).

Focused coding also enabled me to capture the Millennial's desire for *growth and advancement opportunities* "I thought this was the better opportunity for me" (P9) and "The reason why I left my previous employer was there wasn't the opportunity to grow" (P11). It captures their displeasure for *empty promises* "There's a lot of like empty promises like they didn't really do the things they said they're going to do" (P1). Moreover, their experiences of the *work environment* "The environment was, I would say hostile. It wasn't enjoyable. (P12); "risky and dangerous environment" (P7); "it's stifling almost" (P5) or "the environment that they put their employees in, which wasn't really stable for the employee's health and wellbeing" (P11).

Theoretical Coding

Theoretical coding is the process used to integrate and refine the categories (Benaquisto, 2008; Charmaz, 2014; Yin, 2011), and expose the possible relationships developed from focused coding and the identification of categories (Charmaz, 2014). Theoretical coding allows integration of the data and focused codes, thus supporting the analyst in developing, explaining, and writing the narrative (the storyline) of the interconnection of the themes (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2014). Listed below are the primary themes, and their definitions that emerged from the theoretical coding process:

1. *Compensation:* The desire for increased income to live their desired lifestyle.

2. *Job enjoyment*: A passion and desire to enjoy their job. The desire to have fun at work yet be productive. Looking forward to going to work and not just showing up for a paycheck.

3. *Professional growth:* The desire to learn new skills and have the opportunity for growth. Having the authority to participate in decisions and set their own goals.

4. *Work environment*: An encouraging work environment that is engaging and enhances employee productivity and motivation while reducing stress.

5. *Free/flex-time* – Flextime refers to the flexibility in an employee's work schedule. Flex time allows employees to balance their work and home life.

6. *Finding their niche* – Looking for a job they love that truly captures their interest.

7. *Benefits* – Paid education, help with student loans, medical and dental insurance, and so forth.

Saturation

Saturation occurs when the gathering of new data yields no new theoretical insights, nor reveals any new properties of the core theoretical categories (Charmaz, 2014). Using this definition as the standard, the process of analysis continued until the 13th interview. Although some new codes emerged, no new themes emerged between the fifth and the final interview, indicating that saturation had occurred. Table 2 below provides a snapshot of the emergent themes after the first five interviews. At that point, seven factors had emerged as necessary to the participants in their process of deciding whether to job-hop.

Table 2

Factors that Affect Millennial Job-Hopping (5 Participants)

Themes	Participants	Percentage	Participants by Numbers
Compensation	5	100%	1,2,3,4,5
Job Enjoyment	5	100%	1,2,3,4,5
Free/Flex-Time	5	100%	1,2,3,4,5
Professional Growth	4	80%	1,3,4,5
Finding Their Niche	4	80%	1,2,3,5
Work Environment	3	60%	1,4,5
Benefits	3	60%	2,3,4

Note: Population size is 5 participants.

Table 3 provides a summary of the emergent themes after all 13 interviews. At that point, the same seven themes as listed in Table 2 were still the primary factors considered important by the participants in their process of deciding whether to job-hop.

While their order had changed somewhat, the same seven themes had emerged. Hence, data saturation had occurred.

Table 3

Factors that Affect Millennial Job-Hopping

Themes	Participants	Percentage	Participants by Numbers
Compensation	12	92%	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13
Job Enjoyment	11	85%	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,
Professional Growth	10	77%	1,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,13
Work Environment	10	77%	1,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,13
Free/Flex-Time	10	77%	1,2,3,4,5,7,8,11,12,13
Finding Their Niche	10	77%	1,2,3,5,6,7,8,11,12,13
Benefits	9	69%	1,2,3,4,6,9,11,12,13

Note: Population size is 13 participants.

Theoretical Sampling

Theoretical sampling supports the researcher in centering data collection around the emerging categories and concepts (Butler, Copnell, & Hall, 2018; Charmaz, 2014). After the development of the initial codes and tentative categories based on the first five interviews, there was no need for theoretical sampling.

Disconfirming or Discrepant Data

To combat the natural tendency to seek similar emerging findings, I sought disconfirming evidence and discrepant data (Morrow, 2005). See below the participants' disconfirming evidence or discrepant data as it relates to each theme:

- *Compensation* was a factor for all participants, except P11. P11 left a higher paying job that was closer to his home because he thought that the new position

would offer him greater opportunity for growth. Money is not a significant concern for P11 because he feels "Once you have that skill set and that experience, the pay and the benefits will come," which depends on one's decision to change jobs.

- *Job enjoyment:* Most of the participants spoke about enjoying their job, having fun at work, or a culture at work where it felt like family, except for P08 and P13. P08 did not mention it at all and P13 felt that work does not have to be all "kicks and giggles and fun and office parties. I don't need all of that to do my work."

- *Professional growth*: For most of the participants, professional growth was a concern, except for P02, P08, and, P12. P02 is still looking for her niche but feels she does not want to be a supervisor. She wants her job to be easy, but not boring. P08 did not mention growth that relates to his profession, but he is a new college graduate, and it is my opinion that he has not had that experience. P12 saw professional growth and advancement as being a supervisor and stated: "I like to have structure and kind of have direction on what I'm supposed to do and do it good."

- *Work environment* was a factor for most of the participants, except for P02, P03, and P08. Work environment was never mentioned by these three because I believe they have always worked in a decent work environment. Therefore, having never experienced a negative work environment, it is not an issue or concern for them.

- *Free/flex-time* appears to matter for most of the participants, except for P06, P09, and P10. Free/Flex-Time matters to these three, as well as, it is just not a major concern, as all three are in higher education and have most holidays, for example, 4th of July, Spring Break, and Christmas, off.

- *Finding their niche* seems to matter to most participants, except P04, P09, and P10. P04 is an older Millennial, well established in her career field. P09 and P10 seem content in their new job as it relates to finding their niche.

- *Benefits* seem to matter to most participants, except P05, P07, P08, and P10. P05 and P10, but both believe they have significant benefits; therefore, not they did not mention benefits as a concern. As for P07 and P08, both are still very young, and, therefore, covered by their parents.

Memo Writing

I implemented memo writing, journaling, and note taking throughout the entire data collection and data analysis process. Memo writing is a reflective process that allows an analyst to capture ideas immediately. While transcribing the interviews, I utilized memos, enabling me to capture the essence of the participants, record my observations, thoughts, and ideas as they arise to develop later. To include writing down questions that came to mind.

<div align="center">

Evidence of Trustworthiness

</div>

Trustworthiness is a powerful concept that frees the qualitative researcher from the shadows of the quantitative approach (Given & Saumure, 2008). Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability are characteristics in qualitative research

that define trustworthiness. Trustworthiness includes ensuring and following the criteria

provided by Walden University and the IRB to conduct the study based on the methods

outlined in Chapter 3.

Credibility

Internal validity and credibility reflect reality (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I

increased the credibility of this study by selecting the appropriate participants for the

topic through purposive and theoretical sampling, using appropriate data collection

methodology, and ensuring the participants' responses were open, comprehensive, and

honest.   Time is another strategy that I used to increase credibility by establishing

enough time with the participants to gather rich, thick data. Cross-checking the

transcripts, the emerging concepts, and the substantive theory, as well as, performing

member checks with each participant ensures that my interpretation was correct and

consistent with their beliefs, thus reflecting their reality (Cooney, 2011; Merriam &

Tisdell, 2016). Using the participant's words in the emerging codes and themes;

examining any emerging data that contradicted the main findings (Cooney, 2011; Sikolia

et al., 2013); and my use of *reflexivity* strategies (Morrow, 2005) were all strategies I

used to increase the credibility of my research (Cooney, 2011; Sikolia et al., 2013).

Transferability

Transferability denotes to providing enough descriptive data to make

transferability possible (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A thick description of the

participants' experience of job-hopping from their perspective, providing a detail

description of the methodology and grounding the interpretation of the results, and the

emerging theory in the data increased transferability (Bowen, 2009; Cooney, 2011; Morrow, 2005). This includes implementing purposive sampling, which is consistent with the research design, another technique that increases transferability (Jensen, 2008; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Dependability

Ensuring dependability relies on providing enough detail that another researcher could replicate the research and its findings (Shenton, 2004). Executing a detailed research design plan and ensuring the correct documentation of the participants' data, consistently and accurately reflects their intended meaning (Jensen, 2008; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) increases the dependability of my study along with an examination of the detailed research design plan by my mentor (Brown et al., 2002; Morrow, 2005).

Confirmability

Confirmability for this study results from ensuring that the findings are the results of the participants' experiences and ideas verified by the supporting data. I also documented my concerns about the influence of popular literature and its suggestions as it relates to retaining Millennials and there were no bias issues relating to retention. To ensure confirmability, I verified my interpretations with each participant through member checking, used the participant's words to ground the data, and attempted to make the research process as transparent as possible by describing the data collection process along with the data analysis process.

Results

The results of the data collection and the constant comparative analysis of the 13 interviews address the central research question, as well the two research subquestions. Grounded in the reasons why they job-hop (shown in Table 3), the Millennials Job-Hopping Theory helps to explain the decision-making process Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with their current employer. Basically, they job-hop when they feel that they have no other options, thus reaching their breaking point, which starts their search for another job.

The Millennials job-hopping decision-making process is similar to Herzberg's dual factor concepts relating to job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Herzberg's theory serves as a theoretical foundation because the emerging themes/factors that influence the Millennial job-hopping decision are similar to Herzberg's internal motivators, which are job satisfiers (intrinsic/internal *to the work*) and hygiene factors (extrinsic/external *to the work*), which are job dissatisfiers. Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are dual factor concepts, according to Herzberg, derived from two distinct sets of needs. They are not opposites. Therefore, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not measurable on the same continuum (Bockman, 1971; Herzberg, 1965; Tuch & Hornbaek, 2015). Thus, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather *no satisfaction* and the opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction, but rather *no dissatisfaction* (Lacey, Kennett-Hensel, & Manolis, 2015).

Job-hopping means to depart; it is a term used to describe when a person has decided to leave an organization. Using Herzberg's theory to align and support the

Millennials Job-Hopping Theory answers the central research question: What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop or stay with an organization?   When a Millennial is satisfied (internally), and not dissatisfied (externally), he/she will stay with an organization, which means no job-hopping. When a Millennial is dissatisfied (externally) and not satisfied (internally), he/she will leave the organization, which implies job-hopping.

The Millennials implement the Millennials Job-Hopping Process to decide whether to job-hop or not job-hop. The data below reveal that there is no simple formula to determine when a Millennial will job-hop and that Millennials do not just quit, they transition.

- *"I credit that to my parents because they taught me to never leave a job until you have another job" (P06).*

- *"I'm not going to just quit and walk out. Like I'll start looking up other companies or other things I might do instead because I want to make sure I'm going somewhere that's also good" (P01).*

Supported by data the Millennials evaluate their organization from the time that they arrive.

- *"I feel like within the first couple of weeks I can start seeing things" (P01).* *"There's a lot of like empty promises, like they didn't really do the things they said they're going to do. The training wasn't really that great. Um, some of the coworkers also aren't really that easy to get along with and I didn't really think the company was doing what they said towards their mission statement." (P01).*

- *"Within three months of working for my former employer, I saw that my skills were not being utilized, so then, I started looking for the next employer to utilize my current skill set." (P11).*

- *"My transition out of higher education was a lack of appreciation and compensation for additional duties as they've been compounded and added on throughout my time" (P05).*

- *"I really feel like there wasn't really a lot of room for growth and so I feel like my sacrifice of commuting and putting the effort, and stuff really wasn't being noticed or awarded, um, and there really wasn't any growth for me" (P06).*

Millennials make the decision to job-hop when they reach their individual breaking points for various reasons.

- *"You kinda end up leaving because the negatives end up outweighing some of the positives" (P01).*

- *"I don't necessarily think it was one thing. I think it was just multiple things compiling and eventually, I just couldn't any more" (P05)*

- *"I didn't feel like in that position there would be a promotion opportunity or you know or an opportunity to make more money" (P04).*

- *"Knowing that graduation was quickly approaching and that I needed to just try something different" (P13).*

- *"The reason why I left my previous employer was there wasn't the opportunity to grow. There was no opportunity to teach me new avenues within the business.*

There wasn't an opportunity to allow me to implement my new way of thinking. So

that's why I left that previous employer" (P11).

When they reach their breaking point, Millennials plan their exit (i.e., transition), researching their future company, submitting resumes, and taking interviews while working for their current employer.

- *"If I start thinking that I'm not going to stay somewhere, I'll start researching before I actually decide to leave. Like I'm not going to just quit and walk out" (P01).*

- *"I actually plan on trying to leave. I'm trying to find actually a better job or a job within my field or area of study" (P08).*

- *"I started trying out my resume during when Hurricane Irma came by on a team. That was August, September. (started with the company June) Around that time. June, July, August. Like in three months" (P11).*

- *"I would just start applying. I would start looking at my previous employment when I kind of realized that we were going there" (P06).*

- *"I got an interview and you know, at that time they call me back. I went and did the interview and then they made the job offer" (P04).*

- *"They called for a second interview" (P12).*

They look for positions that align with their degrees, which provide the right fit for their lifestyle choices, and a company for which they can enjoy working.

- *"I think I'm actually still trying to figure that out. Like I do have a business degree, but I feel like I haven't really done enough to like know exactly what I want to do" (P01).*

- *"Yeah, I really did (hit the jackpot) and it was literally what I had been waiting for, three years since I've had my the" {degree}(P03).*

- *"I was trying to find something that was the right fit" (P05).*

- *"it was like ruining my days I didn't really have a daytime life" (P07).*

- *"working all night and trying to like enjoy life. It's very hard because I mean if you're up all night, it's hard to enjoy the day and by the time you wake up, I mean it's time to go back to work again" (P07).*

- *"to have coworkers that lift you up or make you laugh every now and then because you have to laugh on the job sometimes" (P12).*

- *"I enjoyed my job and enjoyed the morale" (P06).*

Some Millennials decide to job-hop, but defer the actual move, because they are looking but do not know what they are looking for, other than more enjoyment in a job. Also, some Millennials may work for less money if they enjoy their current job enough to stay.

- *"I don't know. I've no idea because I always have in my mind what will make me happy, but I'm always afraid I'll get bored and want to leave" (P02).*

- *"Yeah, I feel like that's one of the reasons cause I'm trying to find my niche that I'm trying to like search" (P01).*

- *"it comes down to like, I guess happiness to. So, it's like if I'm not happy there I kinda of in search of happiness" (P01).*

- *"that's a big issue for me is just finding out what it is that you want to do" (P12).*

- *"now I actually enjoy going to work" (P03).*

- *"I thoroughly enjoy it. I love the social aspect of it and like the social services kind of overcoming objections and barriers and providing service. It's a passion of mine" (P05).*

- *"I can be happy with like the environment even if the money is not there, but if the money is there, it doesn't matter. Even if the money's there, if I'm not happy with the environment, it won't last" (P01).*

Some Millennials are not looking, but the opportunity falls into their lap, and they weigh compensation and other factors and decide to job-hop.

- *"I really wasn't looking for another opportunity at that point, but a colleague came to me and said, oh, I heard about this job opening" (P04). "I was comfortable with that (old position) for now, but it paid about 10 to $15,000 more and it was closer to my home" (P04).*

If the Millennials' work environment is favorable, they patiently wait until the right job comes along.

- *"I had been waiting for, three years since I've had my the {degree}" (P03)*

- *"it took a very long time for a callback and hits with the resume" (8 mos.) (P11).*

They negotiate for the things that matter most to them before they accept the offer, after which they job-hop.

- *"I did negotiate about the time as far as the times to work because I explain. My daughter comes first so, if I can't leave here for whatever reason, then I can't have this job" (P03).*

- *"So initially before negotiation, my salary would be only, I think it was like $2,000 more dollars than what I was making. So, in order for me to relocate, start on the date that they wanted me to and to bring my experience with me, it's like, hey, you have to meet me somewhere. So that 2000 went to four and a half" (P13).*

- *"I provided a salary that I thought was reasonable and they accepted that salary which was $10,000 more than I was making before" (P04).*

Before they depart most will provide a two weeks' notice or a letter of resignation.

- *"I turned in a two-week notice. I let him know like way ahead of time" (P07).*

- *"I gave my two weeks. They said, awesome, you're going to do great things and make sure you document all your policies and procedures and good luck" (P05).*

- *"I didn't give a two-week notice, my previous supervisor, he wasn't a fair individual. So, I felt that if I've had given a two weeks' notice it was either you could leave now or I get the difficult jobs. It was a situation that I know it wasn't right, but at the same time, it's not like I didn't give a resignation notice I did" (P11).*

All Millennials compare what is important to them between the old job and the new offer before they leave. Table 4 represents the themes and some of the participants supporting quotes.

Table 4

Themes and Supporting Quotes

Themes	Participants Quotes
Compensation	"I looked at the job opening, it was basically what I was doing before, but it paid about 10 to $15,000 more and it was closer to my home" (P04).
	"It was like $2,000 more dollars. So that 2000 went to four and a half, which really made it better for me" (P13).
	"it had been about a year and a half and at that time I hadn't received any sort of a pay increase or bonus for merit or anything" (P12).
	"Well, the main reason I could say is money. Um, Yeah, I just give it to you straight, money. More money was being offered. So, yeah, I had to go" (P10).
Job Enjoyment	"Now I actually enjoy going to work" (P03).
	"The main thing it comes down to like, I guess happiness too. So, it's like if I'm not happy there (the job), I'm kinda of in search of happiness too" (P01).
	"Um, because it helps you not stay stressed all the time on the job. If you're laughing and you have, you know, some fun involved at times" (P12).
	"So that work environment was so black and white and I'm happy and cheerful for my new colorful work environment" (P11).
Professional Growth	"The reason why I left my previous employer was there wasn't the opportunity to grow" (P11).
	"I couldn't branch out, I couldn't extend services to other people. Um, so I think that that would be a hindrance in my own progression" (P13).
	"I really feel like there wasn't really a lot of room for growth" (P06).
	"This environment (new company) actually has more room for growth and professional development" (P09).
Work Environment	"I was so stressed from the previous job. The environment wasn't conducive to learning. It wasn't conducive for growth, it wasn't conducive for teamwork" (P11).
	"The environment was, I would say hostile. It wasn't enjoyable" (P12).
	"It can be a little risky and dangerous environment" (P07).
	"It's stifling almost" (P05).

Table Continues

Themes	*Participants Quotes*
Free/Flex-Time	"They offer flexibility, like you basically pick your schedule as long as you work your eight hours. So that's nice" (P12).
	"So that was a big thing for me. But they let me know like you have flex time you're not even in the office all the time anyway, so if you have to leave to go get your daughter do anything with her, you're more than welcome" (P03).
	"Free time is very important and that job was also hard to get days off" (P07).
	"Another thing that I should add, like time off is really important" (P02).
Finding Their Niche	I just didn't see myself doing that in the future, so I felt like I had to do something I really was passionate about doing. So, I had to find another job to support my education" (P07).
	"I got a job in my field" (P03)
	"I definitely started looking for jobs that fit within my five-year plan that's within field" (P06).
	"I narrowed down my search for companies that fit my vision and companies that will allow me to grow as an individual" (P11).
Benefits	"I'm 26 now so I had to get off my parents' insurance so I needed to look for a job that had good benefits" (P02).
	"Are great. I can go to school for free if I want to get my masters or my husband can and my kids can too" (P12).
	"I get better benefits, as well, that includes life insurance that the city paid for so I don't have to pay for it. So that was a big plus itself because I had even started looking into life insurance for my daughter and myself" (P03).
	"They (New Company) pay 100 percent of your health care plan with Florida Healthcare and 100 percent of your dental, and they do a 10 percent retirement match, which is a pretty good match for your retirement" (P04).

The central research question is: What decision-making process do Millennials use to decide whether to job-hop?

The Millennials job-hopping theory determines whether to job-hop or not job-hop. Like Herzberg's hygiene motivation theory, the list of themes/factors that affect

Millennial Job-Hopping decision (from Table 3) falls into the motivators (internal) or

hygiene (external) categories, see Table 5 below.

Table 5

Themes Correlating with Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivational Factors

Motivating Factors – Internals/Satisfiers	*Hygiene Factors – Externals/Dissatisfiers*
2. Job Enjoyment	1. Compensation
3. Professional Growth	4. Work Environment
6. Finding Their Niche	5. Flex-Time
	7. Benefits

RQ1: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to job-

hop?

Per the Millennials Job-hopping theory (see Figure 1). When Millennials hygiene

and motivator factors deteriorate below an unacceptable level, they decide to job-hop and

begin to transition out of the organization in which they describe their decision-making

process as planning their exit, researching their future companies, submitting resumes,

and taking interviews until hired by another company that appears to meet their

expectations. From the data, it seems that hygiene factors may primarily shape the

Millennials source of job satisfaction. If that is the case, that is the opposite of
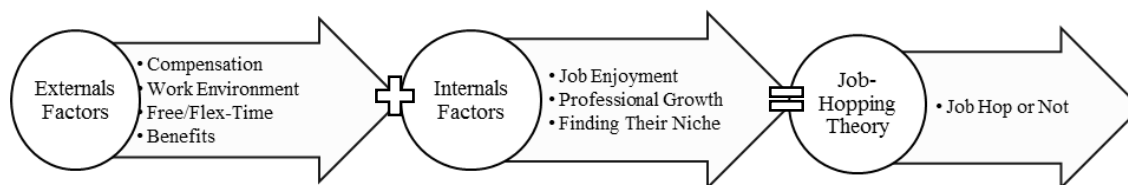
Herzberg's theory.

Figure 1. Millennials Job-Hopping Theory

When the Millennials' externals factors result in *dissatisfaction*, and their internals factors result in no *satisfaction*, as shown in Figure 2, the Millennials Job-hop. The data provides several possibilities that may cause a Millennial to change jobs which I will discuss further in chapter 5.

External Factors = Dissatisfaction + Internal Factors = No Satisfaction ≡ Job-Hopping Theory = Job-Hop
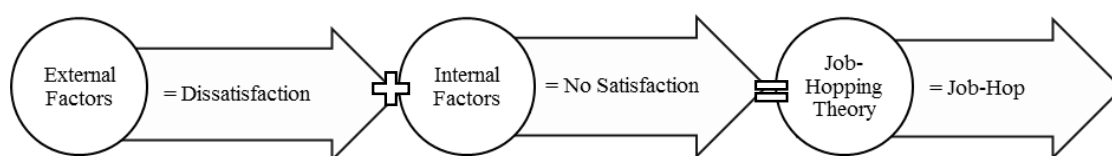
Figure 2. Job-Hop Decision Process.

RQ 2: How do the Millennials' describe their decision-making process to stay with an organization?

When the Millennial external factors are comparable to *no dissatisfaction*, and the internal factors are comparable to *satisfaction*, as shown in Figure 3, the decision-making process leads to a decision not to job-hop.

External Factors = No Dissatifaction + Internal Factors = Satisfaction ≡ Job-Hopping Theory = No Job-Hop
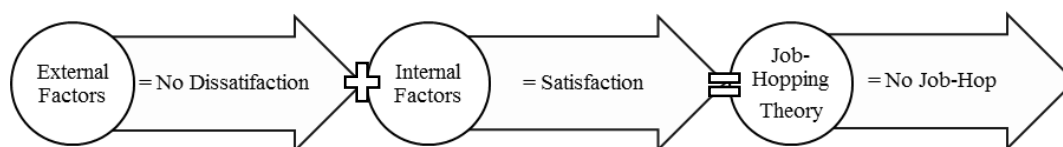
Figure 3. No Job-Hop Decision Process.

Summary

This chapter encompasses the discussion of the research setting, the participant's demographics table, data collection, and the data analysis that incorporates the discussion of the initial/open, focused, and theoretical coding followed by the primary themes that affect the Millennials decision-making process. Also included is a short discussion on saturation, theoretical sampling, and memo writing. Chapter 4 also includes the evidence of trustworthiness discussion, followed by the Millennials job-hopping theory that answers the research questions. Chapter 5 will include the interpretation of the findings, limitation of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusion.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative study was to develop a grounded theory that explains the decision-making process of the Millennials' procedure regarding whether to job-hop or stay with an organization. Understanding the Millennials' process and perspective of "why" they job-hop may support corporations in developing satisfying company policies, compensation and benefits packages, and rewards/perks. Therefore, if companies can increase the Millennials' commitment to their organizations, they may mitigate the job-hopping rate and thus preserve critical organizational knowledge, and increase their return from millions of dollars in training, advertising, interviewing, and job posting (Schullery, 2013).

To achieve the purpose of this qualitative study, I interviewed 13 Millennials from various professions and cities, thus implementing Charmaz's (2014) grounded theory methodology to construct the Millennials job-hopping theory. This theory leads to a better understanding of *how* and *why* Millennials decide whether to job-hop or not job-hop. The Millennials' decision-making process includes evaluating their present employer, deciding to job-hop, planning their exit, researching their future companies, submitting resumes, and taking interviews until hired by another company that appears to meet their expectations. Like Herzberg's motivational theory, the list of themes/factors that affect Millennial job-hopping decisions falls into either the motivator (internal) or hygiene (external) categories.

The critical findings per the Millennials job-hopping theory occur when specific hygiene and motivator factors described in Chapter 4 (see Table 3) deteriorate below an unacceptable level, Millennials decide to job-hop and begin a transition out of the organization. When the Millennials' externals factors result in *dissatisfaction,* and their internals factors result in *no satisfaction*, the Millennials job-hop (see Figure 2). When the Millennial external factors are comparable to *no dissatisfaction*, and the internal factors are comparable to *satisfaction*, the decision-making process leads to a decision not to job-hop.

Interpretation of the Findings

The participants statements in this study confirms, as well as, narrows the literature gap by extending research knowledge and understanding of job-hopping from the Millennials' perspective. Some participants comments appear to reinforce portions of Lake's et al. (2017) motive(s) to job-hop, a term adopted from Maertz and Griffeth (2004), who shared job turnover through the lens of causal motives instead of *significant predictors.* Lake et al.'s findings demonstrated two fragmented perspectives (advancement or escape). Lake's advancement motives highlighted job-hoppers' desire for career advancement as the motive to change jobs *often* (Lake et al., 2017). Conversely, the escape motive reflects job-hoppers' desire to escape a disliked work environment *immediately* (Lake et al., 2017). The escape motive emerges from the turnover perspective that suggests impulsive qualities (Mobley,1977) or the lack of fortitude or persistence (Ghiselli,1974).

In this study, participants statements confirm both factors (advancement and escape) as a motive to change jobs but disconfirm the timing cycle of "often" and "immediately" as well as Mobley (1977) and Ghiselli's (1974) suggestions. Most of the targeted participants in this study seem to have a sense of being patient enough to wait for the job that meets the majority of their desires. The participants' statements also disconfirm Ghiselli's (1974) *hobo syndrome,* defined as "the periodic itch to move from a job in one place to some other job in some other place" (p. 81), that *likens to an internal impulse* that causes birds to migrate.

The participants' comments confirm Landrum's (2017) statement that Millennials are not afraid to change jobs to improve their skills and take advantage of better opportunities. Their comments also confirm that 77% of the targeted participants in this study are looking for a positive work environment and work-life balance. Seventy-seven percent of this study participants confirms, Landrum's statement that relates to looking for the right job fit or niche. The data also supports Landrum's statement as it relates to negative stigma in that there appears to be no negative stigma for job-hopping, as 100% of study participants, all of whom had job-hopped, gained new employment without a problem. The data, as shown in Table 1, from the study will also support CareerBuilder's (2014) study that the younger Millennial employees and the recent college graduates usually stay with an organization for 2 years or less.

Seventy-seven percent of the participants in this study confirms Kong's et al. (2015) and Ng's et al. (2010) statements that growth and the opportunity to advance are essential factors. Participants comments also support Luscombe's et al., (2013)

statements that work-life balance (free/flex-time) is a vital concern and has become part of the Millennials' negotiating terms (Luscombe et al., 2013). The data from the study confirms Agarwa's (2010) and Twenge and Donnelly's (2016) statements that money is a key motivator for an individual to work for an organization and that money matters to Millennials (Baird, 2014; Smith & Galbraith, 2012; Twenge & Donnelly, 2016).

The data extend the literary knowledge and expands scholars understanding in that although money matters to 92% of the selected Millennials, it may not be the driving factor in their job-hopping decision. However, compensation becomes a significant factor when the Millennials look for their next job. The participants' statements confirm Ng et al.'s (2010) comments that Millennials first job and pay expectations are realistic, but they desire career development, training, and want to receive a promotion/pay raise within 15-18 months all while ensuring that they achieve a meaningful and satisfying social life outside of work.

Conceptual Framework

Many Millennial statements confirm analyst's comments that they are confident, enjoy collaboration, and prefer work-life balance. Millennials are also eager to make sense of their life's purpose, yet they can become impatient and bored quickly (Clark, 2017; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Smith & Galbraith, 2012). They can multitask and view tasks from multiple creative vantage points. They also enjoy experimenting, discovering new approaches, and resolving problems (Clark, 2017; Wiedmer, 2015).

As for the psychological contract theory that "represents the employment relationship concerning the subjective beliefs of the employer (or the employer

representative) and the employee" (Rousseau, 2011).   A few Millennials mentioned that they felt the company misrepresented the job requirements as well as the companies' mission, but it was not significant in this study.

The study findings exposed the process that Millennials go through before leaving their perspective organization, as well as the factors that drive them to implement the Millennials job-hopping theory. To reiterate, job-hopping means to depart, to change jobs willingly; while no job-hopping means to stay with the present employer. The factors that affect the Millennials job-hopping decision-making process are interrelated with Herzberg's hygiene and motivational theory. The Millennials factors/themes are either internal motivators or external hygiene factors.

At first glance of the data, compensation appears to be the core factor affecting Millennial's decision making to change jobs, but according to most of the participants, it is the *lack* of a combination of motivators and hygiene factors that cause them to reach their breaking point. Although the central research question is – What is the Millennials decision-making process to job-hop or stay with an organization? The embedded question to answer is why do they job-hop?

Millennials job-hop because they are not satisfied. Something is lacking; it may be the lack of job enjoyment, professional growth, an encouraging work environment, free/flex time, or benefits. Alternatively, it may be that they are searching for their niche, which will fulfill most if not all of the previous factors. When Millennials are not satisfied with their employer, they implement the Millennials job-hopping theory. Listed

below are significant outcomes revealed by the data collection, analysis, and interpretation of those results.

- Millennials job-hop when they reach their various breaking points for various reasons.

- Millennials job-hop when a combination of their hygiene and motivator factors deteriorate below an unacceptable level.

- Millennials seem to stay with an organization when they are satisfied.

- Even though 92% of the participants identified compensation as a significant factor and compensation may appear as the driving factor for job-hopping, it may not be the driving factor, but compensation becomes a factor when the Millennials look for their next job.

- Job enjoyment is a motivating factor that 85% of the total sample population identified.

- Professional growth, work environment, free/flex-time, and finding their niche are factors that 77% of the participants identified as significant.

- For Millennials, the hygiene factors are the dominating factors that appear to motivate their decision-making process. An examination of the information in Table 6 below lends support to the theory that it is possible that some hygiene factors have become motivators, unlike Herzberg's Theory.

Table 6

Hygiene and Motivating Factors That Affect Millennial Job-Hopping

Themes	Participants	Percentage	Participants by Numbers
Compensation (H)	12	92%	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13
Job Enjoyment (M)	11	85%	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,
Professional Growth (M)	10	77%	1,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,13
Work Environment (H)	10	77%	1,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,13
Free/Flex-Time (H)	10	77%	1,2,3,4,5,7,8,11,12,13
Finding Their Niche (M)	10	77%	1,2,3,5,6,7,8,11,12,13
Benefits (H)	9	69%	1,2,3,4,6,9,11,12,13
Access to Training (H)	7	54%	1,4,6,9,10,11,12,
Coworkers/Work Friends (H)	7	54%	1,2,4,9,10,11,12
Management (M)	7	54%	5,6,9,10,11,12,13
Opportunity to Use Skills (H)	5	38%	5,6,9,10,11,12,13

Note: Population size is 13 participants

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study include those mentioned in Chapter 1. Additional limitations of this study included the recruitment of participants. The initial recruitment plan was to recruit any Millennial between 18-36 who changed jobs within 6 months. By using LinkedIn, Facebook, and Walden's Student Pool as a recruiting tool, which produced only two participants. I was initially hopeful that participants would be from different states and the public sources would produce not only multiple ages but produce various educational levels. One fundamental limitation of this study was the small number of participants, all of whom have 3 years or greater of college education. The second limitation that occurred was the geographical location in that the majority of the participants reside in the state of Florida. The third limitation was that none of the participants were in a management or supervisory position.

Recommendations

The objective of this grounded theory study was to produce a finding that explains job hopping from the perspective of the Millennials. The Millennials decision-making process is similar yet different from Mobley's (1977) predictor, the "intermediate linkage" model that outlines the employee process by which job dissatisfaction leads to voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 2017). The Millennials' decision-making process is *unlike* Mobley's process in that the Millennials decide to job-hop/quit first, then they plan their exit, research the potential future companies, submit resumes, and take interviews until hired by another company that appears to meet their expectations. See Mobley's process below:

Mobley's process included reaching "dissatisfaction → *thoughts of quitting* → subjective expected utility (SEU) analysis of the benefits and cost of seeking alternative jobs and turning over → search intentions → evaluations of alternative job offer → comparison of job offers with present job → *intentions to quit* (after choosing a job offer) → *actually quitting*" (as cited in Lee et al., 2017, p. 202).

In contrast, the goal of this research was not to provide another predictor or to create a theory that might evolve into a predictor over time. The goal was to gain an understanding of the Millennials' decision-making process, interpret the constructed data, and determine the interrelationship of the data, with the hope of providing new insights to explain how the factors affect the Millennial job-hopping rate (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Patton, 2015). Florida became a geographical limitation for this study. To further Millennial job-hopping research, future researchers may consider sampling another state

or the entire United States to determine if the factors/themes will vary along cultural lines or geographical locations. Participants in this study were in the birth range from 1982 to 2000. Although all respondents were Millennials, there was no representation of all the years.

Future researchers may consider examining the entire Millennial generation spectrum (1982 to 2003) in a few years since careers, workplaces, and technology are changing rapidly, future researchers may consider sampling the Millennial generation. An additional research recommendation may be to investigate the senior Millennials in management positions who are still changing jobs every 3 to 5 years. Another research recommendation would be to study Millennials that have been with an organization greater than 5 years to determine factors that influence their organizational commitment. Lastly, researchers could study the best practices of organizations that have successfully mastered retaining Millennials for greater than 7 years and document their best practices.

The following recommendations are suggestions for organizations and managers to help retain Millennials. Millennials expect competitive compensation, an enjoyable workplace that is engaging and productive (Bersin, Flynn, Mazor, & Melian, 2017). Therefore, corporate managers may benefit from reexamining their organizational policies, structures, informal processes, and rewards/perks. Even though compensation may not be a driving factor, organizations will benefit by offering competitive and fair compensation; data also supports that if compensation is too low, Millennials will job-hop (Patel, 2017; State of the American Workplace Report, 2017).

An important factor in ensuring job engagement is selecting the right individual for the job. Embrace the Millennials' need for freedom by encouraging them to maneuver in a way that allows them to reach their full potential, as opposed to the old company structure (Rounds, 2017; State of the American Workplace Report, 2017). Hence, managers need to select the right Millennials for the right job and provide them with the proper tools and autonomy to succeed. According to Psychologist Pink (as cited by Bersin et al., 2017), purpose, mastery, and autonomy motivate individuals.

It is essential that corporate managers create an enjoyable work environment that provides various opportunities for career progression and professional growth (Bersin et al., 2017). Therefore, encourage personal development by mentoring and investing in the Millennials' professional growth which includes providing feedback, improving leadership and communication skills (Patel, 2017). Create regular training sessions that keep Millennial engage and support productive by enhancing corporate knowledge, coworker socialization, as well as, job embeddedness (Patel, 2017; Tews et al., 2015).

Successful organizations (e.g., Qualcomm, Zappos, Cisco) have extended their focus beyond culture and employee engagement (Bersin et al., 2017). Their human resource departments have moved beyond traditional compliance training, career development, risk management, and performance management (Meister, 2016). Organizations are now developing an integrated focus through the utilization of apps of the entire employee experience that combines the workplace, management, and human resources (HR) practices that impact people on the job (Bersin et al., 2017).

Suggestions for corporate managers/practitioners to ignite the Millennials'
entrepreneurial spirits, provide flexibility, and encourage development (Rounds, 2017;
State of the American Workplace Report, 2017). Most corporate managers would agree
that there is no single practice when it comes to stimulating creativity, initiative, and
fostering entrepreneurial activity.

Implications

Positive Social Change

There was a time when managing globalization was the most visible social
movement (Davis & Zald, 2004) as it relates to organizational change in our time, but
now the Millennial generation is driving the change in our society, as well as, the
organizational change. Organizations are progressively restructuring their companies to
resemble the episodic movements (Davis & Zald, 2004) by implementing policies,
strategies, and training in response to the Millennial generation and their job-hopping
rate.

The Millennial generation shift is causing organizations to change their
management structure from hierarchical to matrixed to flat (Fries, 2018). Millennials are
influencing organization communication approaches, which impact organizations'
methods of communication, the medium, and tools the companies use such as mobile
devices. Short, to the point, actionable information has replaced long emails (Fries,
2018). Millennials are connecting with companies via a social network, thus influencing
companies to incorporate internal social networks, a capable platform to disseminate
information and encourage internal dialogue (Fries, 2018). They are influencing how and

where work is accomplished thus forcing more organization to introduce flexible work schedules (Fries, 2018).

The potential impact of positive social change occurs when Millennials achieve satisfaction with their jobs, thus increasing loyalty, organizational commitment, and reducing stress (Sokmen & Biyik, 2016; Sypniewska, 2014). Reduce stress in the Millennials' work environment leads to work enjoyment, reducing employee turnover, thus creating economic stability for the individuals and their families (Sypniewska, 2014). Job enjoyment increases organizational embeddedness and reduces stress on the employees as well as their families, thus creating happy and stable people in society.

The implication of positive social change for the organization includes the increased embeddedness, organizational productivity, and employee loyalty and commitment, thus reducing employee absenteeism and turnover (Chimote & Srivastava, 2013; Tews et al., 2015) and saving the organization the millions of dollars required to replace the Millennial employees (Schawbel, 2013). Reduced turnover rates can lead to savings in training, advertising, and interviewing new employees. Less job-hopping can mitigate the shortage of workers, the adverse effects of lost tacit knowledge, productivity, morale, and customer services (Goud, 2014; Moon, 2017) and may prevent organizations from losing their competitive edge (Govaerts et al., 2012), thus saving the U. S. economy $30.5 billion annually (Adkins, 2016).

The Implication of Theory

This theory implication was significant because prior to this study no comprehensive theory explained the Millennials' decision-making process to job-hop or

stay with an organization from their perspective. This study illuminates the process the seven main factors (compensation, job enjoyment, professional growth, work environment, free/flex-time, finding their niche, and benefits) that affect Millennials' decision-making process, and suggests a theory of why Millennials Job-Hop based on these seven factors.

Implications for Practice

Information from this study has the potential to assist managers and organizations in minimizing the Millennial job-hopping rate, thus increasing retention. Managers and organizations can utilize the findings from this study and combine them with relevant literature regarding employee engagement to develop new flexible organizational policies, competitive compensation, attractive benefits and perks that will influence engagement and retention (Johnson & Ng, 2016; State of the American Workplace Report, 2017). This study provides managers and organization with an insight into the Millennials decision-making process, an understanding of why Millennials job-hop, and the Millennials' job-hopping theory.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

Job-hopping costs the U.S. economy $30.5 billion annually despite corporations' efforts to reduce it (Adkins, 2016). The Millennial job-hopping theory may help minimize some of this cost. The Millennial job-hopping theory is a grounded theory that explains how and why Millennials decide to job-hop or stay with their current employer. The study findings indict the process that Millennials use to decide to job-hop when certain hygiene and motivator factors deteriorate below an unacceptable level. When the

Millennials' externals factors result in dissatisfaction, and their internals factors result in no satisfaction, the Millennials Job-hop. When the Millennial external factors are comparable to no dissatisfaction, and the internal factors are comparable to satisfaction, the decision-making process leads to a decision not to job-hop.

Millennials expect competitive compensation, an enjoyable workplace that is engaging and productive. Therefore, corporate managers may benefit from reexamining their organizational policies, structures, informal processes, and rewards/perks that centers around the seven factors that influence the Millennials' decision to job-hop. Implementing the previous suggestions have the potential to create a positive social change for the individuals, their families, organizations, as well as, the U.S. economy. There is still a need for additional research on the topic of Millennials job-hopping.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

Introductory Questions

1. Do you have any questions for me before we begin?

Initial Questions

1. Can you please share with me the events leading up to your decision to leave your former employer?

2. What happened next? (probing question)

3. What factors aside from the mention events influenced your decision to quit your former job?

4. What do you believe your former employer could have done to change your decision to leave the job*?*

Closing Statement/Debriefing: I want to thank you, that concludes this interview. Just as a reminder your confidentiality will be maintained. The purpose of the study is to capture the Millennial's perspective on job-hopping. I may have to contact you again for follow-up questions and to ensure that my interpretation of your answers aligns with your intent. Will that be ok? Best of luck in all your future endeavors and thanks again, I really appreciate you taking out some time in your day to help me with my study. Would you like to receive a summary of my study findings?

Appendix B: Demographic Questionnaire

Contact and Qualifying Information

1) **Please provide the following contact information:**

First and Last Name: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip Code: _____

Phone Number: _____

Email Address: _____

2) **Prefer method of contacted?** ☐ Mail ☐ Phone ☐ Email

3) **How many years did you work for your previous employer?**

☐ Less than 1 year - ☐ 1-3 years - ☐ 5-10 years

4) **Date you change jobs:** _____

5) **How long have your work for your present employer?** _____

Basic Information

6) **Year of birth (4 digits):** _____ **Age:** _____

7) **Gender:** ☐ Female ☐ Male

8) **Education Level**

☐ GED ☐ High School ☐ Some/Assoc College ☐ 4yr Degree ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate

9) **Marital Status:**

☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Living together ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed

10) **Racial/Ethnic Identity:**

☐ American Indian or Alaskan Native

☐ Asian

☐ Black or African-American

☐ Latino or Hispanic

☐ Native Hawaiian or another Pacific Islander

☐ White/Caucasian

☐ From multiple races

11) In what industry is my current or previous job? Please select as many as apply.

□ Advertising & Marketing

□ Agriculture, Farming, Fishing, & Forestry

□ Airlines & Aerospace (including Defense)

□ Automotive

□ Broadcasting

□ Business Support, Information, & Logistics

□ Construction & Machinery

□ Education

□ Entertainment, Recreation, & Arts

□ Finance, Insurance, & Financial Services

□ Food & Beverages & Hospitality

□ Government & Public Administration

□ Health Care & Pharmaceuticals

□ Manufacturing

□ Mining

□ Military

□ Nonprofit

□ Publishing

□ Religious

□ Retail, Sales, and Consumer Products

□ Real Estate

□ Science

□ Social Services

□ Technology, Internet, and Electronics

□ Telecommunications

□ Transportation

□ Utilities, Energy, and Extraction

□ Other (Please Specify):

_____