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Retention Strategies for Millennial Long-Haul Truck Drivers

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Walden University
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Abstract

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MBA, Southwest Texas State University, 1999

MS, University of Texas at Austin, 1990

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Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

A persistent truck driver shortage and high driver turnover at common carriers limit the effectiveness of some U.S. supply chains. Most driver vacancies result from job hopping, especially among younger drivers. A multiple case study was conducted to explore strategies that some leaders of U.S. common carriers have used to retain millennial-age long-haul truck drivers. Data sources consisted of semistructured, in-person and phone/videoconference interviews; participant observations; and company documents. The sample population was 9 leaders from 6 different common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States who successfully retained millennial long-haul drivers. The conceptual framework was person–organization fit theory. Data were compiled and organized, disassembled into fragments, reassembled into a sequence of groups, and interpreted for meaning. Methodological triangulation and member checking were used to validate the trustworthiness of those interpretations. Five major themes emerged from data analysis: strategic recruiting, competitive compensation, limiting driver time away from home, facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation. Potentially, carrier leaders can use the lessons learned from this research to reduce driver turnover rates and operating costs and to improve freight reliability for U.S. supply chains. The implications for positive social change include the potential to lower freight costs to shippers and consumers, improve job satisfaction for long-haul drivers, and improve highway safety for truck drivers and motorists.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my Redeemer, who has provided for me and sustained me to reach yet another major milestone in my life. Great is Thy faithfulness!

It is also dedicated to my dad, Clinton Washington, Sr., who has always been my hero and who always made me believe I could do anything. I also dedicate this work to my mom, Nancy Washington, who is a constant source of encouragement to me. I hope you both are as proud of me as I am of you.

This work is also dedicated to all my family members, but especially my siblings (Ray, Clinton Jr., David, Beverly, Charles, Jerrie, Evelyn, Sam, Rosie, Sandera, and Calvin) who have been my personal cheering squad. This work is in memory of my sisters Bessie and Patricia, my dear friend Dr. Anthony Threets, and my best friend Clarence Hulett, all of whom I know would have been so incredibly proud and happy for me.

Finally, this work is dedicated to every child who started out in poverty, to those who are or will be the first generation in their families to be college-educated, and to those with enough faith to dare to dream bigger. You can do it, too!

Acknowledgments

I thank God for providing me the time, aptitude, tenacity, and finances to complete this course of study. I thank my chair, Dr. Edgar Jordan, for his help and guidance in shaping my ideas into a useful contribution to scholarly business literature. I thank the other members of my committee, Dr. Susan Fan and Dr. Jorge Gaytan, for their insights and encouragement while completing the study. I also thank the DBA Program Director, Dr. Susan Davis, for her vision and leadership of the program.

I extend a heartfelt thanks to my parents, siblings, and my extended family for your encouragement, prayers, and understanding during the many long days of study to complete this program. I especially thank my brother Sam who introduced me to Walden, and my brother Calvin and sister Evelyn who listened patiently for countless hours to my fretting as I progressed through the program. I thank my long-time and dearest friends, Rev. Herron Wilson and Dr. Keith Miller, who never express anything less than absolute confidence in my abilities. I thank my former educators, especially those at Tougaloo College and Humphreys County High School, who instilled in me a standard of academic excellence. Finally, I thank my church members at Adventist Church of The Woodlands; my coworkers; my friends Cheryl Thomas, Carolyn McKinney, and Faye Pleasant; and numerous other friends who supported, encouraged, and prayed for me throughout the program.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

In this study, I explored strategies that common carrier leaders have used to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. Voluntary employee turnover is a problem that many common carrier leaders face, and the problem is particularly prevalent among younger truck drivers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). To meet growing demand from their customers, common carrier leaders need effective strategies to retain truck drivers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). Some common carrier leaders have implemented strategies that have been successful for retaining millennial truck drivers. Yet, other common carrier leaders do not have effective strategies to retain younger truck drivers and could benefit from additional research on the problem.

Background of the Problem

In the U.S. trucking industry, a familiar adage is, “If you bought it and you can touch it, it probably came on a truck” (Costello, 2013; LeMay, Johnson, Williams, & Garver, 2013). Trucks account for at least one segment of nearly all U.S. freight movements (Costello, 2013). According to the American Trucking Association (2015), trucking was the primary freight mode for 9.96 billion tons (68.8%) of domestic U.S. freight in 2014. Common carriers move about half of all U.S. truck shipments (Costello, 2013).

Despite growing freight demand, U.S. common carrier owners are experiencing constrained business growth due to an increasing shortage of qualified truck drivers (Mittal, Udayakumar, Raghuram, & Bajaj, 2018). Of common carriers surveyed in 2012, 88% reported that they could not find enough qualified truck drivers (American Trucking

Association, 2014). Moreover, carrier leaders do not expect the advent of self-driving trucks to alleviate the driver shortage substantially within the next decade (Richardson, Doubek, Kuhn, & Stumpf, 2017). Based on first quarter 2018 data, the annualized turnover rate for large truckload carriers is 94%, up from 74% based on 2017 first quarter data (American Trucking Association, 2018b). Because about 75% of driver vacancies result from job hopping, especially among younger drivers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014), leaders' ability to retain younger long-haul drivers has become an important issue for business growth and sustainability for U.S. common carriers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). However, some leaders of U.S. common carriers lack effective strategies to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers and could benefit from additional research on the problem.

Problem Statement

A persistent truck driver shortage and turnover occurs in common carriers, limiting the effectiveness of some U.S. supply chains (Saunders, Bell, & Sawhney, 2015). Carrier leaders incur costs between $20,000 and $27,000 to hire and train a replacement driver (Nadler & Kros, 2018). The general business problem is that some leaders of U.S. common carriers lack effective strategies to retain truck drivers. The specific business problem is that some leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States lack strategies to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies that some leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively. The research population consisted of nine common carrier leaders who had successfully retained millennial long-haul drivers. The participating leaders were employees of common carriers operating in the southwestern region of the United States, with a minimum of 50 employees. The implications for positive social change include the potential to improve reliability in the flow of commercial goods by ensuring that common carrier leaders have enough long-haul drivers to meet their customers' shipment requirements, to lower freight costs to shippers and consumers, and to improve job satisfaction for long-haul drivers. Because truck driver turnover can also impact carrier safety (Miller, Saldanha, Rungtusanatham, & Knemeyer, 2017), study findings may also make a contribution to positive social change by helping carrier leaders to improve their company's safety performance, making U.S. roadways safer for truck drivers and motorists.

Nature of the Study

I used qualitative methodology and a case-study research design for this study. Researchers use qualitative methodology to explore a phenomenon in order to understand what, why, or how a phenomenon occurred (Yilmaz, 2013). I believe that qualitative research was an appropriate choice for my study, which had as its focus better understanding what strategies common carrier leaders use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. Quantitative research is appropriate for examining the differences or relationships among independent variables and dependent variables (Yilmaz, 2013). Mixed-methods research includes qualitative and quantitative methods (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Mixed methods is useful when neither qualitative or quantitative methods alone are suitable to answer the research question or when the researcher needs the findings of one study method to inform the research design of the other (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Because my intent was not to examine or test relationships among variables, I did not select quantitative or mixed-methods research methodologies for my study.

There are five basic research designs within qualitative methodology: case study, phenomenology, narrative, ethnography, and grounded theory (Lewis, 2015). Ethnography, narrative, and grounded theory usually involve the researcher spending long periods of time with the research subjects to explore, observe, and analyze their lived experiences or cultures (Lewis, 2015). Because my desire was not to spend long periods of time with the research subjects to explore and observe their lived experiences, I did not select ethnography, narrative, or grounded theory as my research design.

Researchers use case-study and phenomenology designs to facilitate in-depth exploration of the personal lived experiences of multiple subjects in a relatively short research period (Yazan, 2015; Yilmaz, 2013). Phenomenology is an appropriate design when researchers seek to identify and explore the common meanings for several subjects who share the same experience (Yilmaz, 2103). Because my intent was not to explore common meanings of participants' lived experience, I did not select a phenomenological design.

Researchers use a case-study design to gain in-depth understanding of a single subject or to explore a concept using a small number of subjects as examples of the concept (Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; Yazan, 2015). A case-study research design was appropriate for my study because I sought to gain an in-depth understanding of the strategies common carrier leaders use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively. In addition, I included a small number of common carriers in my analysis.

Research Question

What strategies do leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively?

Interview Questions

1. What specific strategies has your company used to retain millennial long-haul drivers?
2. How did you decide which strategies to use for retaining millennial long-haul drivers?
3. How has your organization changed its policies/practices to facilitate retention of millennial long-haul drivers?
4. What barriers to implementing the strategies to retain millennial long-haul drivers did you encounter?
5. How did you address barriers to implementing the strategies to retain millennial long-haul drivers?

6. How did you assess the effectiveness of the strategies you used for retaining millennial long-haul drivers?
7. What additional information regarding your strategies to retain millennial long-haul drivers do you want to share?

Conceptual Framework

Person–organization fit (PO fit) theory, which was proposed by Chatman in 1989, served as the conceptual framework for my study. Chatman (1989) suggested that PO fit exists when there is a good match between the characteristics of the job and the expectations of the employee. Researchers have related PO fit to employee job satisfaction (Chatman, 1989; Chen, Sparrow, & Cooper, 2016). Kristof (1996) further stated that PO fit is directly related to employee retention. Other researchers employed PO fit theory to explain the importance of pay and work-life balance (Firfiray & Mayo, 2016) and a desire for social impact through work (Klimkiewicz & Oltra, 2017) as factors in millennials' job selections. Transportation experts have reported that turnover among truck drivers is primarily due to drivers job hopping among existing carriers, as compared to leaving the driving profession (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014). Thus, PO fit theory is a more applicable conceptual framework than person-vocation fit (Marcus & Wagner, 2015) for a study of millennial truck driver retention.

Researchers can assess PO fit from the perspective of the organization or the person. However, to achieve workforce stability, both the organization and person must perceive good PO fit (Kristof, 1996). In my study, I explored retention strategies that demonstrate how carrier leaders assimilated millennial long-haul drivers to fit the carrier's existing organizational culture. I also explored strategies that involve carriers changing elements of their organizational culture, such as pay, work schedules, and employee-manager dynamics, to better fit the preferences of millennial long-haul drivers.

Operational Definitions

Common carriers: Trucking companies whose primary business is hauling freight for other companies (Costello, 2013). Some researchers also refer to common carriers as for-hire carriers (Saunders et al., 2015).

Job hopping: A phenomenon in which an employee leaves his or her current firm and takes a comparable job at another firm within the following year (Gao, Luo, & Tang, 2015).

Line-haul: Truck shipments along an established, recurring route such as between carrier terminals. Line haul drivers typically do not load or unload freight manually (Del Mistro & Behrens, 2015).

Long-haul: Truck shipments of over 1,000 miles, which result in drivers being away from home for more than 3 consecutive days (Costello, 2013).

Millennials: The generation born from 1980 to 2000 (Campione, 2014).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions are considerations that are critical for the relevance of a study, but that the researcher takes for granted without proof (Schoenung & Dikova, 2016). I made four primary assumptions for my study. First, I assumed that the common carrier leaders selected for my case study had strategies in place to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. Second, I assumed that the selected common carriers were representative of other common carriers in the target population. Third, I assumed that the common carrier leaders I interviewed provided truthful responses about their experiences within their respective companies. Finally, I assumed that organizational leaders had retained millennial drivers whom they perceived to fit their organizational needs.

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses in a study that determine the credibility and generalizability of the study conclusions (Pyrczak, 2016). Some limitations of my study were the small number of common carriers selected for the case study, the selection of subjects within the carrier organizations, the use of interviewing as a data collection technique, and the potential for researcher bias during data analysis. The geographic area of the study was also a limitation. The economy in the southwestern region of the United States has a strong oil/gas and petrochemical industry (Galvao, Gharehgozli, & Mileski, 2018) that could constitute a special condition associated with additional driver certification requirements for hazardous material handling, increased safety concerns, and higher driver pay for the common carriers that have operations in this geographic area.

Delimitations

Delimitations are the characteristics by which a researcher limits the scope and defines the boundaries of a study (Pan, 2016). A delimitation of my study was that I focused on retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers. Furthermore, I focused my study on retention strategies, rather than recruiting strategies. I explored retention strategies targeting millennial employees and excluded retention strategies specifically targeting other age groups. Finally, I focused on millennial long-haul drivers and excluded millennial employees working in other roles in carrier organizations. The target population for the case study was leaders of common carriers that have operations in the southwestern region of the United States and that have at least 50 employees. Only leaders within the case-study organizations participated in the study; I did not collect data directly from drivers. The time frame of the study was 2018.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

Based on its effect on virtually all other industry sectors, the trucking industry is a vital sector of the U.S. economy (Costello, 2013). Despite growing freight demand, U.S. common carrier leaders are experiencing constrained business growth due to lack of availability of qualified truck drivers (Mittal et al., 2018). The annualized driver turnover rate for large trucking companies in the United States is nearly 95%, resulting in estimated yearly costs of between $3 billion and $5 billion to the industry (American Trucking Association, 2018b). Carrier leaders pay between $20,000 and $27,000 to hire and train a replacement driver (Nadler & Kros, 2018). About 75% of driver vacancies result from job hopping among existing drivers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014). Turnover rates are especially high among drivers age 24 to 35 (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). Given the importance of trucking to the U.S. supply chains and the potential cost savings associated with improved driver retention, common carriers leaders can benefit from implementing effective retention strategies for millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Several researchers have addressed retention of long-haul drivers (Schulz, Luthans, & Messersmith, 2014; Sersland & Nataraajan, 2015; Williams, Thomas & Liao-Troth, 2017). Other researchers have explored the characteristics of millennial employees (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015) and the factors that influence intention to quit among millennial employees in other vocations (Campione, 2014; Ertas, 2015). By conducting the current research, I added potential value to the trucking industry by providing common carrier leaders with trucking industry examples of proven strategies for retaining millennial long-haul truck drivers. Common carrier leaders may be able to reduce driver turnover rates and operating costs, such as driver recruiting and training costs, by implementing effective retention strategies. If common carrier leaders pass a portion of the operating savings on to their customers, shippers could pay lower transportation costs, which may ultimately result in consumers paying less for goods.

Implications for Social Change

Implementation of the strategies identified in this study may contribute to positive social change by improving job satisfaction and retention for long-haul truck drivers. When trucking company leaders can retain a sufficient number of long-haul drivers to meet their customers' shipping needs, they may be able to improve freight reliability for U.S. supply chains (Mittal et al., 2018). Truck driver turnover can also impact carrier safety (Miller et al., 2017). Thus, study findings may also make a contribution to positive social change by helping carrier leaders to improve their company's safety performance, making U.S. roadways safer for truck drivers and motorists.

Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

A researcher can add value to scholarly work by constructing a well-organized literature review to provide a clear, updated overview and analysis of the literature relevant to a specific topic (Wee & Bannister, 2016). The purpose of my research was to explore strategies that common carrier leaders have used to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. For this study, I used the conceptual framework of PO fit as the lens for explaining why the strategies some common carriers have used have been successful for retaining millennial long-haul truck drivers. In this section, I review the scholarly literature regarding PO fit as a conceptual framework for employee retention discussions. Because the literature is scant regarding the application of PO fit for discussions of retention of millennial truck drivers specifically, I reviewed the literature regarding several component themes related to my specific topic. The main themes of this literature review include the (a) tenets of PO fit theory, (b) needs of long-haul common carriers, (c) needs of long-haul truck drivers, (d) needs of millennial employees, (e) retention strategies that leaders have used to retain truck drivers of all ages, and (f) retention strategies that leaders in other industries have used to retain millennial employees.

Literature Search Strategy

I compiled 110 articles for this literature review. Mostly, I used Google Scholar® to search for articles relevant to my study. I employed the reference chaining technique to find additional articles. Reference chaining refers to the process of searching the references in a scholarly article to identify additional relevant references (Saetes, Hynes, McGuire, & Caes, 2017). I also searched management and business databases such as

Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Complete, and ProQuest Central, which I accessed via the Walden University Library. I searched using combinations of the following key words: *person–organization fit*, *retention*, *turnover*, *fit theory*, *truck driver*, *long-haul*, *millennial*, and *Generation Y*. For the literature review section, 99 of 110 (90%) articles I reviewed are peer-reviewed, including five doctoral dissertations. Ninety-seven (88%) of the articles in the literature review section have a publication date between 2014 and 2018. For the entire study, 218 of the 239 (91%) total articles I included are peer-reviewed. Two hundred thirteen (89%) of the total articles in the study have a publication date between 2014 and 2018.

Person–organization Fit Theory

PO fit is part a broader concept of person-environment fit that involves an employee's compatibility with multiple aspects of the work environment (Boon & Biron, 2016). Researchers have operationalized *fit* as a state of congruence between individual and organizational characteristics (Kristof, 1996). Person-environment fit can include various levels of fit at the person–organization, person-group, or person-vocation levels. Although the various levels of person-environment fit are sometimes interrelated, the researcher must choose the appropriate level at which to examine fit based primarily on a preliminary assumption for expecting fit to be relevant at that particular level (Kristof, 1996). I chose to examine fit at the person–organization level to explain why the strategies used by nine leaders at six common carriers have been successful for retaining millennial long-haul truck drivers. A strong rationale supported the decision that PO fit theory was more applicable than person-vocation fit, person-group fit, or contract theory as a conceptual framework for a study of millennial long-haul truck driver retention.

Chatman (1989) provided the seminal conceptualization of a PO fit model to explore the compatibility of people (not just their knowledge, skills, and abilities) within the context of an organization (not just an isolated job). In the seminal conceptualization, Chatman extended the person-environment model to define PO fit as a model to explain how the match between organizational values and an employee's personal characteristics relate to employee satisfaction. Several researchers have applied PO fit to explain employee perceptions of factors such as job satisfaction related to employee retention (Chen et al., 2016; Werner, Kuiate, Noland, & Francia, 2015). Other researchers have applied PO fit to studies on employee intention to quit (Memon, Salleh, Baharom, & Harun, 2014; Peng, Lee, & Tseng, 2014). Chatman (1989) was among the first to apply PO fit theory as a conceptual framework for employee retention directly. Scholars have used PO fit as a framework for understanding employees' perceived work experiences from initial recruitment (Firfiray & Mayo, 2016; Swider, Zimmerman, & Barrick, 2015) to long-term employment (Boon & Biron, 2016; Jutras & Mathieu, 2016). Other scholars proffered outcomes such as work engagement (Peng et al., 2014) or social exchange (Memon, Salleh, & Baharom, 2015) as moderating effects to PO fit theory to explain employee turnover.

Autry and Daugherty (2003) were the first to study PO fit among operations-level transportation employees. These researchers used a more sophisticated conceptual model to account for PO fit using multiple dimensions of personal attitudes and organizational culture (Autry & Daugherty, 2003). Autry and Daugherty also appear to be the first to study coping mechanisms that warehouse personnel used when the employees experienced poor PO fit. Rani, Rani, Samuel, and Samuel (2016) were among the first to apply PO fit theory as a conceptual framework for retention of millennial employees. The extensive use of PO fit as a conceptual framework for employee turnover and retention studies makes PO fit a good candidate for a study on millennial long-haul truck driver retention.

Conceptualizations. Scholars have conceptualized PO fit in two basic ways: supplementary-complementary and needs-supplies. Kristof (1996) used the supplementary-complementary conceptualization to describe how well the employee's attributes either supplement or complement those of the organization. Supplementary fit exists when the characteristics such as values, personality, goals, and attitudes of an employee are similar to the characteristics such as organizational culture, value, norms, and goals of the organization (Lau, McLean, Hsu, & Lien, 2017). The basis of supplementary fit is that individuals prefer to work in environments where leaders reinforce employees' self-concepts (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Employees with high supplementary PO fit are more likely to match their work performance behaviors with organizational expectations (Gilbert, Myrtle, & Sohi, 2015). As a result, employees are more likely to perceive a greater sense of accomplishment in their work, obtain more positive feedback from supervisors, and earn more tangible rewards such as pay raises, promotions, and increased responsibility compared to employees with lower levels of supplementary PO fit (Mete, Sökmen, & Biyik, 2016). Organizational leaders have used tangible rewards to reinforce leader-desired values and behaviors from employees. Researchers have found positive correlations between supplementary PO fit and organizational outcomes such as employee satisfaction and organizational commitment (Chen et al., 2016; Southcombe, Fulop, Carter, & Cavanagh, 2015; Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

Complementary fit exists when the employee's characteristics, although different from the organization's existing characteristics, match the needs of the organization by making up for a deficiency in the organization's characteristics profile (Kristof, 1996). For example, a technical expert may exhibit complementary fit with an organization if the expert's knowledge, skills, and abilities fill a void in the existing knowledge, skills, and abilities within the organization. Researchers most often use the supplementary-complementary fit conceptualization to explain PO fit for leaders, technical experts, and other professional-level roles within an organization (Mete et al., 2016; Southcombe et al., 2015; Swider et al., 2015; Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

Another way researchers have conceptualized PO fit is in terms of needs-supplies or demand-abilities of the work environment. Needs-supplies fit exists when the needs and preferences of the employee match the systems/structures that organizational leaders offer to provide tangible and intangible benefits to employees (Kristof, 1996). Relevant needs of the employee can include financial benefits, physical work setting, and psychological considerations such as rewarding work (Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016; Travaglianti, Babic, Pepermans, & Hansez, 2016). Similarly, demand-abilities fit exists when the employee's knowledge, skills and abilities match the demands of the organization (Özdemir & Ergun, 2015). For the purposes of this study, I generalized needs-supplies fit to include demands-abilities fit. Researchers have associated the needs-supplies conceptualization of PO fit theory with retention among nonprofessional employees (Autry & Daugherty, 2003; Chen et al., 2016; Han, Chiang, McConville, & Chiang, 2015). Autry and Daugherty (2003) applied the needs-supplies conceptualization in a study of PO fit among warehouse workers, while Chen et al.(2016) and Han et al. (2015) applied the needs-supplies conceptualization in studies of nonprofessional workers in catering and pharmaceutical companies, respectively.

Because not all researchers specify their underlying conceptualization of PO fit, readers often find it difficult to determine whether the researcher used supplementary-complementary or needs-supplies conceptualization as the basis for PO fit (Kristof, 1996). Moreover, it can be difficult to differentiate between the underlying conceptualizations of PO fit because the conceptualizations are potentially related (Kristof, 1996). For example, a researcher may operationalize an organization's collectivist value system based on a team-based compensation system that may or may not match an employee's need for achievement (Kristof, 1996). Kristof (1996) combined the conceptualizations of supplementary- complementary fit and needs-supplies fit into one model as shown in Figure 1. Kristof’s model illustrates that optimum PO fit exists when the employee and organizational leaders supply each other’s needs and the employee’s values supplement organizational characteristics (Kristof, 1996). In this study, I focused primarily on the needs-supplies conceptualization of PO fit theory.

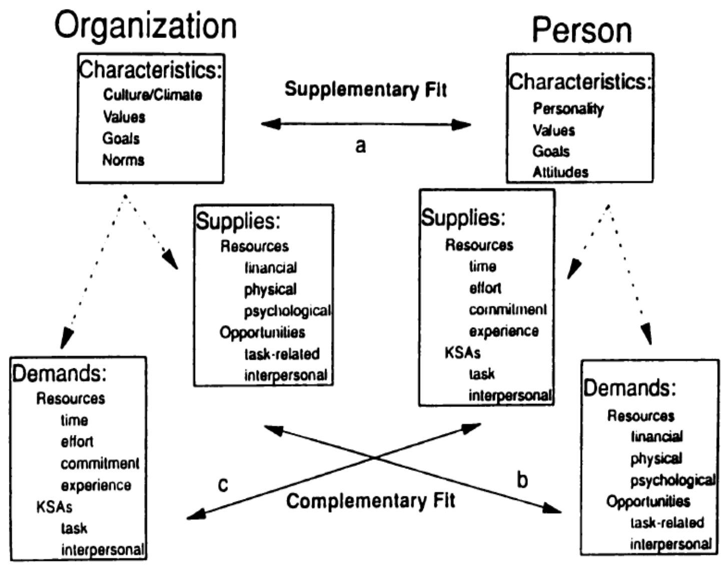

Figure 1. Conceptualizations of person–organization fit. From "Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications," by A. L. Kristof, 1996, *Personnel Psychology*, *49*, p. 4. Copyright 1996 by John Wiley and Sons. Reprinted with permission. (see Appendix A)

Appropriateness as conceptual framework for retention discussions.

Researchers have posited models to integrate multiple perspectives of PO fit. Westerman and Cyr (2004) use PO fit indirectly to predict employees' intention to remain with a company. Using a single data set, the researchers studied three aspects of PO fit called values congruence, personality congruence, and work environment congruence. For values congruence and personality congruence, the researchers supposed a supplementary conceptualization of PO fit would be desired; that is, employees would be more likely to remain with the organization if the employee's values and personality matched those of the organization (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). The researchers viewed work environment congruence using the needs-supplies conceptualization of PO fit. The researchers found that values congruence and work environment congruence were stronger predictors of intention to remain than personality congruence. The researchers proposed an integrative model (see Figure 2) to explain the indirect relationship between PO fit and employee intention to remain. However, other researchers warned against extending the validity of integrative models for turnover intention or intention to remain as predictors of actual turnover or actual retention. Cohen, Blake and Goodman (2016) concluded that managers tasked with improving retention would do better to focus on their organizations' unique demographic characteristics and specific management practices, rather than on survey results of employees' aggregate self-reported turnover intention rates.

Some researchers have posited that moderating factors exist for the relationship between PO fit and organizational commitment described by Westerman and Cyr (2004). For example, the relationship between PO fit and organizational commitment is weaker for employees with fewer comparable job alternatives (Oh et al., 2014; Rizwan, Arshad, Munir, Iqbal, & Hussain, 2014). Also, the relationship between fit and commitment could be moderated by cultural/geographical factors. For example, Oh et al. (2014) found that PO fit and organizational commitment were more closely linked for employees in North America versus East Asia or Europe. Oh et al. proffered that in collectivist cultures, such as in East Asia, employers value loyalty. The researchers observed that East Asian employees who reported lower PO fit exhibited high levels of organizational commitment and less turnover, presumably because the employees found it difficult to learn about other job opportunities (Oh et al., 2014).

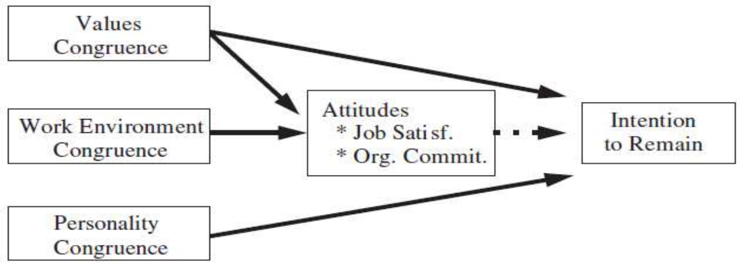

Figure 2. Relationship between three aspects of person–organization fit and employee retention. From "An Integrative Analysis of Person-Organization fit Theories" by J. W. Westerman and L. A. Cyr, 2004. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *12*, p. 253. Copyright 2004 by John Wiley and Sons. Reprinted with permission. (see Appendix B)

Fit perspective. PO fit theory can include assessments of compatibility from the perspectives of organizational leaders and/or employees (Chatman, 1989). Researchers can also assess PO fit as perceived fit or actual fit (Überschaer, Baum, Bietz, & Kabst, 2016). Most scholars have assessed PO fit from the employee perspective by directly querying employees about their perceived fit with the organization (Autry & Daugherty, 2003; Chen et al., 2016; Kristof, 1996; Lau et al., 2017). Using this assessment method, researchers assumed that good fit existed to the extent employees perceived it to exist, regardless of whether or not the individual shared similar or complementary characteristics to the organization (Überschaer, et al., 2016). Researchers have also assessed actual fit by querying both employees and organizational leaders as the voice of the organization in regard to their values and characteristics (Überschaer, et al., 2016). Then, the researchers compared employee responses with organizational leaders' responses (Han et al., 2015; Kristof, 1996). Few researchers have assessed PO fit based only on organizational leaders' perception of fit, in other words, using the assumption that good fit existed to the extent organizational leaders perceived it to exist. I found no studies where researchers explained employee retention based solely on organizational leaders' perception of PO fit.

Limitations of PO fit. Particularly when assessing actual fit, researchers point to the complexity of operationalizing organizational characteristics as a limitation for PO fit theory (Kristof, 1996). Researchers can define organizational characteristics by collecting data from organizational leaders or employees (Autry & Daugherty, 2003). Because organizational culture may change or may consist of multiple values and norms that organizational leaders may view differently, researchers may have difficulty identifying a singular set of organizational characteristics (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Moreover, employees and leaders may not perceive organizational values in the same way (Kristof, 1996). For example, employees may perceive organizational characteristics based primarily on the actions of their immediate supervisor or team, whereas organizational leaders may have a more holistic perception of organizational characteristics (Astakhova, 2016; Kristof-Brown, Seong, Degeest, Park, & Hong, 2014). To overcome the limitation of actual fit conceptualization, some researchers have opted to use perceived fit (Chen et al., 2016; Lau et al., 2017). However, measuring fit based on individual perceptions can have inherent limitations in determining the actual existence of fit (Kristof, 1996).

Researchers have examined PO fit as a static measurement in time (Boon & Biron, 2016). However, fit dynamics and individuals' perceptions of fit dynamics can change over time (Han et al., 2015). For example, an individual's traits, abilities, and motives may interact and change over time. Researchers can help establish the validity of PO fit theory through longitudinal rather than static studies (Chatman, 1989: Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014).

Rival Theories for the Conceptual Framework

Person-vocation fit. Holland (1959) introduced person-vocation fit as a model to explain how a person's occupational choices and outcomes primarily depend on the match between the person's occupational interests or goals and the person's actual occupation. Person-vocation fit is an extension of person-environment fit (de Jager, Kelliher, Peters, Blomme, & Sakamoto, 2016). Researchers have investigated person-vocation fit along six dimensions: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional (Marcus & Wagner, 2015). As with other types of person-environment fit, most researchers have found person-vocation fit to be inversely related to occupational outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, or turnover (Kristof, 1996; Lau et al., 2017). Because turnover among younger drivers is more the result of job hopping than drivers leaving the truck driving profession (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014), PO fit theory was a more applicable conceptual framework than person-vocation fit for a study on millennial truck driver retention.

Person-group fit. Ferris, Youngblood, and Yates (1985) introduced person-group fit to describe the match between individuals and their immediate co-workers. Individuals are more likely to report job satisfaction and intent to stay in groups where they perceive strong supplementary or complementary interpersonal relationships with their teammates (Seong, Kristof-Brown, Park, Hong, & Shin, 2015). Person-group fit is also an extension of person-environment fit. An inverse relationship exists between person-group fit and occupational outcomes such as job satisfaction and turnover (Kristof-Brown et al., 2014). Because long-haul truck drivers spend a substantial amount of time away from coworkers or leaders (Huang, Lee, McFadden, Rineer, & Robertson, 2017; McDonough et al., 2014), person-group fit was not an appropriate conceptual framework for retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Contract theory. Psychological contract theory is another conceptual framework researchers have used to explain employee retention (Festing & Schäfer, 2014; Gomel, 2015; Lub, Bal, Blomme, & Schalk, 2016). A psychological contract is not a transactional or written agreement; instead, the contract comprises an employee's perception of implicit and unstated obligations for the parties in an employment arrangement. Researchers have defined a psychological contract as an unwritten reciprocal agreement between an employee and employer (Karagonlar, Eisenberger, & Aselage, 2016; Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, & Chapman, 2015; Van den Heuvel, Schalk, & van Assen, 2015). The basis for the psychological contract is the employee's perception about what benefits and opportunities the employer has committed to the employee in exchange for the employee's work efforts. An employee's preferred terms for a psychological contract may change at different stages of the employee's career (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016).

Organizational leaders who succeed at meeting an employee's perception of the psychological contract are likely to be more successful at retaining the employee (Guchait, Cho, & Meurs, 2015). If the employee perceives a breach in the psychological contract, the employee may change his or her work attitude or behavior (Gray, 2018; Li, Wong, & Kim, 2016). Researchers have used breach of psychological contract to explain employee job dissatisfaction (Callea, Urbini, Ingusci, & Chirumbolo, 2016; Gray, 2018; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014), intention to quit (Guchait, et al. 2015), work performance (Kiazad, Seibert, & Kraimer, 2014), and actual turnover (Clinton & Guest, 2014). The type of perceived contract breach can be an important predictor of employee attitudes and behaviors (Gray, 2018; Van den Heuvel, et al., 2015).

Employees may perceive three types of breaches to psychological contracts: (a) intentional reneging by the employer in fulfilling its obligations, (b) failure of the employer caused by factors outside the employer's control, or (c) misunderstanding between the employee and employer regarding the contract elements (Van den Heuvel, et al., 2015). If the employee perceives intentional reneging by the employer, the employee may no longer trust the employer and may manifest negative work attitudes or poor performance over time (Gomel, 2015). If the employee perceives the contract breach to be the result of a misunderstanding or outside the employer's control, the employee may be less likely to manifest negative work attitudes (Karagonlar, et al., 2016).

An underlying problem with psychological contract theory is its reliance on a mechanism of trust between the employee and employer (Cheung, Wong, & Yuan, 2017; Vander Elst, De Cuyper, Baillien, Niesen, & De Witte, 2016). In a capitalistic environment, there is inherent tension between employees and employers. Organizational leaders face constant competitive pressure to reduce the cost of goods sold. Because labor is usually a major cost driver, employers may need to make decisions to downsize or negatively impact employee benefits (Lemke, Apostolopoulos, Hege, Wideman, & Sönmez, 2017). In the tension of a capitalistic environment, it is difficult for employers to maintain the trust of employees to meet a perceived obligation for employment stability (Cheung, et al., 2017; Redding & Witt, 2015). Similarly, psychological contract theory has limitations as a framework in temporary and part-time employment arrangements that may also be prevalent in a capitalistic environment (Callea et al., 2016). Finally, proponents of psychological contract theory presuppose an ostensibly equal, two-way exchange between organizational leaders and individual employees who freely construct their own perception of expectations and obligations as part of the psychological contract (Redding & Witt, 2015). However, through corporate values, advertising, and marketing, organizational leaders can often shape employee's perceptions of employee obligations and organizational inducements. In light of questions regarding the validity of psychological contract theory constructs and its applicability in a capitalistic environment, I selected PO fit as a potentially more appropriate conceptual framework for my study regarding retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers employed by common carriers.

Needs of Long-Haul Common Carriers

Trucking company leaders must optimize resource utilization and profits; however, doing so can be in conflict with drivers' interests. Some aspects of the long-haul drivers' job are associated with the vocation itself and do not vary significantly from one trucking company to another (Hamilton, 2018). Trucking company leaders have control over other factors that influence driver retention (Douglas & Swartz, 2016; Koç, Bektaş, Jabali, & Laporte, 2016; Williams, et al., 2017). In this section, I review trucking company considerations for driver retention and strategies that researchers and practitioners have recommended for retention of drivers of all generations.

Dubey and Gunasekaran (2015) used appreciative inquiry to develop a list of skills and characteristics needed from the ideal truck driver to facilitate sustainable transportation management, including driver retention. The list of desired skills and characteristics included maturity, physical and psychological endurance, technical understanding of engine diagnostics and traffic patterns, and good communication skills. The authors posited that trucking company leaders can provide training to better equip drivers to deal with driver discomforts such as time away from home and driver safety. Dubey and Gunasekaran conducted their study within the Indian trucking industry where trucking company owners typically employ fewer than seven drivers. It is unclear whether the authors' findings are generalizable to the United States where larger trucking companies are more prevalent. The authors generated their list of desired driver traits and characteristics by interviewing Indian law enforcement. Trucking company operations or human resources (HR) managers were not included in the study, so the researchers did not explore these leaders' perspectives regarding desired truck driver traits and skills.

Trucking company leaders need to optimize operating costs and profitability. For common carrier leaders, optimizing operating costs means optimizing utilization of fixed assets such as company-owned trucks and increasing the value per shipment, while minimizing variable labor costs such as truck driver headcount (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Long-haul routes may be valued based on the distance travelled, the weight hauled per vehicle, and the number of customers serviced (Melton & Ingalls, 2013; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). To improve truck utilization, carrier leaders often seek to coordinate long-haul shipments with the aim of keeping the truck loaded with maximum cargo as often as possible (Lieb & Lieb, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). This aim means that on a shipment originating in Texas and bound for New York, the carrier dispatcher will seek to contract with another customer(s) for moves from New York to Texas on dates that match the truck's return. Carrier leaders aim to minimize the number of trucks involved in each long-haul move in order to minimize the number of return matches that must be coordinated for maximum truck utilization (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). To optimize truck utilization, the carrier leader's goal is to contract shipments for the greatest distance away and to coordinate a return shipment in the area of the original destination (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Because travelling a greater distance away will likely result in more time away from home for drivers, carrier leaders' efforts to optimize truck utilization can conflict with drivers' desire for less time away from home (Lemke et al., 2017).

Similarly, to optimize operating costs, carrier leaders carefully control their truck driver headcount. Driver recruiting, training, and retention costs can range from $10,000 to $30,000 per driver hired (Zolfagharinia & Haughton, 2016). Regulations have affected carrier leaders' ability to minimize driver headcount hours (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014). To improve safety, the U.S. Department of Transportation Federal Motor Carrier Safety Administration (FMCSA) issued regulation in 2011 to control drivers' hours of service (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014).

Since 2011, drivers cannot work more than 14 consecutive hours and must take at least a 30-minute break every 8 hours (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014; Lemke et al., 2017). To comply with the hours-of-service limitations, carrier leaders may need to employ more drivers to cover the same amount of driving hours, resulting in lower driver utilization (Comerford, 2015). The 2011 FMCSA regulation also required trucking company leaders to assess driver fitness, including driver health and medical information, alcohol/drug use testing, and sleep-apnea evaluations (Costello & Suarez, 2015; Lemke et al., 2017). The increased regulation on driver fitness further thwarts carrier leaders' efforts to recruit and retain qualified drivers (Comerford, 2015; Douglas & Swartz, 2016). Finally, many carrier leaders do not pay drivers for rest hours or hours waiting in transit (Prockl & Sternberg, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Carrier leaders implemented this pay practice in efforts to optimize operating costs, but the practice can be in conflict with long-haul drivers' most frequently cited concerns regarding low wages and time away from home (Melton & Ingalls, 2013; Prockl & Sternberg, 2015; Rancort & Paquette, 2014).

Needs of Long-Haul Truck Drivers

Many truck drivers choose the profession because they perceive a degree of independence and freedom that comes from working autonomously (Levy, 2015; Williams et al., 2017). However, the truck driving profession is hard work and poses risks to truck drivers' health and safety (Apostolopoulos, Lemke, & Sönmez, 2014; Boyce, 2016; Lemke, Hege, Perko, Sonmez, & Apostolopoulos, 2015; Mansfield, 2014; Reiman et al., 2015). Drivers are more prone to remain with trucking companies where the drivers perceive offsetting benefits to the risks inherent to the profession itself (Boyce, 2016; El-Sakka, 2016). In the following paragraphs, I will review the factors truck drivers have reported as affecting retention, intent-to-quit, or job satisfaction.

In a mixed method study, Kemp, Kopp, and Kemp (2013) explored how emotional exhaustion and role stressors influenced driver turnover and driver intent-to-quit. Based on a survey of over 400 drivers, the researchers found that drivers reported lower intent-to-quit if the drivers perceived: (a) support from senior managers and dispatchers for comfortable equipment and a safe work environment, and (b) appropriate rewards and recognition for their service (Kemp et al., 2013). The researchers did not disclose what percentage of their survey respondents were long-haul truck drivers or what percentage of respondents were millennials.

Huang et al. (2015) examined the relationships between truck drivers' perceptions of the safety climate in their company and the independent variables of driver job satisfaction and turnover rates. The researchers based their finding on survey results of over 6,000 drivers employed by two U.S. carriers. The researchers found that a positive correlation existed between safety climate and driver job satisfaction. A negative correlation existed between safety climate and driver turnover rates. The authors did not disclose what percentage of the drivers surveyed were long-haul drivers. Long-haul drivers spend significantly less time with coworkers or management than do other drivers. Some researchers have defined long-haul drivers as "lone workers" that could be considered a separate sub-population as compared to short-haul or medium-haul drivers who have more frequent interactions with co-workers (Huang et al., 2017; McDonough et al., 2014). It is unclear whether the researchers' findings are generalizable to long-haul truck drivers. Swartz, Douglas, Roberts, and Overstreet (2017) also confirmed the importance of safety climate on driver intent to quit.

Large, Breitling, and Kramer (2014) examined the relationship between driver work conditions and driver job satisfaction. Time away from home, pay, attention from management, and interactions with the dispatcher were key drivers of driver job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Large et al., 2014). LeMay et al. (2013) also studied factors influencing driver turnover. LeMay et al. reported company reputation, recruiter, safety, and time home were significant factors influencing driver-intent-to-quit. In the study by LeMay et al., driver attitudes toward top management and dispatcher were not significantly related to driver intent-to-quit. LeMay et al. posited that software systems for route planning and scheduling buffered drivers to some extent from the decisions of top management and dispatchers. LeMay et al. focused their research on a single large truckload carrier. Their results regarding driver-intent-to-quit may not be generalizable to other carriers, especially smaller carriers with less technological sophistication for scheduling and route planning.

Other researchers have found that drivers report better retention for companies with strong management support (Kemp et al., 2013), good safety records (Kemp et al., 2013; Mittal et al., 2018) and the availability of latest technology, such as truck safety features or electronic monitoring systems (Levy, 2015). Increasingly, trucking company leaders are monitoring the location and behaviors of truck drivers using electronic systems designed to provide real-time data for shipment tracking (Levy, 2015). Levy

(2015) observed two key effects from carriers' expanded use of electronic monitoring systems. First, using the more accurate data, dispatchers can evaluate truckers' job performance with more precise metrics, and substantiate or refute truckers' accounts of their whereabouts and biophysical conditions (Levy, 2015). Some drivers may perceive this monitoring as intrusive. On the other hand, drivers can use electronic systems such as smart phones and GPS capability to maintain better relationships with coworkers and family members (Levy, 2015). Given this perceived benefit, drivers have been more accepting of the use of electronic monitoring systems (Levy, 2015). Levy did not comment on any correlation between driver age and acceptance of the use of electronic monitoring systems, so it was unclear whether younger drivers tended to perceive the use of electronic monitoring systems less negatively than older drivers.

In a quantitative study, Schulz et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between driver intent-to-quit and driver job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and psychological capital (PsyCap). *PsyCap* is a measurement of a person's positive psychological state as characterized by feelings of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience. The authors completed a field survey of 251 respondents using the abbreviated 12-item PsyCap questionnaire, as well as three-item questionnaires regarding job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to quit. The researchers found that PsyCap was a significant determinant of driver intent to quit (Schulz et al., 2014). Drivers reported lower intent to quit if trucking company leaders offered organizational structures that supported drivers' goal setting and pathways for goal achievement. Drivers also appreciated organizational structures where leaders encouraged organizational networking or gave feedback for driver learning and skill development (Schulz et al., 2014). The authors did not disclose the age or generation of their study participants.

Needs of Millennial Employees

In this sub-section, I review the perceived and reported work characteristics of millennial employees. I highlighted characteristic differences that researchers have reported for millennials as compared to employees of older generations. Researchers have different definitions regarding what age group constitutes the millennial generation. Depending upon the researcher, the millennial generation includes individuals born between 1980 and 1995 (Campione, 2014; McGinnis-Johnson & Ng, 2016) or between 1980 and 2000 (Campione, 2015). For the purpose of this study, I adopted Campione’s (2015) definition involving the wider span of birth years of 1980 to 2000 for the millennial generation.

Scholars’ observations of millennial behaviors can have both positive and negative connotations. For example, McGinnis-Johnson and Ng (2016) characterized millennials using negative connotations such as egoistic, self-absorbed, narcissistic, and entitled. Other scholars characterized millennials more positively as self-confident, independent, socially active, and valuing teamwork (Özçelik, 2015). Scholars and practitioners agree that millennials have a high need for recognition and prefer clear directions from supportive leaders (Campione, 2014; McGinnis-Johnson & Ng, 2016).

Some scholars and practitioners have attempted to characterize millennials, whereas other scholars have challenged such generalizations as largely stereotypical (Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015). Costanza and Finkelstein (2015) questioned the validity of generational stereotyping and cited a lack of credible theories to explain why people born in a certain range of years would have the same values or characteristics. Particularly, the researchers addressed the stereotype that millennials are socially conscious, but cynical narcissists who avoid hard work and still live with their parents. Costanza and Finkelstein proffered that generational stereotyping is popular because it enables practitioners to make quick judgments about people. The researchers warned that practitioners could face legal and organizational conflict when practitioners use generational stereotyping in the workplace.

Researchers have examined the work characteristics of the millennial generation (Campione, 2015; McGinnis-Johnson & Ng, 2016; Smith & Nichols, 2015). Smith and Nichols (2015) compiled a literature review of scholarly and trade journal articles regarding millennial work characteristics. Some researchers described millennials as confident, assertive, willing to forego social time to help an organization succeed, and having a strong sense of accountability for achieving results (McGinnis-Johnson & Ng, 2016). Other researchers summarized millennials’ work characteristics as team-oriented, comfortable with technology, family-oriented desiring greater work-life balance than previous generations, and more tolerant of diversity than previous generations (Naim & Lenkla, 2016). Older generations have complained that millennials feel entitled, are arrogant, impatient, and are overly service-focused (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Millennials’ desire for work-life balance may cause others to perceive them as lazy, selfish, and disloyal to the organization (Catano & Morrow Hines, 2016; Costanza & Finkelstein, 2015).

Nolan (2015) proffered that work-life balance, lack of meaning in their work, and mediocre benefits plans were the key sources of dissatisfaction for millennial employees. Özçelik (2015) posited that the millennial generation brings new characteristics to the workforce. Özçelik characterized millennials as self-confident, independent, socially active, and team-oriented. millennials also have a high need for recognition and prefer clear directions from supportive leaders (Özçelik, 2015). Naim and Lenkla (2016) concluded that millennial employees were risk-takers, prone to job hopping, and adept with technology and social media for immediate information exchange (Naim & Lenkla, 2016).

According to Ng, Schweitzer, and Lyons (2010), most millennials do not expect unrealistic salaries for their first job, but they place highest priority on advancement opportunities (Ng et al., 2010). Millennials find motivation in regular praise and recognition and they value workplace relationships (Ng et al., 2010). Working millennials placed more importance on compensation and less importance on interesting work, achievement, and good co-workers compared to millennials who had not yet started their careers (Kuron, Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015). In a phenomenological study, Linden (2015) explored job expectations of 20 millennial-aged college graduates working in the Baltimore, MD-Washington, D.C. area. Linden found that the millennials valued work-life flexibility, an engaging work environment, recognition of performance, and opportunities to develop professional skills.

Other researchers have focused on how millennials differ from previous generations regarding work values, attitudes, and career expectations (Ng et al., 2010).

Compared to previous generations, millennials strongly value material/monetary rewards, uphold a lower level of altruism, and exhibit less concern for others versus prior generations (Anderson, Baur, Griffith, & Buckley, 2017). In a quantitative research study, Ertas (2015) used chi-square testing to show that millennial federal employees were more likely to have intent to quit versus employees from other age groups. However, the factors Ertas cited for intent to quit were no different for millennials versus federal employees of other generations. These factors included job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, creativity, professional development, promotion based on merit, and having a good work group (Ertas, 2015). Compared to previous generations, millennials were not as interested in long-term employment commitments and valued work-life balance (Ng et al., 2010).

Cunningham (2016) summarized articles in which researchers compared the rate of job change for millennials versus previous generations. Based on data collected in 2010 and 2012, millennials aged 25 to 34 had the same or slightly longer tenure than Baby Boomers and Generation X employees when they were age 25-34. Cunningham explained that millennials, because of heavy student loan debt, may take more temporary jobs than previous generations at that age. Cunningham noted, however, that millennials were more risk-averse to leave their current job. Cunningham suggested that employers could retain millennials more readily if employers offered benefit plans that helped millennials to repay or avoid student loan debt or helped them to purchase homes. millennials were also less likely to leave jobs that offered autonomy, flexible work schedules, meaningfulness, and opportunities for advanced training or promotion.

Retention Strategies for Truck Drivers

Trucking company leaders recognize retention of millennial drivers as a critical factor for organizational sustainability (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). Scholars have not published much research specific to retention of millennial truck drivers. In the next sub-sections, I review strategies that researchers and practitioners have recommended for retention of drivers of all generations. I also review strategies that researchers and practitioners have recommended for retention of millennial employees in other industries.

During the truck driver shortages of the late 1990’s and early 2000’s, trucking company leaders used several strategies to address driver turnover. These strategies included higher salaries, safe driver bonuses, easier availability of driver training programs, profit-sharing, and schedule changes to reduce driver time away from home (Min & Emam, 2003). To address the current driver shortage, trucking company leaders have employed many of the same strategies (Cole, 2018). Comerford (2015) profiled retention strategies used by Sherwin Williams leaders to recruit and retain younger truck drivers. Sherwin Williams leaders’ strategies for retaining younger drivers included offering higher wages, changing work schedules and routes to allow drivers to be home on more weekends, and allowing drivers to give input on truck design before major corporate truck purchases. Sherwin Williams leaders managed the company’s own private truck fleet, but the retention strategies they used potentially could be applicable for common carriers also.

Nelson (2015) provided another perspective of the truck driver shortage and truck driver retention. Based on a quantitative survey of over 400 truckload and less-than-truckload drivers in the mid-western United States, Nelson contended that truck driver turnover was the result primarily of driver dissatisfaction over perceived low wages. Nelson did not mention time away from home or quality of life as factors for driver job satisfaction or intent-to-quit. Nelson argued that trucking company leaders could improve driver retention primarily by offering increased wages and he called for a national minimum wage for truck drivers. Maloni, Campbell, Gligor, Scherrer, and Boyd (2017) concurred that pay is a primary extrinsic need for truck drivers. Carrier leaders can impact driver turnover in a positive way by meeting drivers' extrinsic needs (Maloni et al., 2017).

To improve job satisfaction and reduce turnover among long-haul drivers, trucking company owners are looking for ways to allow long-haul drivers more consistent rest time. Rancourt and Paquette (2014) proposed a routing and scheduling algorithm aimed at optimizing driver work and rest hours against carrier operating costs and the number of vehicles the carrier had on the road. The researchers tested the algorithm on artificial and real-life data sets. In all instances, the researchers found a negative correlation between driver convenience and carrier operating costs for long-haul routes. In the algorithm, the researchers did not take into account increases in operating costs associated with turnover of dissatisfied drivers. Because the researchers used the algorithm on a number of artificial and real-life scenarios, the researchers' findings are deemed generalizable. The implication of this quantitative study is that trucking company leaders should expect higher operating costs with efforts to reduce turnover among long-haul drivers.

Sersland and Nataraajan (2015) conducted a qualitative study to investigate reasons for turnover among long-haul truck drivers in the southeastern United States. This article is unique in that the researchers explored drivers' perspectives on how a carrier's selection of end customers affected driver intent for turnover. Drivers reported greater feelings of loyalty to a carrier when they believed the carrier's sales team considered how new load agreements would affect both the company and drivers.

In a quantitative study, Williamson and Friswell (2013) found that long-haul drivers in Australia spend nearly one-third of their time waiting or doing other non-driving activities. Because many carriers leaders use a pay-per-mile compensation structure, non-driving activities can result in lower driver pay while increasing drivers' sense of fatigue (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Williamson and Friswell suggested that carrier leaders could lower driver fatigue and improve driver job satisfaction by working with customers to reduce their loading/unloading times and thereby minimize driver wait times. Carrier leaders should also consider offering drivers compensation structures that include payment for non-driving activities as a means to improve driver satisfaction (Williamson & Friswell, 2013).

Watson (2015) summarized comments from interviews with several trucking company leaders regarding the strategies they have used to recruit and retain drivers. Leaders of one trucking company found the turnover rate for drivers recruited through a partnership with a local community college was half the national average. Leaders of another company reported they improved driver appreciation by providing drivers accessibility to company executives via monthly teleconferences or podcasts. Leaders of the same company also promoted wellness programs and health screenings to help drivers combat unhealthy habits often inherent to long-haul driving. Leaders of a third company used technology to improve driver appreciation by installing video cameras in drivers' trucks to improve driver safety. Driver coaches could review the video tapes and provide feedback to drivers about unsafe driving behaviors. Drivers also reported that the video cameras could be useful to exonerate drivers in legal accusations.

Finally, some researchers have suggested that effective retention strategies are based on recruitment strategies (Khan, 2014; LeMay et al., 2013). Beilock and Capelle (1990) suggested that carrier leaders could improve driver retention by hiring fewer drivers with higher risk for occupational disloyalty. Khan (2014) explored the incorporation of immigrants into the trucking industry as a potential solution for the shortage and aging of U.S. truck drivers. Khan argued that immigrants might have fewer higher-paying employment opportunities and might be more likely to exhibit company loyalty if trucking company leaders offered paid driver training as a recruitment benefit. Khan recommended that trucking company leaders take action to facilitate increased acceptance of immigrants into the U.S. trucking industry. The researcher posited that the successful recruitment of immigrant truck drivers would require trucking company leaders provide access to English language training and remove legal barriers for the entry of foreign nationals into the trucking industry.

Retention Strategies for Millennial Employees

With the persisting problem of job hopping among millennial truck drivers, researchers have looked to other industries to determine what retention strategies have been successful for retaining millennial employees. In a white paper directed to HR practitioners from multiple industries, Nolan (2015) proffered that organizational leaders must address millennials' work-life balance concerns in order to retain these employees. Nolan suggested that organizational leaders could offer flexible work hours, telecommuting options, or additional vacation days as options to address millennials' work-life balance concerns. Nolan suggested internal branding as another strategy that organizational leaders can use to show millennial employees how their work responsibilities match an organizational mission of social change reportedly valued by millennials. Nolan suggested that managers should also provide opportunities for millennials to showcase their leadership skills by fostering programs such as reverse mentoring in which millennials can mentor older employees, especially in regards to technological capabilities.

Özçelik (2015) also recommended that organizational leaders learn to attract and retain millennial employees using internal branding. According to Özçelik, HR managers should incorporate internal branding concepts into their strategies for recruitment, retention, performance management, training and development of millennial employees. Human resource managers should address technology utilization, flexible work hours, and career advancement opportunities in their retention strategies for millennial employees. Naim and Lenkla (2016) further suggested that employers could better retain millennials by promoting technology and processes for improved knowledge sharing.

Tews, Michel, Xu, and Drost (2015) examined the relationship between four dimensions of workplace fun on millennial employees' feelings of job embeddedness. The four dimensions were fun activities, manager support for fun, coworker socializing, and fun job responsibilities. The researchers surveyed 234 millennial graduates of an eastern United States hospitality management school who were working in various industries in 2012. Survey participants rated fun job responsibilities as the most dominant predictor of embeddedness. The researchers observed a statistically significant but less dominant relationship between the other three dimensions of fun and millennials' feelings of job embeddedness.

Lub et al. (2016) found that millennials were less likely than other generations to quit a job if the workers perceived that employers had honored a psychological contract commitment to provide satisfying job content, career development opportunities, and an engaging social work atmosphere. Although beneficial organizational policies and rewards were also predictors of intent to quit for millennials, these factors were significantly weaker predictors for millennials than for Generation X workers. The researchers posited that the observation of weaker prediction for organizational policies and rewards to curb intent to quit was evidence of a sense of entitlement for millennials compared to other generations (Lub et al., 2016).

Transition

In Section 1, I explained my selection of PO fit as an appropriate conceptual framework for a study of retention strategies for millennial long-haul truck drivers. Based on this conceptual framework, common carrier leaders can successfully retain millennial truck drivers when the organizational needs of common carrier leaders match the needs of their millennial long-haul truck drivers. Because little scholarly work is available regarding retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers specifically, I reviewed the needs of long-haul truck drivers and of millennial employees generally. I also summarized scholarly literature regarding successful retention strategies reported for truck drivers of all generations and for millennial employees in other industries.

In Section 2, I review the purpose statement, the role of the researcher, my target population and participants, my proposed research method and design, sampling techniques, and data collection method. I also review measures I took to ensure ethical research. In Section 3, I present my research findings. Section 3 also includes a discussion of the application of my findings to professional practice, implications for social change, recommendations for action and future research, and my reflections of the doctoral study experience.

Section 2: The Project

In Section 2, I restate the purpose of my study and address the role of the researcher. Section 2 includes descriptions of my study plan components, including study participants, research method and design, population and sampling techniques, and the ethical steps I took to obtain Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval. Section 2 also contains a description of the data collection process, data collection instruments, data collection technique, data organization approach, data analysis, and the measures I used to ensure reliability and validity of data. For each decision in Section 2, I provide analysis with justification support from scholarly sources.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies that some leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively. The research population consisted of nine common carrier leaders who have successfully retained millennial long-haul drivers. The participating leaders were employees of common carriers operating in the southwestern region of the United States, with a minimum of 50 employees. The implications for positive social change include the potential to improve reliability in the flow of commercial goods by ensuring that common carrier leaders have enough long-haul drivers to meet their customers' shipment requirements, to lower freight costs to shippers and consumers, and to improve job satisfaction for long-haul drivers. Because truck driver turnover can also impact carrier safety (Miller et al., 2017), study findings may also make a contribution to positive social change by helping carrier leaders to improve their company's safety performance, making U.S. roadways safer for truck drivers and motorists.

Role of the Researcher

In qualitative research, the role of the researcher is to identify and minimize sources of bias during data collection and analysis (Zhao, Zhou, He, Cai, & Fu, 2014). Researchers use interviews, observations, and document review for data collection (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Onwuegbuzie, 2014). I conducted semistructured interviews, made observations, and reviewed organizational documents to collect data for the study. Data collectors must implement safeguards to limit potential bias based on their previous experiences (Noble & Smith, 2015; Onwuegbuzie & Byers, 2014). As the primary data collector, I conducted all participant interviews and did not use a proxy interviewer. I implemented safeguards such as member checking to limit the potential for personal bias based on my previous experiences and exposure to the research topic.

I am a former supply chain manager for my company, and I am aware of the general industry shortage of truck drivers from the perspective of a shipper. In the past, I have interacted with some common carrier leaders in the target population. The common carriers I used as case-study organizations are approved suppliers for my current employer. However, I was never in a decision-making role for carrier approvals or contracts between any common carriers and my employer.

Scholars have discussed the use of gatekeepers as an ethical, nonthreatening strategy for researchers to gain access and establish working relationships with participants (Green, 2014; Peticca-Harris, deGama, & Elias, 2016). To avoid any ethical concerns related to coercion of participants, I used existing contacts as gatekeepers to distribute a call for volunteers to participate in the study. To mitigate or avoid problems that a researcher might encounter when conducting research involving human subjects, I followed the ethical protocol outlined in the Belmont Report, which includes ethical standards for research involving human subjects (Grady & Fauci, 2016). In addition, I completed the National Institute of Health Protecting Human Research Participants course.

A researcher should consider how personal biases could influence data collection or data analysis and take steps to mitigate bias (Doody & Noonan, 2013). Raglan and Schulkin (2014) recommended that researchers use the technique of mindfulness to mitigate personal bias during data collection and analysis. During each interview, I used mindfulness to mitigate the potential for personal bias associated with differences in my own generation as compared to the subject's generation. Mindfulness is a practice in which a researcher exhibits presence, awareness, attention, and acceptance during data collection interactions (Dowse, van der Riet, & Keatinge, 2014). According to Collins and Cooper (2014), it is important for researchers to exhibit mindfulness in studies that focus on cultural differences such as age, sex, ethnicity, and economic status that include hierarchical power relationships. Although I am aware of industry research on the topic of truck driver retention (American Transportation Research Institute, 2014; American Trucking Association, 2014; American Trucking Association, 2015), I was mindful of the potential for personal bias while conducting interviews and observations with participants. I did not question participants with the aim of confirming or refuting any specific driver retention strategy.

In addition to mindfulness, I employed an interview protocol (see Appendix F) to minimize bias in data collection. According to Doody and Noonan (2013), a researcher can minimize bias by using a protocol for semistructured interviews. Using semistructured interviews, the researcher can ask the same questions of each participant to ensure consistent data collection, as well as incorporate clarifying questions to explore participant responses as needed (Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, & Campion, 2014). By asking clarifying questions, I gained further insight into participants' responses to validate meaning and mitigate projection of my personal biases on participant responses. Before analyzing interview responses, I used member checking to give subjects the opportunity to confirm that I depicted their responses accurately in my interview summaries. Researchers use member checking to add credibility and validity to a qualitative study (Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell, & Walter, 2016; Darawsheh, 2014; Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). To perform member checking, the researcher obtains feedback from participants about the validity of collected data and the researcher's interpretation of the data (Houghton et al., 2013; Lub, 2015). During my member checking, subjects confirmed that I depicted their responses accurately and requested no corrections to my initial interview summaries.

Participants

Yin (2018) stated that the research question should inform the researcher's selection of case study participants. A case-study researcher can select participants based on the researcher's knowledge about the population (Griffith, Morris, & Thakar, 2016; Polit & Hungler, 1997; Robinson, 2014). The researcher must define participant eligibility requirements clearly (Starr, 2014). Trucking company leaders have control over factors that influence driver retention and can impact driver retention through purposeful strategy implementation (Douglas & Swartz, 2016; Koç et al., 2016; Williams, et al., 2017). My case study participants included trucking company leaders with successful experiences in using strategies to retain millennial long-haul drivers. I did not interview long-haul drivers as part of the study.

Researchers can gain insight on truck driver issues by exploring the perspectives of leaders in HR, training, and operations functions (Murphy, Huang, Robertson, Jeffries, & Dainoff, 2018; Palinkas et al., 2015; Werner et al., 2015). Expert participants must have several years of experience in their industry and current role (McCrudden, Stenseth, & Strømsø, 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015; Werner et al., 2015). I invited leaders who met the following criteria: (a) had been in the transportation industry for at least 5 years; (b) had been in their current role for at least 2 years; and (c) had successful leadership responsibility in operations/logistics, driver training, or HR functions for their current organization. I targeted leaders in these functions because, based on my experience, these leaders are likely to have direct interaction with millennial drivers. These leaders are also likely to have specific knowledge of driver concerns and the impact of driver turnover on the carrier organization.

To gain access to participants, I solicited help from former contacts I made during my previous role as a supply chain manager for my company. Several researchers have highlighted the strategy of identifying gatekeepers who can help a researcher gain access to research participants (Høyland, Hollund, & Olsen, 2015; Peticca-Harris et al., 2016; Richard & Bélanger, 2018). I engaged my former supply chain contacts to act as gatekeepers by forwarding an e-mail invitation (see Appendix C) to potential participants in the operations, HR, or training functions within their respective organizations. I sent the invitation letter to gatekeepers for 12 common carriers in my target population. Nine leaders from a total of six different common carriers volunteered to participate in the study.

Scholars have discussed the importance of a researcher engaging gatekeepers as a strategy to establish a working relationship with participants (Green, 2014; Peticca-Harris et al., 2016; Richard & Bélanger, 2018). Gatekeepers can introduce the researcher to participants and help participants receive the researcher as an insider (Dempsey, Dowling, Larkin, & Murphy, 2016; Greene, 2014). To establish a working relationship with participants, I asked my former supply chain contacts to act as gatekeepers to forward potential participants an e-mail invitation (see Appendix C) that contained my contact information. Once interested participants had responded voluntarily indicating their interest in participating in the study, I made direct contact with the participant to introduce myself formally. I provided each potential participant with information about my background and study topic. During my initial conversation with each participant, I discussed the process for informed consent and provided participants with an informed consent form to sign as a prerequisite for participation.

To ensure that subjects have experience and are knowledgeable relevant to the research question, researchers can use purposive sampling to target specific interview participants within a selected case study organization (Cronin, 2014; Lewis, 2015; Yin, 2017). Purposive sampling is based on the assumption that a researcher will select participants based on the researcher's knowledge about the population (Polit & Hungler, 1997). To decide criteria for participant roles and experience levels to solicit for my study, I used my knowledge about the trucking industry and my experiences interacting with different functions within trucking companies. As mentioned earlier, because leaders in the operations/logistics, training, and HR functions would likely have direct interaction with drivers and more knowledge about effective retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers, I specifically solicited leaders of these functions in my participant invitation letter (see Appendix C). I solicited leaders with at least 5 years of experience in the transportation industry and at least 2 years of experience in their current roles.

Research Method and Design

Researchers recommend using the qualitative method to explore and analyze observable phenomena (Hayes, Bonner, & Douglas, 2013). When selecting a research design, the researcher should consider the nature of the research question, target population, data collection method, and analysis techniques used in the study (Lewis, 2015). I selected the qualitative method and a multiple case study research design for my study.

Research Method

There are three basic methodologies that social science researchers use: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Yilmaz, 2013). Researchers use qualitative methodology to explore a phenomenon for understanding what, why or how a phenomenon occurred (Yilmaz, 2013). The researcher can gain insight into the phenomenon by observing behaviors, reviewing documents, or asking open-ended interview questions and allowing participants to describe their experiences in their own words (Berger, 2015; Marshall et al., 2013). Researchers have used qualitative methodology to obtain rich data for analysis in studies on employee retention strategies (Dixon, 2016; Idris, 2014; Seitovirta, Partanen, Vehviläinen-Julkunen, & Kvist, 2015). I selected the qualitative method for my study to explore effective strategies common carrier leaders use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Quantitative or mixed methods were not appropriate for this study. Quantitative research is useful for measuring a phenomenon or for examining the differences, relationships, or correlations among independent variables and dependent variables (Inabinett, & Ballaro, 2014; Yilmaz, 2013; Zeitlin, Augsberger, Auerbach, & McGowan, 2014). Although it may be easier for a researcher to document validity and reliability of quantitative data, quantitative research is not as conducive for the researcher to obtain the rich description of human experiences afforded by qualitative research (Yardley & Bishop, 2015). Mixed methods research includes qualitative and quantitative methods. Mixed methods is useful when neither qualitative or quantitative methods alone are suitable to address the research question or when the researcher needs the findings of one study method to inform the research design of the other (McCusker, & Gunaydin, 2015). Because my intent was not to examine or test relationships among variables, neither quantitative nor mixed method research were appropriate for my study.

Research Design

There are five basic research designs within qualitative methodology: narrative, ethnography, grounded theory, case study, and phenomenology (Lewis, 2015). Researchers use a narrative design to extract an individual's recount and personal interpretation of a life event in the person's own words (Paschen & Ison, 2014). The goal of ethnographic research is to study a cultural group in their natural environment (Reich, 2015), whereas researchers use grounded theory design to develop a theory or explain an observed phenomenon based on data analysis (Goulding, 2017). Ethnography, narrative, and grounded theory usually involve the researcher spending long periods of time with the research subjects to explore and analyze their lived experiences or cultures (Lewis, 2015). Because my desire was not to spend long periods of time with the research subjects to explore and observe their lived experiences, I did not select ethnography, narrative, or grounded theory as my research design.

Case study and phenomenology are the designs that researchers use to facilitate in-depth exploration of the personal lived experiences of multiple subjects in a relatively short research period (Yilmaz, 2013). Researchers use phenomenology to identify and explore the common meanings for several subjects who share the same experience (Aarts et al., 2015). Because the intent of my study did not include exploring common meanings of participants' lived experience, a phenomenological design was not appropriate. I used a multiple case study design for my study. Researchers use case study to gain in-depth understanding of a single subject or to explore a concept using a small number of subjects as examples of the concept (Marshall et al., 2013). Researchers have used case study design to explore best practices within an industry (Antwi, Opoku, Seth, & Margaret, 2016; Sherman et al., 2014). A multiple case study research design was appropriate for my study because I sought to gain in-depth understanding of effective strategies leaders used to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. By studying multiple cases, the researcher can provide greater insight into best practices and help show data saturation (Cronin, 2014; Haddock-Millar, Sanyal, & Müller-Camen, 2016; Schadewaldt, McInnes, Hiller, & Gardner, 2014).

To confirm data saturation, a researcher must not identify new themes upon additional data collection from the sample population (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Morse, 2015a; Palinkas et al., 2015). I conducted nine interviews, seven observations, and reviewed company documents. To confirm data saturation, I compared reflective notes from my ninth interview with reflective notes from my first eight interviews and document reviews. No new themes emerged after the ninth interview, confirming data saturation.

Population and Sampling

The target population for this case study consisted of leaders of common carrier organizations with operations in the southwestern region of the United States and at least 50 employees. In addition to its convenience to my location as the researcher, I chose the southwestern region of the United States as the target geographical area for my study because of the area's robust trucking industry. As a major marine port city, Houston's trucking industry includes many long-haul common carriers operating through the area (Galvao et al., 2018; Stich, Griffith, & Webb, 2015). I limited my target population to carrier organizations with at least 50 employees. Businesses with fewer than 50 employees may have idiosyncrasies that warrant exclusion from comparisons with larger companies in research studies (Aragón-Amonarriz, Arredondo, & Iturrioz-Landart, 2017; Spence, 1999; Van Gils, Dibrell, Neubaum, & Craig, 2014). Qualitative researchers select organizational samples based on a type of convenience sampling (Landers & Behrend, 2015; Palinkas et al., 2015; Robinson, 2014). For convenience in selecting case study organizations and given my background in the petrochemical industry, I selected 12 common carriers with petrochemical transport as a service and were likely to have effective strategies for retention of long-haul millennial truck drivers. I solicited voluntary participation from leaders of these 12 common carriers, with a goal of obtaining a sample population of at least five participants.

In qualitative research, sampling involves the selection of representative subjects from a larger target population to address the research question (van Rijnsoever, 2017). To justify sample size, researchers can review sample size recommendations from qualitative methodologists (Marshall et al., 2013). A minimum sample size of five may be sufficient for a case study if the participants can provide relevant and substantive information to the research question (Malterud, Siersma, & Guassora, 2016; Molenberghs et al., 2014; Robinson, 2014). In a review of case study research, Sarker, Xiao, and Beaulieu, (2013) found that 75% of researchers used a sample size of five or less. The sample size must be sufficient for the researcher to demonstrate data saturation and perform meaningful data analysis (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016; Marshall et al., 2013; Sarker et al., 2013). I used a sample size of nine to increase the likelihood of data saturation and allow for comparisons among and within case study organizations.

Prior to conducting a case study, researchers can use purposive criterion sampling to identify participants with specific qualifications and experience whom the researcher believes can provide particularly meaningful insight related to the research topic (Cronin, 2014; Doody & Noonan, 2013; Gentles, Charles, Ploeg, & McKibbon, 2015; Robinson, 2014). By using purposive criterion sampling, researchers can gain rich insight and data saturation with a relatively small number of case study participants (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Gentles et al., 2015; Robinson, 2014).

Purposive sampling is based on the assumption that a researcher will select participants based on the researcher's knowledge about the population (Hasson, Keeney, & McKenna, 2000; Polit & Hungler, 1997). To address the research question, Meyers (2001) recommended that researchers choose multiple knowledgeable participants from multiple perspectives within the case study organization. To decide criteria for participant roles and experience levels to solicit for my study, I used my knowledge about the trucking industry and my experiences interacting with different functions within trucking companies. Because leaders in the operations/logistics, training, and HR functions would likely have direct interaction with drivers and more knowledge about effective retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers, I specifically solicited leaders of these functions in my participant invitation letter (see Appendix C). I solicited leaders with at least 5 years of experience in the transportation industry and at least 2 years of experience in their current roles. I sent the invitation letter to gate keepers at twelve common carriers in my target population. Nine leaders from a total of six different common carriers volunteered and met my criteria to participate in the study.

It is important that the interview setting be comfortable and conducive for participants to share their ideas openly (Redlich-Amirav & Higginbottom, 2014; Shapka, Domene, Khan, & Yang, 2016). Public spaces can be conducive for interviewing participants regarding non-sensitive topics (Mellor, Ingram, Abrahams, & Beedell, 2014). Because my topic was not particularly sensitive, I chose quiet, public dining facilities as the interview settings for the five participants who agreed to meet in person. Four participants stated they preferred to conduct their interviews by phone.

To assure the likelihood of data saturation, I used purposive criterion sampling to establish the criterion for inviting operations/logistics, training, or HR leaders from carrier organization. When purposively selected, a minimum sample size of five can be sufficient to show data saturation in a case study if the participants can provide relevant and substantive information to the research question (Malterud et al., 2016; Molenberghs et al., 2014; Robinson, 2014). I used a sample size of nine and confirmed data saturation during data analysis. To confirm data saturation, a researcher must not identify new themes upon additional data collection from the sample population (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Morse, 2015a; Palinkas et al., 2015). To confirm data saturation, I compared reflective notes from my ninth interview with reflective notes from my first eight interviews and document reviews. No new themes emerged as a result of the ninth interview.

Ethical Research

Because of the researcher's inherent involvement in data collection for qualitative studies, conflict exists between the considerations for ethical research and qualitative research (Metcalf & Crawford, 2016; Roberts, 2015). Researchers must respect the rights of study participants and follow ethical guidelines for protecting the rights of human research participants (Haahr, Norlyk, & Hal, 2014; Metcalf & Crawford, 2016; Roberts, 2015). To ensure ethical research for my study, completed IRB approval #04-13-18-0594588. I followed the ethical guidelines established by Walden University, including the Walden code of conduct and the Belmont Report. The Belmont Report includes ethical standards for research involving human subjects (Grady & Fauci, 2016). I completed the National Institute of Health certification to demonstrate proficiency in ethical research.

According to guidelines in the Belmont Report, researchers should require participants to sign an informed consent form before participating in the study (Grady & Fauci, 2016; Scherzinger & Bobbert, 2017). Key elements of an informed consent form include descriptions of (a) the purpose, nature, and scope of the study; (b) risks for participation; (c) any compensation or consideration the researcher offers for participation in the study; and (d) the process for participant withdrawal from the study (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014; Scherzinger & Bobbert, 2017; Yip, Han, & Sng, 2016).

Participants signed informed consent forms to participate in the study. In the informed consent form, the researcher should also explain that participation is voluntary and that participants can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty (Ahmed &

Ahmed, 2014; Scherzinger & Bobbert, 2017). In my invitation e-mail (see Appendix C) and my initial conversations with participants, I explained to participants that they could withdraw from the study at any time by providing me written notification of their wish to withdraw or by declining to sign an informed consent form. No participants requested to withdraw from the study or declined to sign the informed consent form after contacting me about voluntary participation. If participants perceive an offer of compensation as coercion, researchers can compromise inadvertently the validity of research results (Barton, Tam, Abbott & Liaw, 2016; Thornton et al., 2016). I offered no compensation to subjects for their participation in the study.

A key consideration in ethical research is ensuring the anonymity and confidentiality of human subjects (Harriss & Atkinson, 2015). Researchers have demonstrated the use of aliasing to protect participant identity in qualitative studies (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017; Bowser & Wiggins, 2015; Kemp et al., 2013). I protected the confidentiality of case study participants and organizations by establishing aliases for each participant. For example, I labeled the organizations as Carrier B, C, D, N, X, and Z. I labeled individual participants as B1, C2, D2, N2, X1, X3, X7, Z1, and Z4, where the leading alphabet corresponded to the participant's employer.

Researchers must take safeguards to ensure responsible handling and storage of participants' personal information and any confidential data (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014; Bowden & Galindo-Gonzalez, 2015; Gelinas et al., 2017). I did not use participants' personal information for any use other than this study. The researcher is responsible for proper record retention (Yip et al., 2016) and safe storage of confidential information

(Gelinas et al., 2017; Yip et al., 2016). I stored the participant aliases, along with interview recordings and summaries on a password-protected USB drive in a locked storage cabinet where these records will remain for 5 years from the completion of this study. After 5 years, I will permanently destroy interview records by electronically deleting and burning the USB drive of interview recordings and summaries, as well as any hard copies of signed consent forms or other documents I collected during the study.

Data Collection Instruments

In qualitative research, the researcher is often the data collection instrument because the researcher directly hears and sees participants' responses and behaviors (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Byers, 2014). I was the primary data collection instrument for my study. For five of the nine participants, I collected data using in-person interviews and observations. Because of their travel schedules, four participants requested I interview them via phone/video conference. Several qualitative researchers have used interviewing as the data collection method to explore employee retention strategies (Brueton et al., 2014; Idris, 2014; Strachan et al., 2015).

Researchers have recognized the importance of data collection protocols in qualitative research (Amankwaa, 2016; Doody & Noonan, 2013; Sarma, 2015). I used a protocol for semistructured interviews (see Appendix D) to guide each phase of the interview appointment. At the start of each interview, I reviewed with participants the expected agenda and duration of the interview. I also gave a brief review of the objective of the study and reminded participants of the safeguards I took to ensure ethical research and confidentiality. I included ice-breaker questions to establish rapport and encourage participants to share thorough responses. The interview protocol (see Appendix D) included seven open-ended questions about participants' lived experiences with millennial driver retention. Researchers use open-ended questions to encourage participants to give in-depth responses (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Roberts et al., 2014). Interviews lasted 30 to 65 minutes. During each interview, I also used an observation protocol (see Appendix E) to guide incidental observations of participant's behaviors, gestures, and facial expressions while answering interview questions. I conducted all face-to-face interviews/observations in public settings. For phone/video conference interviews, I did not identify the participant's location.

To enhance the reliability and validity of the study, I prepared interview summaries for member checking with each participant. To perform member checking, the researcher obtains feedback from participants about the validity of collected data and the researcher's interpretation of the data (Houghton et al., 2013; Lub, 2015). Researchers use member checking to add credibility and validity to a qualitative study (Birt et al., 2016; Darawsheh, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). I used member checking to assure accurate interpretation of each participant's account of lived experiences, minimize the effect of my personal biases, and contribute to the reliability and validity of study findings.

Data Collection Technique

Interviewing is a common data collection technique that scholars use to conduct case study research (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Doody & Noonan, 2013; Yin, 2018). During interviews, researchers can collect content-rich data by eliciting participants to describe experiences in their own words (Doody & Noonan, 2013). When collecting data using structured or semistructured interviews, the researcher can ask a standard set of questions to facilitate comparisons among participant responses (Levashina et al., 2014; Yin, 2018). In semistructured interviews, the researcher has the added flexibility to ask follow-up questions to explore participants' responses further (Doody & Noonan, 2013).

Researchers may find it easier to establish rapport with participants when meeting in person. In-person interviewing can also allow the researcher to collect additional data by observing participants' body language (Seitz, 2016). A disadvantage of semistructured interviews includes the potential for the interviewer to influence participants' responses by projecting her own bias (Yin, 2018). Researchers and participants might also incur more time and travel expense to meet with subjects in person (Doody & Noonan, 2013; Seitz, 2016; Yin, 2018).

Four participants requested that I interview them via phone/video conferencing rather than in-person. Several researchers have touted the practicality of online interviewing as a data collection method for qualitative research (Redlich-Amirav & Higginbottom, 2014; Janghorban, Roudsari, & Taghipour, 2014; Shapka et al., 2016). If both parties are comfortable and proficient with video conference technology, video conferencing can be a cheaper, more convenient method for data collection as compared to face-to-face interviews (Redlich-Amirav & Higginbottom, 2014; Janghorban et al., 2014). Compared to in-person interviewing, videoconferencing has the added benefit that both the subject and researcher may feel more comfortable conducting the interview in separate spaces, without imposing on each other's personal space (Redlich-Amirav &

Higginbottom, 2014). Because the researcher can record audio and visual interactions, videoconferencing results in the same data quality as in-person interviewing as a data collection method for qualitative research (Redlich-Amirav & Higginbottom, 2014; Shapka et al., 2016). Disadvantages on online interviewing include the need for both parties to be proficient with video conferencing technology, the possibility of technical difficulties and reliability issues difficulties with video conferencing equipment, and the potential for distractions from either party's setting (Janghorban et al., 2014; Redlich-Amirav & Higginbottom, 2014; Shapka et al., 2016).

After obtaining Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, I conducted semistructured interviews with individual participants. I contacted each participant via e-mail at least two days in advance to schedule a mutually convenient interview appointment. Where possible, I arranged to meet participants in a quiet, public place to conduct the interviews and mitigate background noises or distractions. With the participant's consent, I made an audio recording of each interview. To mitigate the risk of technical difficulties, I recorded the interviews using a MP3 digital recorder as a primary recording device. I also used the voice recorder feature and local memory capacity of my iPhone 6 as a backup audio recording device. I used an observation protocol form (see Appendix E) to make handwritten notes regarding my observations of participants' verbal cues or non-verbal cues during the interviews. After each interview, I recorded my initial impressions of the interview in a reflective journal.

Researchers can review company documents and records as another means of data collection (Houghton et al., 2013; Yin, 2018). Wilhelmy, Kleinmann, König, Melchers and Truxillcan (2016) used company records such as interview records, memos, and applicant informational materials as a secondary data source to semistructured interviews in a qualitative study of employee retention. Although document review is a convenient, low cost data collection technique, researchers may be obtain the depth of information desired from document review alone (Houghton et al., 2013; Wilhelmy et al., 2016; Yin, 2018). I reviewed company websites as a secondary data collection process for my study. After gaining IRB approval, I reviewed company websites of each participant's employer to ascertain information specific to driver retention. I also used relevant information gleaned from my review of company websites to prepare potential follow-up or clarifying questions for each subject. I did not collect any private company documents during or after the interviews.

I prepared interview summaries for member checking with each participant. To perform member checking, the researcher obtains feedback from participants about the validity of collected data and the researcher's interpretation of the data (Darawsheh, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Lub, 2015). I provided each participant with an interview summary and asked participants to confirm the accuracy of the summary or request changes within 1 week. Each participant confirmed the accuracy of the initial interview summary, with no requested changes.

Data Organization Technique

According to Yin (2018), by organizing data into themes, a researcher can recognize patterns during data analysis. Researchers can use reflective journaling to organize data and add credibility and validity to their studies (Cowan, 2014; Min, Mansor, & Samsudin, 2017; Noble & Smith, 2015). I used a spiral notebook journal to capture my reflective memories of the data collection process and any emerging themes. I made digital audio recordings of each interview and used Microsoft Word to create written interview summaries from the audio recordings. I sent each participant a copy of his or her interview summary for member checking.

Researchers have demonstrated the use of aliasing to protect participant identity in qualitative studies (Alcover et al., 2017; Bowser & Wiggins, 2015; Kemp et al., 2013). I maintained the anonymity of case study organizations and individual subjects by using aliases to mask participant identities. I represented the organizations with generic aliases such as Carrier A, Carrier B, and Carrier C. I designated participants as A1, B1, C2, etc., where the leading alphabet corresponded to the participant's employer. I used aliases to refer to case study organizations and participants in interview summaries, as well as notes in my reflective journal. I am the only person with access to the electronic document that contains matching of aliases to company and participant identities.

Researchers must take safeguards to ensure responsible handling and storage of participants' personal information and any confidential data (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014; Bowden & Galindo-Gonzalez, 2015; Gelinas et al., 2017). In accordance with the requirements for ethical research, I stored electronic copies of the digital interview recordings, transcripts, and alias mapping document on a password-protected USB drive. I stored the hard copy of my reflective journal and the backup USB drive in a locked storage cabinet. Five years after the IRB approves my study, I will erase the files from the password-protected USB. I will also burn the erased USB drive, the hard copy of my reflective journal and any other original documents that identify participant identities.

Data Analysis

Different qualitative research designs require different data analysis processes (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Researchers use triangulation as the data analysis process for case studies (Morse, 2015B). There are four types of triangulation: theoretical, methodological, investigator, and data triangulation (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014). Case study researchers use methodological triangulation during the data analysis process to compare findings from different data sources such as interviews and company document review to verify whether data from the different sources are complementary or contradictory (Carter et al., 2014; Decrop, 1999). I used methodological triangulation to compare themes from interview summaries versus a review of company documents, observation protocols, my reflective journal, and scholarly literature. Researchers can use data triangulation to show validity in their study (Carter et al., 2014; Decrop, 1999; Kern, 2016). I used data triangulation as a technique to show validity of my study results by comparing study findings with effective retention strategies reported in scholarly literature. I compared data from participants within the same company to identify similarities. I also analyzed data across industry segments by comparing responses from leaders of packaged carriers versus bulk liquid carriers.

The qualitative researcher’s goal in data analysis is to organize collected data into themes that the researcher can use to address the research question. Pope, Ziebland, and May (2000) recommended a five-step process for data analysis. The steps included: (a) reviewing the data in detail, (b) identifying themes, (c) indexing each occurrence of themes in the data, (d) rearranging the data to group by themes, and (e) identifying and interpreting associations between themes (Pope et al., 2000). Other researchers ascribe to Pope et al.'s five-step process (Assarroudi, Heshmati-Nabavi, Armat, Ebadi, & Vais, 2018; Kornbluh, 2015). I began data analysis after participants confirmed the accuracy of interview summaries with member checking feedback. I followed the five-step process for data analysis summarized by Pope et al. (2000). I analyzed the following data sources: (a) final interview summaries, (b) my handwritten notes about participants' verbal and non-verbal cues,(c) company documents and websites, and (d) my reflective journal.

Researchers can perform data analysis manually or utilize data analysis software such as NVivo or Atlas.ti (Woods, Paulus, Atkins, & Macklin, 2016; Zamawe, 2015). Several researchers have purported that qualitative data analysis is an iterative process (Assarroudi et al., 2018; Kornbluh, 2015; Pope et al., 2000; Yin, 2018). I read the data multiple times to look for emerging themes. I used the manual technique of qualitative content analysis to identify themes related to effective retention strategies for millennial drivers. Researchers use qualitative content analysis to group ideas within qualitative data and understand its meaning (Bengtsson, 2016; Crowe, Inder, & Porter, 2015; Elo et al., 2014). Several researchers have demonstrated the use of qualitative content analysis to analyze responses to open-ended interview questions in employee retention studies (Bogossian, Winters-Chang, & Tuckett , 2014; Flinkman, & Salanterä, 2015). I compared emerging themes among the nine interview summaries, observations, and company records. Because no gaps became evident during data analysis after the initial nine interviews, I did not need to collect more data in an iterative process. Finally, I reviewed results of the qualitative content analysis to interpret themes in light of the conceptual framework of PO fit and drew conclusions.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability

Reliability and validity are not measurable criteria for a qualitative study, but the researcher must address these criteria to assure a quality study. When a qualitative researcher makes decisions about study design elements such as sample selection, participants, and interview questions, the researcher can inherently affect the data collection and data analysis for a study (Darawsheh, 2014). The researcher must review the impact of his or her decisions on study dependability (Cope, 2014; Grossoehme, 2014; Yin, 2018). Dependability is the degree to which another researcher could obtain similar results if the researcher repeated the study using the same research process in a similar setting (Cope, 2014).

One method researchers can use to assess dependability is to maintain a reflective journal throughout the data collection and data analysis processes to document the basis of study design decisions (Darawsheh, 2014; Grossoehme, 2014). By reviewing the reflective journal, the researcher can be more self-aware of potential compromises to study reliability resulting from the researcher’s interactions during the data collection and data analysis phases. Researchers can also use member checking to assure dependability in qualitative studies (Birt et al., 2016; Darawsheh, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). Member checking involves allowing participants to review interview summaries to ensure the researcher accurately captured the participants' ideas (Birt et al., 2016; Darawsheh, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). I used reflective journaling and member checking to assure dependability in my study. As mentioned, I maintained a reflective journal throughout the data collection and data analysis phases to help assure mindfulness and minimize bias.

Validity

The validity of a qualitative study refers to its credibility, transferability, and confirmability (Darawsheh, 2014). Achieving data saturation is a key consideration for a researcher to show study validity (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Credibility refers to the trustworthiness of the data and conclusions (Darawsheh, 2014). Readers can assess credibility based on whether the researcher maintained objectivity during the study and whether the researcher presented sound evidence for the reported results (Cope, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013). Researchers can improve credibility by providing rich, in-depth data to address the research question (Munn, Porritt, Lockwood, Aromataris, & Pearson, 2014). By collecting data from multiple sources, the researcher can use triangulation to show credibility of findings (Munn et al., 2014). To demonstrate credibility, I collected in-depth data by conducting semistructured interviews of participants knowledgeable about the research question. I demonstrated objectivity by conducting member checking to ensure that interview summaries reflected participants' ideas. I maintained objectivity by using reflective journaling to document the basis for design decisions. I documented areas of potential bias during data collection and analysis. Finally, I used triangulation of data obtained from interviews, company websites, and scholarly literature to show credibility of results.

Transferability is the reader's assessment of how well other researchers could appropriately apply study findings to other sample populations (Anney, 2015). Researchers can support transferability by providing in-depth descriptions and context for the sample population (Anney, 2015; Cope, 2014; Hazavehei, Moonaghi, Moeini, Moghimbeigi, & Emadzadeh, 2015). To help readers assess transferability of findings and the need future research, the researcher should give thick, rich descriptions of the geographic area of the study, the business/industry context of case study organizations, and the demographic makeup of participants (Anney, 2015; Cope, 2014; Hazavehei et al., 2015). I addressed transferability by documenting the sample population using thick, rich descriptions. Based on a review company websites and by confirming industry information during interviews, I provided thorough descriptions of case study organizations. However, for ethical research considerations, I limited the description of case study organizations and participants to the extent necessary to protect their identities.

Confirmability represents the degree to which readers assess that someone can substantiate the data in a study. A researcher can improve confirmability by describing how the researcher checked for data accuracy during the study (Anney, 2015; Tong & Dew, 2016). A researcher can demonstrate confirmability by using audit trails, reflective journaling, and triangulation (Anney, 2015; Cope, 2014; Houghton et al., 2013; Tong & Dew, 2016). I used reflective journaling to document the basis of research decisions and observations throughout the data collection and data analysis phases. I also used data triangulation to confirm data by comparing and contrasting findings from interviews, company records, and scholarly literature. I identified participant responses that affirmed or refuted other researchers' findings.

Data saturation is another key element of study validity (Fusch & Ness, 2015). A researcher has reached data saturation when other researchers can replicate the study and uncover no new themes relevant to the research question (Fusch & Ness, 2015). Techniques that researchers can use to demonstrate data saturation include: (a) selecting an appropriate sample size, (b) using purposive sampling, (c) asking the same questions to multiple participants, and (d) using data triangulation (Fusch & Ness, 2015; Morse, 2015b; Palinkas et al., 2015). To achieve data saturation, I used an iterative process of data collection and data analysis. Initially, I used purposive sampling to solicit nine participants from case study organizations in my target population. When purposively selected, a small sample size of five or more can be sufficient for a case study if the participants can provide relevant and substantive information to the research question (Malterud et al., 2016; Molenberghs et al., 2014; Robinson, 2014). I used reflexive journaling and qualitative content analysis to identify emerging themes. I continued purposive sampling to add participants until I achieved data saturation and no new themes emerged. I used a protocol for semistructured interviews to ensure multiple participants answered the same questions. As mentioned, I used data triangulation to compare and contrast findings from interviews, company records, and scholarly literature.

Transition and Summary

In Section 2, I reviewed the purpose of the study, the role of the researcher, my target population and potential participants, my research method and design, sampling techniques, and data collection method. I also reviewed the measures I took to ensure ethical and quality research. In addition to the requirement for IRB approval, I implemented several other safeguards to ensure ethics and quality in my research. The key safeguards I implemented were purposive sampling, a protocol for semistructured interviews, member checking of interview summaries, use of a data analysis software, data saturation, and data triangulation among findings from interviews, company records, and scholarly literature. I supported each decision for selected safeguards with scholarly, peer-reviewed sources.

Following IRB approval and data collection, I completed Section 3. In Section 3, I report my experiences in the data collection and data analysis phases of the study. I identify themes in the data that inform the research question and present my results. I use the conceptual framework of PO fit to explain how the identified themes support effective retention strategies for millennial drivers at the case organizations. Moreover, I draw conclusions for how practitioners can apply the study findings. Finally, I report on limitations of the study, make recommendations for future research, and reflect on my experiences during the doctoral study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative multiple case study was to explore strategies that some leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively. I used Chatman's (1989) theory of PO fit as a conceptual framework for my study of truck driver retention. Using purposive sampling, I explored retention strategies by interviewing nine leaders from six common carriers in the target population who have successfully developed and implemented retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers. The participants cited (a) strategic recruiting, (b) competitive compensation, (c) limiting driver time away from home, (d) facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and (e) demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation as effective strategies for retaining millennial long-haul drivers. Section 3 includes the presentation of the findings, application to professional practice, and the implications for positive social change. The section also includes recommendations for action and future research, my reflections about the research process, and conclusions from the study.

Presentation of the Findings

The overarching research question was, What strategies do leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States use to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers effectively? Nine leaders from six trucking companies volunteered to participate in the study. The participants included five operations leaders and four training leaders. No HR leaders volunteered to participate in the study.

Data sources consisted of semistructured interviews and concurrent observations, along with a review of each company's website. I used protocols for interviews and observations. I conducted five of the nine interviews face-to-face. However, four participants requested that I interview them via phone and video conferencing. Interviews lasted from 20 to 60 minutes. I conducted all interviews over a 4-week period during April and May 2018.

The type of services (e.g., short-haul, long-haul, line-haul, or bulk liquid transport) that carriers offer can influence leaders' selection of retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers (Costello & Suarez, 2015). Appendix F contains a summary of the trucking companies whose leaders volunteered to participate in the study. I prepared the summary profiles using data from company websites or participants' remarks during interviews. Although Carriers B and C offer long-haul transport, most of their drivers are not long-haul drivers. However, because B and C are large companies with greater than 100 long-haul drivers, I included these companies in the study.

Participants' responses varied regarding how long a long-haul driver must stay with a company before leaders considered the driver as successfully retained. As shown in Appendix F, the required retention time frame varied from 6 months to 2 years. However, participants most frequently cited an employment time frame of 12 months as the definition for successful retention. In scholarly literature, the minimum time frame to constitute successful retention differs among researchers (Gao et al., 2015; Lopes, Guerra-Arias, Buchan, Pozo-Martin, & Nove, 2017; Milman & Dickson, 2014; Russell, Wakerman, & Humphreys, 2013). Several researchers have defined minimum retention time as 12 months (Cloutier, Felusiak, Hill, & Pemberton-Jones, 2015; Gao et al., 2015; Milman & Dickson, 2014). Researchers or organizational leaders may define the minimum retention time frame based on the time to recover investment costs for recruiting and training a replacement for the specific profession or geographic location (Russell et al., 2013). The successful retention strategies I discuss in this section came from participants' notions of successful retention times. I did not define for participants a time criterion for successful driver retention. The methods that leaders used to measure driver retention are included in Appendix G.

I used manual coding to identify themes in the interview summaries and website data. All participants except X3 indicated that their company leaders had no retention strategy specifically targeting millennials. Instead, company leaders designed retention strategies to promote retention of all long-haul drivers, regardless of generation. Participants cited 43 specific retention strategies that I grouped into five general themes during data analysis (see Appendix H).

As shown in Table 1, the five themes I identified included (a) strategic recruiting, (b) competitive compensation, (c) limiting driver time away from home, (d) facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and (e) demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation. The identified themes are consistent with retention strategies that other researchers have reported (Bag & Arnand, 2014; Cole, 2018; Costello & Suarez, 2015; Mittal, Udayakumar, Raghuram, & Bajaj, 2018; Nelson, 2015) for retention of long-haul truck drivers. The next sections contain a more detailed discussion of each theme for driver retention, including the barriers participants encountered when implementing retention strategies. Appendices G, H, and I contain detailed summaries of retention assessment methods, retention strategies, and barriers to implementation, respectively, that participants mentioned during their interviews.

Table 1

Strategies Used to Retain Millennial Long-Haul Drivers

	Participants								
Theme	B1	C2	D1	N2	X1	X3	X7	Z1	Z4
Strategic recruiting	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y
Competitive compensation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Limiting driver time away from home	Y	Y	Y	Y			Y	Y	Y
Driver comfort away from home	Y		Y		Y	Y			Y
Culture of driver appreciation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Note. All participants except X3 stated that they target all long-haul drivers with their retention strategies; strategies are not specific to millennial long-haul drivers.

Theme 1: Strategic Recruiting

All participants except X7 stated that the effectiveness of their companies' driver retention strategies related closely to their recruiting strategies. As Z1 stated, "the first thing we do for retention is at recruitment." Participants C2, X3, and Z1 identified strategic recruiting practices, such as setting expectations at recruitment and matching candidates' needs with the needs of the vacancy. Participants B1, C2, D1, X1, Z1, and Z4 reported successful millennial driver retention when they hired driver candidates identified through proven sources, such as employee referrals, military veterans, apprenticeship programs, or recruiting from certain geographic areas.

Participants C2, X3, and Z1 expounded on the importance of setting expectations at recruitment and matching candidates to the vacancy. To facilitate PO fit, trucking company leaders must understand what driver candidates want and ensure that the company's vacancy matches the successful candidate's expectations and desires. According to Z1, driver candidates usually categorize themselves as either local, regional, or long-haul drivers, depending on their expectations about driving distance and time away from home. However, the definition of these driver categories may differ from one driver candidate to another. In order to assess potential job fit at recruiting, carrier leaders must understand how each candidate defines each driver category. As Z1 explained, "What we have learned is that if you don't make a good match of expectations and definitions at the recruiting stage, you will get a resignation pretty quickly once the driver is employed." Participant C2 explained that setting expectations at recruitment has been an important strategy at Carrier C, specifically for retention of female millennial truck drivers. Female millennial drivers may be open to some time away from home, but they may not be interested in vacancies that require the driver to lift or handle freight manually. According to C2, leaders at Carrier C have been successful at retaining female millennial drivers assigned to longer line-haul moves. As C2 stated, 'once women understand what kind of jobs we can offer and we understand their needs, women make great drivers. We have no problem keeping them."

Participants B1, C2, and Z1 indicated that their companies had driver recruiting strategies designed to build a sense of loyalty from successful candidates and resulted in higher retention. Two recruiting strategies that Participants B1, C2, and Z1 cited as promoting retention were driver training programs and early employment apprenticeships. According to Z1, new drivers can feel a sense of loyalty to the carrier where they completed their initial qualification driver training. During training, carriers can indoctrinate drivers to their company's policies and culture. Moreover, drivers often sign a contract requiring the driver to remain employed for a specified time with the company providing initial qualification training. If drivers do not stay with the company long enough to fulfill the contractual obligation, company leaders can demand that the driver reimburse the full training costs. Participant X1 noted that a barrier to effectiveness for recruiting from company-sponsored driver training programs is that company leaders may have a hard time extracting reimbursement from drivers leaving prior to the end of the contractual employment period.

Participant C2 reported Carrier C leaders have recently implemented an early employment/apprenticeship program to recruit new drivers. Carrier C leaders are optimistic that the program will help with millennial driver retention. As C2 explained,

> Millennials don't know enough about us and we have what I call the "gap" that is a barrier for Millennials entering the industry. If someone wants to become a truck driver, you have to have a commercial driver's license (CDL). But the federal government says you cannot even get a permit to learn to drive a commercial vehicle until you are at least 21 years old. Our target audience is high

school graduates who are not planning to attend college. But if a person graduates high school at 17 or 18, they can't get a CDL for several years, hence the gap . . . Last year, we ran a test at one high school for a terminal manager to visit students who are not college-bound and talk to them about careers in truck driving. At that visit, the terminal manager offered that he would give any student who was at least 18 a part-time job for a few hours per week to come and learn about truck driving. Then, upon graduation, he would give them a full-time job starting at about $19/hour. At 21, the student would be eligible, with supervisor approval, to attend one of our truck driving schools. The employee would get paid about $21/hour for 10 weeks to attend the truck driving school. After completing driving school and training over-the-road for a while with a more experienced driver, the new driver could make $70,000 to $80,000 per year, depending on the number of hours worked. So, by the time that 18 year old high school student reaches age 22 or 23, they could be making about as much as those who attended college and are starting their first job at age 22 or 23. But a big difference is that the high school student who chose the truck driving career can make $70,000 - $80,000 a year by age 22-23 without having a huge student loan debt to pay at the start of their career. So, we laid out a clear path to success for these high school students. The program met with good success. It is now mandatory for all our terminal managers to visit at least 3 schools a year to talk to students about careers in truck driving. So, a key retention strategy for us is to recruit millennials by giving them a clear, concise path to success in our industry during those gap

> years. And the upside for us is that we still need dock workers. The millennials following this recruitment program meet our need for dock workers right now and in another year or two will be candidates for truck driving school. And the millennials who start this program, by the time they are 22 or 23, have gotten to know us, have made a decent wage, we have gotten to know their work ethic, plus they have already gotten 3 or 4 years vesting in the pension program and 401K, with great benefits and a no layoff policy. We think it is a good deal for everybody. It is still too early to tell if the program will be a complete success in gaining loyal truck drivers from the students, but it was successful enough that we rolled out the program at all our terminals.

Participants D1 and X1 noted that their leaders used a retention strategy that involved recruiting millennial drivers from specific geographic locations, such as southern U.S. states or rural areas. Participant X1 explained that driver candidates in these areas often have fewer good-paying employment opportunities for non-degreed persons; therefore, millennial candidates are more likely to view long-haul truck driving as a desirable career choice. This finding is consistent with other researchers' (Oh et al., 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014) assertions regarding the positive impact on retention when employers recruit from populations with fewer good-paying employment opportunities. Especially when combined with a company-sponsored training program, new drivers recruited from U.S. southern states or rural areas may feel a greater sense of loyalty to the trucking company where they were first hired and trained (Oh et al., 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014). These new drivers may appreciate the trucking company's investment in them and perceive the company as having given them their first meaningful career opportunity (Oh et al., 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014).

Participant Z1 noted that Carrier Z leaders were successful in retaining millennial drivers recruited within the first year after leaving military service. As Z1 explained, military veterans returning to civilian life must find employment and many may have experience driving large military vehicles without a commercial driver's license (CDL). Carrier Z leaders offered a program through which new veterans could quickly obtain a CDL or lowered the training requirements for new veterans to qualify as long-haul drivers. With Carrier Z, new veterans could qualify in 12 months as long-haul drivers, whereas most new CDL drivers need 2 years of mentoring or an apprenticeship before qualifying to drive alone on long-haul routes. According to Z1, veterans recruited through these shortened training programs demonstrated loyalty to the trucking company for providing a clear path to a civilian career. Moreover, because some veterans are already accustomed to being away from their families during military service, veterans may be more open to staying with companies primarily offering long-haul driving routes. Costello and Suarez (2015) also cited recruiting from the military as a solution for truck driver turnover.

Two other recruiting strategies B1, D1, and Z1 reported as supporting driver retention included using employee referrals and screening out job-hoppers. Participants B1 and D1 reported that when existing drivers refer their friends, the new hire was more likely to stay with the company. As D1 explained,

> When existing drivers are enthusiastic about the company, they are our best means of attracting other drivers who are likely to stay with us. Being employed at the same place as a friend can help new drivers stay longer because they don't want to disappoint the person who referred them.

According to B1, the existing driver can help set expectations and coach the referred driver through any potential pitfalls during the early days of employment.

Participants X1 and Z1 said they use the job application and interviewing processes to screen out driver candidates with a history of job hopping. Company leaders consider the number of different carriers where a driver candidate had been employed in a period of 2-3 years. As participant Z1 explained, "usually, if a driver has changed jobs a lot in 2 to 3 years, the chances are good that the driver will not stay with us either".

Participants X1, X7, and Z1 mentioned the strong U.S. economy as a barrier for using strategic recruiting as a driver retention strategy. "With drivers in such short supply, hiring the 'right person' is not always enough to ensure the driver will stay," explained X1. According to Participant Z1, "as the U.S. economy strengthened starting in the second half of 2017, more companies are being impacted by the driver shortage than ever before." Participants X1 and X7 reported that, as competition for drivers increased, other carriers lured away some of Carrier X's best millennial drivers by offering drivers higher pay and increasingly larger signing bonuses.

The emerging theme of strategic recruiting was consistent with the findings of other researchers identifying a link between recruiting strategies and effective employee retention (Beilock & Capelle, 1990; Biga, Spott, & Spott, 2015; Jhawar, Garg, & Khera, 2014; Khan, 2014; LeMay et al., 2013; Min & Emam, 2003; Nadler & Kros, 2014). The specific strategy of recruiting millennial drivers from less educated, lower income populations is consistent with findings from other researchers (Cole, 2018; Khan, 2014; Oh et al., 2014; Rizwan et al., 2014). The specific strategy of improving retention by offering pre-employment training to drivers is also consistent with other researchers' results (Cole, 2018; Mittal, 2018). Researchers (Cole, 2018; Min & Emam, 2003) recommended that carrier leaders screen out job-hoppers during recruitment but did not mention a strong economy as a barrier to the effectiveness of strategic recruiting as a strategy for retention. Consistent with the findings of this study, Nalder and Kros (2014) addressed the need for trucking company leaders to manage driver candidates' expectations during recruitment. Researchers investigating employee turnover in other industries also reported links between strategic recruiting practices and retention of millennial employees (Biga et al., 2015; Jhawar et al., 2014).

The results of this study correlate with the need-supplies fit conceptualization of PO fit. Needs-supplies fit exists when the needs and preferences of the employee match the systems and structures organizational leaders offer to provide tangible and intangible benefits to employees (Kristof, 1996). Min and Emam (2003) posited that a mismatch between the personality of the driver and the trucking company's culture was the most common reason for drivers to leave a trucking company within the first 90 days of employment. The emerging theme of strategic recruiting as a successful driver retention strategy can be understood as carrier leaders attempting to match driver candidates' needs for satisfying employment and achieve PO fit by (a) identifying potential drivers with needs matching the company’s existing culture, such as candidates from the U.S. south, rural areas, employee referrals, or recent veterans; (b) shaping potential drivers’ needs at recruitment through setting clear expectations, pre-employment training or apprenticeships; or (c) screening out candidates not likely to match the company’s need for a stable long-haul driver force.

Theme 2: Competitive Compensation

Another emerging theme from data analysis was the successful use of competitive compensation for retention of millennial long-haul drivers. All nine participants indicated that pay was a retention strategy their company leaders used to retain truck drivers. Participants B1, C2, Z1, Z4, and X7 identified competitive pay as their company’s primary retention strategy for millennial long-haul truck drivers. As Participant Z4 expressed, “pay; it’s absolutely pay . . . If you are not paying drivers enough, they will eventually leave. We always try to either match or beat competitors’ pay rates.” Specific retention strategies I categorized as competitive compensation included pay rate, pay structure, and other financial benefits such as 401k, pension, bonus programs, and training reimbursement.

Competitive pay rate was the specific strategy that Z1, Z4, X1, X3, X7, and N2 cited for driver retention, with these participants reporting their company leaders giving drivers pay raises ranging from 12% to 30% during the 15 months prior to the study. Participants B1, C2, Z1, and Z4 reported that their fully trained drivers earn between $70,000 and $90,000 annually, about 35% higher than the 2017 median annual salary of $40,000 to $61,000 for U.S. long-haul truck drivers (American Trucking Association, 2018a; Black, Voie, Maurer, Palakeel, & Chacon, 2017). Participants B1, C2, Z1, and Z4 reported the highest driver salaries and the lowest driver turnover rates (see Appendix F) in the sample population. Although X7 reported competitive pay rate as Carrier X's primary retention strategy, X1 and X3 did not corroborate pay rate as Carrier X's primary driver retention strategy. Carrier X had the highest reported driver turnover rate of the six carriers represented in the study. Based on a non-statistical comparison of participants' reported driver turnover rates versus reported driver pay, the findings of this study are consistent with other researchers' assertion that competitive pay rate is the most effective strategy for retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers (Cole, 2018; Nelson, 2015). In agreement with Cole (2018) and Nelson (2015), X1, X7, Z1, and Z4 called for government regulation of truck driver pay as the best solution to address truck driver turnover and the nationwide truck driver shortage. According to Z4,

> In my opinion, the government is going to have to step back in and regulate over-the-road driving. Otherwise, the pay is not going to be enough to attract new people, especially millennials, into the over-the-road segment and we will continue to have this churn of drivers.

In addition to pay rate, Z1 and X3 believed their companies' pay structure was an effective retention strategy for long-haul drivers. Many long-haul carriers pay drivers based on miles driven (Cole, 2018; Prockl & Sternberg, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Participant Z1 reported good driver retention when paying drivers based on trip hours, rather than mileage, because drivers receive pay for time spent waiting in-transit, loading, and unloading. According to Carrier Z's website, their drivers are also eligible for overtime pay. Historically, most carriers did not pay drivers for the first two hours of loading or unloading time (Prockl & Sternberg, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Participants Z1 and X3 reported their drivers now receive pay if they wait more than one hour at a shipper or consignee location.

Participants C2, D1, X1, Z1, and Z4 reported bonuses as another important facet of their drivers' pay structure. According to their respective company websites, leaders at Carriers C, X, and Z offer drivers signing bonuses up to $10,000, as well as bonuses for referrals, fuel efficiency, and safe driving. As D1 explained,

> One thing that we see in recruiting and retention is that drivers will respond to large dollar amounts. So, we recently changed our referral bonus from $5,000 to $10,000. The driver referring someone is paid over the first year if the referred driver stays with us. So, we get a lot more interest in referrals from millennials with big amounts like that.

Participants B1, C2, and Z1 indicated their company's retirement package was a key driver retention strategy. According to C2, Carrier C leaders offer a 25% matching program for drivers' 401k retirement plans. However, C2 explained that a barrier Carrier C leaders encountered using retirement plan benefits as a retention strategy is that millennials do not always appreciate the value of the retirement benefit. Because millennials may feel retirement is too far in the future, millennials may discount the value of aggressive retirement plan benefits (Morrissey & Johnson, 2017). To use retirement benefits as an effective retention strategy for millennial drivers, Carrier C leaders actively educated millennials on the long-term value of the company's 401k matching program.

A general barrier for company leaders using competitive compensation as a retention strategy for millennial long-haul drivers is that this strategy results in higher operational costs for carriers (Cole, 2018; Mittal et al., 2018). Carrier leaders can try to pass these costs on to shippers, but higher fees to shippers can put the carrier at a competitive disadvantage. “There is always someone out there willing to take less for the job”, explained Participant Z1. During economic booms, carrier leaders may be able to pass costs for higher driver pay on to shippers. Participant Z4 explained carriers using competitive compensation as a driver retention strategy during economic slowdowns may be at a competitive disadvantage because shippers will not tolerate higher freight rates, but drivers do not want pay cuts. According to Participant Z4, “it’s pretty much impossible to go backwards in pay during the economic slowdowns that are bound to come. Your drivers will leave in droves.” Carrier leaders must balance driver pay rates needed to retain drivers in the short-term versus longer-term concerns for competitiveness and sustainability (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014).

The importance of driver compensation as a key strategy for millennial long-haul driver retention was evident in findings from this study. The study findings are consistent with other researchers’ conclusions about the importance of competitive pay and other financial benefits as a primary retention strategy for truck drivers (Cole, 2018; Comerford, 2015; Maloni et al., 2017; Mittal et al., 2018; Nelson, 2015) and millennial employees in other industries (Campione, 2014; Ertas, 2015; Kuron, et al., 2015). The study finding regarding the effectiveness of driver compensation structures that include bonuses and pay for non-driving activities was consistent with other researchers’ findings

(Costello & Suarez, 2015; Williamson & Friswell, 2013) as a strategy for driver retention. The call for government intervention regarding truck driver pay was also consistent with other researchers' conclusions (Cole, 2018; Nelson, 2015). Barriers to the effectiveness of competitive pay strategies on driver retention during economic downturns were not explicitly discussed in the scholarly literature I reviewed.

The theme of competitive compensation as a retention strategy for millennial long-haul drivers correlates with the need-supplies fit conceptualization of PO fit. Pay is a primary need for long-haul truck drivers (Large, et al., 2014) and millennial employees (Campione, 2014; Ertas, 2015; Firfiray & Mayo, 2016; Kuron, et al., 2015). Participants B1, C2, Z1, and Z4 reported the highest driver salary ranges and the lowest driver turnover rates among the nine participants. The experiences of B1, C2, Z1, and Z4 supported other researchers' (Large et al., 2014) assertion that when company leaders meet drivers' primary need for higher pay, drivers are more likely to stay with the company.

Theme 3: Limiting Driver Time Away From Home

Limiting drivers' time away from home was another theme evident during data analysis. To improve driver retention, Participants B1, C2, D1, N2, X7, Z1, and Z4 stated that their company leaders made operational changes to limit drivers' time away from home. Participants N2 and Z1 reported that their companies have policies that limit driver time away from home to seven days, unless drivers specifically request longer. These self-imposed policies could reduce the operational efficiency of a carrier's equipment, a particular concern for leaders of bulk liquid transporters, such as Carrier Z. According to

Z1, bulk transporters incur higher tanker costs compared to packaged freight carriers such as Carriers B, C, D, and X. According to Z1,

> With bulk transport, which is what we do, our biggest costs are equipment and fuel efficient, whereas it is people for the packaged guys. We could profit from having drivers out in the system much longer. But in order for our drivers to have more of a home life, we limit them to three dispatches.

The operational change that C2, D1, N2, and Z1 reported their companies used to retain millennial long-haul drivers was to better match available routes with drivers' desire for time at home. Leaders of Carriers C, D, N, and Z revamped their historical practices to allow dispatchers more flexibility to assign local and regional routes to younger drivers. As N2 explained, historically, most carrier leaders reserved short-haul routes as perks for senior drivers no longer wanting the physical challenge of time away from home and dispatchers assigned long-haul routes to drivers with less seniority. According to C2, "it is usually the least experienced drivers who get stuck with the sleep routes to cover the job; and the new drivers are millennials". Now, leaders at Carriers C, D, N, and Z are allowing younger, less experienced drivers to bid for local jobs if they desire. According to N2, "we have changed our practice so that millennials can also bid for local jobs. Now, we will have more millennials fresh out of school who will be able to have local jobs". According to D1, a barrier to implementing a policy to match available routes with drivers' desire for time at home was that company leaders "spend more time and money internally to manage the process of matching up routes with appropriate drivers".

To better accommodate the mix of drivers preferring local versus long-haul routes, C2, D1, N2, and X7 reported their companies are seeking to add more local and regional shipping volumes to their portfolios. According to N2, “we will have more millennials fresh out of school who will be able to have local jobs, presuming we can continue to build more local business. Do more hauls that are local, that has been a strategy of ours”. To retain female millennial long-haul drivers in particular, C2 reported that Carrier C leaders are seeking more regional routes for full truckload deliveries or drop-and-hook operations that would not involve the driver manually loading or unloading freight. According to C2, “we have some jobs where drivers can drive a shuttle back and forth between a customer and the terminal and never have to touch freight the whole day. They [female drivers] love it!”.

Participants reported mixed experiences for the effectiveness of operational changes involving the use of relay scheduling or team drivers to improve driver retention. Participants B1 and C2 are leaders from large packaged freight trucking companies (see Appendix F) where leaders implemented relay operations to reduce driver time away from home. Carrier B leaders experienced some success with relay operations by setting up satellite facilities where drivers can drop off one trailer and pick up another. As B1 explained,

> One thing that helps us with retention is being able to create more fast turns and more mid-points so that drivers are still running like a line-haul road driver position where they are going from service center to service center, but they are actually getting home on a regular basis. I think that helps with retention.

By contrast, leaders at Carrier C abandoned slip-seat relay operations in which two drivers delivering freight to opposing cross-country destinations meet to swap freight at a designated location midway. Leaders designed the swap to allow each driver to travel only half the full distance and return home sooner. According to C2, “we went to a ‘pony express’ or relay; however, it took too long and customers’ freight was starting to be delayed. We just went back to more overnights”. As C2 explained, sometimes drivers arrived late to the relay point because of traffic delays or mechanical issues. A driver’s late arrival kept another driver waiting, caused frustration for drivers, added cost, and resulted in delayed deliveries to Carrier C’s customers. Carrier C leaders abandoned slip-seat relays to focus on gaining more line-haul routes.

Carrier Z leaders abandoned the use of team drivers as a means to give drivers more time at home. Carrier Z leaders initially saw team driving as a way to provide faster turnarounds to customers on long-haul shipments, get drivers home sooner, and allow less experienced drivers to gain over-the-road experience when paired with a senior driver. However, according to Z4, team driving resulted in a higher number of safety incidents and had no positive impact on driver retention, so Company Z leaders abandoned the practice. According to Z4,

> We use to try using team drivers so that the truck never stopped. The team drivers got home more often. There are a limited number of lanes where team drivers are needed now, so, we don’t do it anymore. Also, team driving is not as safe. Team drivers had more fatigue.

Participant Z1 confirmed Z4's recount of the negative safety impact when Carrier Z experimented with team driving. As Z1 expounded,

> The big issue with tankers is learning to handle the slosh because the liquids can move around in the trailer and that movement can affect the handling of the truck around corners or at stops. The slosh effect is maybe not as critical here in Texas where it is mostly flat terrain, but if a driver delivers into areas where it is mountainous or steep hills, it is critical the driver can anticipate how sloshing is going to move his truck so he or she can avoid a rollover. A rollover of hazmat material could cost anywhere from $700,000 to over a million, especially if waterways or soil become contaminated with the hazardous material. So, the extra efficiency of team drivers was not worth the potential financial loss if a team driver got into an accident because they were tired or less experienced.

A barrier to effectiveness for implementing relay operations is that carriers must have sufficiently large shipping volumes for schedulers to match incoming and return routes, without leaving many trailers idle at the relay facility (Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). Matching incoming and return routes can be problematic for bulk transporters and small trucking companies. Participant Z1 summarized the barriers associated with relay operations across different trucking industry segments.

> The relay strategy has been tried in the bulk business but with limited success. The reason for the limited success with a relay strategy has been that bulk business tends to be a lot more volatile than packaged or LTL freight. So, if we try to do relays in the bulk business, we could wind up with a lot of trailers sitting

> idle because we cannot find a return load to match all the routes coming into the relay point. Not finding a matching return load and having trailers sit idle for a while is not as big of a problem in packaged freight. Packaged trailers are worth about $10,000, whereas a bulk trailer may be worth $70,000. So, we have to keep bulk trailers moving. Also, a lot of smaller carriers just don't have enough business to support relay points; they can't find enough return loads.

Findings from this study were consistent with other researchers citing *time at home* as a primary need for long-haul truck drivers (Large et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2017) and limiting driver time away from home as an effective driver retention strategy (Cole, 2018; Mittal et al., 2018; Prockl, Teller, Kotzab, & Angell, 2017). Millennials also prefer to work fewer hours in favor of time with family and friends (Catano & Morrow Hines, 2016; Linden, 2015). Although researchers (Lieb & Lieb, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014) promoted the benefits of relay scheduling for route optimization, findings from this study were mixed regarding the effectiveness of relay scheduling as a strategy for millennial long-haul driver retention.

The results of this study correlate with a demand-supplies conceptualization of PO fit. Long-haul drivers and millennial employees value time at home (Catano & Morrow Hines, 2016; Large et al., 2014; Linden, 2015; Williams et al., 2017). In terms of Kristof's integrative model of PO fit (see Figure 1), carrier leaders supplying opportunities matching millennial long-haul drivers' need for limited time away from home achieved PO fit and reported successful driver retention. In cases such as Carrier C's use of slip-seat relay operations and Carrier Z's use of team drivers, the opportunities carrier leaders supplied for drivers to have more time at home did not meet drivers' needs. Because PO fit did not exist in these cases, the strategies were ineffective for retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Theme 4: Driver Comfort While Away from Home

Regardless of millennial truck drivers' desire to avoid time away from home, shippers still need to move freight long distances (Lieb & Lieb, 2015; Rancourt & Paquette, 2014). In addition to strategies to shorten drivers' time away from home, Participants B1, D1, X1, X3, and Z4 reported their company leaders implemented retention strategies to make drivers more comfortable while away from home. Carrier B's drivers can spend the night at company-owned bunkhouse facilities along key routes. In Carrier B bunkhouses, drivers enjoy state-of-the-art personal rooms with extra soundproofing and independent temperature and lighting controls designed to allow drivers to sleep more comfortably. The Carrier B bunkhouse facilities also contain exercise rooms, shower areas, and a kitchen where drivers can prepare a home-cooked meal. As B1 explained,

> Really, the bunk houses serve two purposes. One, in some markets, it is difficult for drivers to find hotels and very expensive to find hotels. The average hotel rate in [redacted city name to protect company identity] right now is probably about $400 per night. Drivers can't afford that . . . The other reason is comfort for our drivers. In the bunk houses, we can control the comfort and we can control everything about the environment for our drivers.

According to B1, these bunkhouse facilities are popular with their drivers because drivers have a cleaner, safer, and more comfortable option for overnight stays, as compared to sleeping in their trucks or staying at public truck stops or motels. According to B1, the cost can be prohibitive for other carriers to maintain upgraded options for overnight driver accommodations. According to Carrier B's website, the bunkhouses have been an important factor in Carrier B's driver retention strategy because other carriers cannot duplicate this driver benefit easily. As B1 explained, only carriers with enough drivers travelling through a specific geographic area would find company-sponsored overnight driver accommodations cost effective as a retention strategy. For smaller carriers or carriers with less financial clout, providing comparable driver overnight accommodations is not likely to be an economical retention strategy.

Leaders at Carriers C, D, X, and Z have implemented a range of lower cost strategies to improve driver comfort away from home. At Carrier D's terminal facility, cooks prepare hot meals for long-haul drivers staying near the terminal on weekend layovers. As D1 stated, at company D terminals, "we also have a full kitchen onsite and this year we brought in a cook so that drivers on layover can have a hot meal on Saturday and Sunday". Carrier Z leaders preferentially assign long-haul drivers the company's newest, most comfortable trucks with the latest technology features. As Z4 explained, "we are already giving over-the-road drivers the newest equipment. Over-the-road drivers always get the new trucks when they come out, and the local and regional guys get their hand-me-downs". Carriers X and Z leaders provide drivers with education and tools for making healthier and safer choices while away from home. Participants C2, X3, and Z4 agreed that their lower cost strategies to improve driver comfort are not likely to attract new drivers; however, when implemented in conjunction with other themes identified in this study, the strategy can help with retaining millennial long-haul drivers. Participant X3 offered,

> They are taught from Day 1 what is expected and what it will be like. We teach them about what life on the road will be like, eating fast food and not being able to exercise and everything. I tell them to stay away from the greasy food and remind them they can have a refrigerator in their truck; so that helps give them options for better food choices. Also, there is enough room in their bunk cabs to do exercises like pushups and setups--and I encourage them to do that. I tell them to do some cardio while they are fueling their truck. So, we talk about the health aspects . . . As long as they know they will be paid well and that there are people here who will care and listen, they will tend to stick around.

The theme for improving driver comfort away from home as a strategy for driver retention is not widely addressed by researchers in the scholarly literature. Researchers have catalogued safety and health risks for drivers away from home (Apostolopoulos et al., 2014; Boyce, 2016; Lemke et al., 2015; Mansfield, 2014; Reiman et al., 2015). Other researchers have recommended that trucking company leaders educate drivers about health and safety risks while away from home (Apostolopoulos et al., 2014; Boyce, 2016; Lemke et al., 2015; Reiman et al., 2015). Black et al. (2017) recommended that carrier leaders evaluate cab designs to make trucks more comfortable for drivers while away from home. However, scholarly literature has been scant regarding the use of company-sponsored overnight accommodations and lifestyle amenities as a successful strategy for millennial long-haul driver retention.

The theme of driver comfort while away from home is consistent with both needs-supplies and supplementary fit conceptualizations of PO fit. Long-haul drivers value safety and a healthy lifestyle (Douglas & Swartz, 2016; Huang et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2017). Millennials value the availability of latest technology (Levy, 2015). When carrier leaders provide an environment that meets driver needs for safety, health, and technology, a needs-supplies PO fit exists. Alternatively, if long-haul drivers perceive carrier leaders as matching their values for safety, health, and technology, a supplementary conceptualization of PO fit exists. From the data collected in this study, it was not clear which conceptualization of PO fit is more appropriate to explain the theme of driver comfort while away from home as a successful retention strategy for millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Theme 5: Company Culture of Driver Appreciation

All participants mentioned a company culture of driver appreciation as an effective retention strategy for millennial long-haul drivers. Specific strategies I categorized as a culture of driver appreciation included regular communication with drivers, visibility of leadership, designated roles to focus on driver retention, and a no-layoff policy for drivers.

Participants D1, N2, X3, X7, and Z4 indicated that regular communication with drivers, especially during the first 90 days of employment, was an important retention strategy for maintaining millennial long-haul drivers. Participants D1 and X3 said that regular communication with drivers was their company's primary retention strategy for millennial long-haul drivers. Participants D1 and N2 indicated that their companies had formal programs to assure that a new driver has multiple communications with company leaders during the driver's first 90 days of employment. According to N2,

> We have also implemented a survey of new hires at 2 weeks after they have been released from training. Then again at 30, 60, and 90 days after their release from training, I contact new drivers to see how they are doing. New drivers are the most fragile during that time period. If during those calls we uncover an issue that can be addressed, we take steps to correct the problem.

Participant D1 also described a formal program for regular interactions with new drivers. According to D1,

> One of the things that we attribute a lot of our retention success to is a driver call log. What we do is have someone call a new driver right immediately after they finish orientation, usually someone from the Billing department to see if the driver has any questions about their invoice. Then at 6 weeks after onboarding, every new driver gets a call from the president of the company. At 8 weeks, they get a call from the Director of Operations. About every 4 weeks after that, they get a call from someone; and this goes on for their first year. A summary of all the calls go into a database, so our leaders can keep track of how all the new drivers are doing or if they are running in to any problem. We think this onboarding call that we implemented this year is strongly tied to our driver retention success.

Participant N2 reflected that regular communication was most effective for retaining drivers when company leaders were present in-person and spoke with drivers directly. Carrier N leaders communicate with drivers in-person while sharing a meal and expressed an appreciation of drivers' value to the company. The leaders let drivers know they understand the challenges drivers face when on the road. As N2 explained,

> We have started doing "lunch with leadership" where students in driving school can have lunch with the president, chairman of the board and some our VPs, whoever is available. The drivers get to hear firsthand from our leadership that they are valued all the way up to the chairman of the board. It is really about letting drivers know they are not just a number, but they are truly an individual with us. "Lunch with leadership" has been a fantastic program!

Leaders at Carriers N and Z promoted driver retention by engaging non-driving employees in the company's retention efforts. Carrier Z leaders incented supervisors and dispatchers to promote driver retention. "The incentive makes them better leaders and gives them incentive to help drivers through whatever problems they encounter," said Z1. Company N leaders demonstrated a culture of driver appreciation by assigning a retention role to a team tasked with leading the company's driver retention effort. As D1 explained,

> We have a driver retention team and we added 2 additional people to that team this year. So, we have 4 people on the team now who meet and look at new ideas for recruiting and retention. The retention team is made up of people in our recruiting and retention department, as well as our CFO.

Participants B1 and C2 said that a key way that their company leaders demonstrated appreciation for drivers was by maintaining a no-layoff policy. “It is a great retention tool to be able to tell drivers we haven’t had a layoff in over 50 years. That shows a culture of loyalty to our drivers even during slowdowns, so they are loyal to us,” according to C2. As C2 explained, the barrier for a no-layoff retention strategy is the time it takes for carrier leaders to build a no-layoff policy into their brand. Because building a no-layoff brand is difficult and takes time for others to duplicate, the strategy has proven effective for retaining millennial long-haul drivers for Carriers B and C.

The emerging theme of driver appreciation is consistent with other researchers’ assertions that long-haul drivers value appreciation, recognition, and praise (Kemp et al., 2013; Large et al., 2014; LeMay et al., 2013). The theme is also consistent with researchers positing that millennial employees value praise and recognition more than previous generations (Linden, 2015; Özçelik, 2015) and desire long-term employment commitments (Ng et al., 2010). The effectiveness of Carrier N and Z leaders’ strategies to engage non-driving employees in support of long-haul driver retention is in line with Campione’s (2015) findings that millennials experience greater job satisfaction in an environment of supportive co-workers.

Similar to the theme of driver comfort while away from home, the success of driver appreciation as a retention strategy for millennial long-haul truck drivers is consistent with both needs-supplies and supplementary fit conceptualizations of PO fit. Long-haul drivers and millennial employees value communication with leaders (Large et al., 2014; Linden, 2015; Özçelik, 2015). When carrier leaders provide an environment that meets drivers' needs for leadership support and regular communication, needs-supplies PO fit exists. Alternatively, if long-haul drivers perceive carrier leaders as matching their values for security and a stable workforce, a supplementary conceptualization of PO fit exists. It was not clear from the data collected in this study which conceptualization of PO fit is more appropriate to explain the theme of driver appreciation as a successful retention strategy for millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Applications to Professional Practice

The shortage of long-haul truck drivers affects most common carriers. Job hopping is a problem that many common carrier leaders face, and the problem is prevalent particularly among younger truck drivers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). Leaders' ability to retain younger long-haul drivers has become an important issue for business growth and sustainability for U.S. common carriers (American Transportation Research Institute, 2017). Some common carrier leaders have implemented strategies that have been successful for retaining millennial truck drivers. I interviewed nine leaders who described five general strategies that have been successful for their organizations to retain long-haul truck drivers, regardless of generations. These general strategies included: (a) strategic recruiting, (b) competitive compensation, (c) limiting driver time away from home, (d) facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and (e) demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation. These strategies align with the needs/demands of millennial long-haul drivers that researchers have reported (Boyce, 2016; El-Sakka, 2016; Kemp et al., 2013; Large et al., 2014; LeMay et al., 2013; Levy, 2015; Williams et al., 2017). Common carrier leaders who can use these strategies to tailor programs to fit driver needs are likely to be more successful at retaining millennial long-haul drivers.

Leaders must decide which retention strategy or combination of retention strategies works best for their organization. Leaders must weigh the cost of each strategy versus its potential effectiveness. Competitive compensation is an expensive proposition, but is a popular and effective strategy for retaining long-haul truck drivers (Cole, 2018; Nelson, 2015). For effective use of competitive compensation as a retention strategy, the carrier organization must be financially sound and have the profitability to sustain higher driver pay, even during periods of economic slowdown. Although strategic recruiting is an effective strategy, the widespread shortage of long-haul drivers may result in carrier leaders being less selective about hiring choices.

Carrier leaders who can recruit from the military or in southern or rural areas may experience success in using strategic recruiting as a retention strategy for millennial long-haul drivers. Because fewer higher-paying job options may be available in southern or rural areas, driver candidates from these areas may be more willing to compromise on traditional truck driver needs that (when unmet) can result in job hopping. Sponsoring training programs to recruit millennial drivers from these southern and rural areas may further increase retention but may prove too costly for some carriers. Limiting driver time away from home may be an option for companies that can thrive with a regional business focus or have large enough customer and driver networks to support relay scheduling. Given the inherent risk in changing a company's customer profile and market segment, carrier leaders may find switching to a regional business model a risky strategy for driver retention. At a minimum, carrier leaders could relax traditional scheduling policies to facilitate more flexibility for dispatchers to assign available regional routes to millennial drivers.

Other options for driver retention include increasing driver comfort while away from home and creating a company culture where drivers feel valued. Options for driver comfort away from home can vary widely in price, ranging from capital investments for providing company-sponsored driver accommodations to low cost options for providing drivers with training and resources for healthier lifestyle choices on the road. Creating a company culture of driver appreciation can also be a lower cost retention strategy. Leaders can show appreciation for drivers through regular communication during drivers' first 90 days of employment. Carrier leaders can also consider designating a person or team to lead their company's millennial driver retention efforts. A company culture of driver appreciation may not be enough to retain drivers in the absence of competitive compensation or limiting driver time away from home. However, in a company culture of driver appreciation, drivers may be less prone to job-hop among the highest paying companies.

Implications for Social Change

By conducting the current research, I added potential value to the trucking industry by providing common carrier leaders with examples of retention strategies that other company leaders have used successfully to retain millennial long-haul drivers. I described examples of strategies that worked, those that did not work, and the barriers companies faced when implementing truck driver retention strategies. Carrier leaders may use these lessons learned to strengthen their driver retention programs.

All members of the supply chain could benefit from improved driver retention. By implementing effective retention strategies, common carrier leaders could reduce driver turnover rates and operating costs, such as driver recruiting and training costs. If common carrier leaders pass a portion of the operating savings on to their customers, shippers could pay lower transportation costs and could ultimately result in consumers paying less for goods.

By conducting the current research, I could make a contribution to positive social change by improving job satisfaction and retention for long-haul truck drivers. When trucking company leaders can retain enough long-haul drivers to meet their customers' shipping needs, the result can be improved freight reliability for U.S. supply chains. Because truck driver turnover can also impact carrier safety (Miller et al., 2017), study findings may also make a contribution to positive social change by helping carrier leaders to improve their company's safety performance, making U.S. roadways safer for truck drivers and motorists.

Recommendations for Action

Common carrier leaders with operations in the southwestern region of the United States who lack strategies to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers should review the results of this study. After considering their organizations' specific business goals, financial stability, and competitive landscape, carrier leaders should evaluate which general themes of retention strategies work best for their organizations to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. Leaders of all common carriers could potentially benefit from cultivating an organizational culture of driver appreciation. Leaders of more financially stable trucking companies should consider bolstering their performance in all five of the general retention themes: (a) strategic recruiting, (b) competitive compensation, (c) limiting driver time away from home, (d) facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and (e) demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation. Larger firms may also consider adding a position or task force to focus on driver retention specifically.

For smaller or less financially stable companies, strategies for strategic recruiting, limiting time away from home, and demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation might be good options for millennial truck driver retention. Leaders of smaller companies could target recruiting from southern states or rural areas of the United States. If possible, leaders at smaller companies could also focus on a more regional customer base to limit driver time away from home. In some cases, leaders of smaller companies can partner with other common carrier leaders to form a distribution network where the territory of each region is more local and drivers can share a terminal switch point. To use a shared terminal switch point, leaders would need to ensure that distribution plans would not significantly slow down the delivery of customers' freight.

Leaders of common carriers specializing in bulk liquid transport face special challenges because there are fewer bulk liquid transporters with whom these leaders can partner. For bulk liquid transporters, leaders should focus on competitive compensation and increasing driver comfort while away from home. To offset more competitive compensation, leaders may need to increase pricing to customers. Leaders should also work with bulk liquid shippers to reduce driver wait times during loading and unloading.

I recommend that leaders at trucking industry research organizations such as American Trucking Association or American Trucking Research Institute publish or reference the key findings of this study in industry trade journals and at trucking industry symposia. Supply chain personnel, particularly those with responsibility for shipping/receiving and transportation procurement, receiving service from common carriers in the target population should also review the results of the study. Supply chain personnel should ensure that employees such as warehouse personnel, buyers, and logistics planners interacting directly with carriers receive awareness training regarding the findings from this study and how their jobs' can impact carriers' ability to retain truck drivers.

Recommendations for Further Research

I conducted a qualitative multiple case study on the strategies that common carrier leaders with operations in the southwestern region of the United States have used to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers. I used a sample size of nine participants from six different common carrier organizations. My conceptual framework for understanding results was Chatman's (1989) PO fit theory. One recommendation for further study is for researchers to conduct qualitative studies using different conceptual frameworks to explain findings.

My sample population was nine leaders from common carrier organizations with operations in the southwestern region of the United States. The economy in the southwestern region of the United States has a strong oil/gas and petrochemical industry that could constitute a special condition because of factors such as additional driver certification requirements for hazardous material handling, increased safety concerns, and higher driver pay for the common carriers that have operations in this geographic area. Other researchers could conduct studies with a larger of number of participants from other geographic areas for more generalizable results. Researchers could study also conduct a study limited to participants from bulk liquid transporters to understand the particular driver retention strategies and challenges associated with this niche of the trucking industry.

Additional studies are also needed to validate findings from my study. Based on a non-statistical comparison of participants' reported driver turnover rates versus reported driver pay, the findings of this study are consistent with other researchers' assertion that competitive pay rate is the most effective strategy for retention of millennial long-haul truck drivers (Cole, 2018; Nelson, 2015). I recommend that researchers conduct quantitative or mixed methods studies to examine the statistical relationship between turnover rates and retention strategies such as driver pay. I focused my study on the perspectives of carrier leaders. Another recommendation would be for researchers to conduct studies to explore driver retention strategies from the perspective of millennial long-haul truck drivers directly. I delimited my study to retention strategies for millennial long-haul drivers. Although participants in my study discussed recruitment strategies, I recommend that researchers conduct further studies to explore strategies common carrier leaders could use for more effective driver recruiting. Finally, to test an assertion from participant C2 in my study, researchers could conduct a quantitative or ethnographic study to determine whether millennial long-haul drivers entering the profession through an apprentice program at age 21 or younger have higher retention than those who did not.

Reflections

The DBA doctoral study process was both a challenging and rewarding experience for me. The most difficult part of the process was limiting the scope of the study. It was daunting to sift through the scholarly works regarding the trucking industry and employee retention to narrow down the topic to a manageable research question. In hindsight, I probably could have narrowed the scope of my study even further to bulk liquid long-haul carriers only. Nevertheless, I increased my knowledge by conducting the literature review and through collecting data from participants in several different segments of the trucking industry.

While planning data collection, I thought it would be easier to secure participants from all three desired functions, namely operations/logistics, training, and HR, within individual organizations. I was surprised by the lack of volunteers from the HR function. As I anticipated, participants were hesitant for me to ask their company leaders to sign letters of cooperation, even though I assured participants I would keep participant and company identities confidential. Also, I did not gain any significant data from following the observation protocol. In retrospect, I could have used phone interviews for data collection rather than face-to-face interviews or videoconferencing.

The study findings did not support some of my original biases. I was surprised to learn how closely participants associated recruiting with employee retention. Even though I limited my research question and interview questions to the topic of retention, most participants discussed retention and recruiting as virtually interchangeable topics. The study findings did not support my preconceived idea that significant differences exist in retention rates for millennials versus older generations of long-haul truck drivers.

Conclusion

Trucking is an integral part of the U.S. supply chain. Despite growing freight demand, U.S. common carrier leaders are experiencing constrained business growth due to an increasing shortage of qualified truck drivers. Leaders' ability to minimize job hopping of younger long-haul drivers has become an important issue for business growth and sustainability for U.S. common carriers. Based on the conceptual framework of PO fit, some leaders of common carriers with operations in the southwestern region of the United States have implemented strategies that have proven successful to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers.

Common carriers have successfully retained millennial long-haul truck drivers by implementing strategies with one or more basic aims: (a) strategic recruiting, (b) competitive compensation, (c) limiting driver time away from home, (d) facilitating driver comfort while away from home, and (e) demonstrating a company culture of driver appreciation. Leaders' selections of retention strategies were informed by the organization's size, financial health, industry segment, and business model. Common carrier leaders lacking strategies for effective driver retention can evaluate their organization's strengths and goals to determine which of these proven retention strategies might be effective for their organizations to retain millennial long-haul truck drivers.

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Appendix C: E-Mail Invitation to Participate in Research

I am a graduate student working on a Doctorate in Business Administration at Walden University. I have reached the point in the doctoral program where I am nearly ready to begin collecting data for my capstone doctoral study. The purpose of my doctoral study will be to explore the strategies carriers have used successfully to retain truck drivers, especially long-haul drivers under age 35 (i.e. millennials). I want to learn more about what strategies have been successful and why they were successful. The results of the study may be beneficial to trucking company leaders by helping them retain enough drivers to meet their customers' shipping demands and by reducing employee turnover costs related to driver recruitment and training.

For the study, I am looking to interview leaders who work in LOGISTICS/ OPERATIONS, HUMAN RESOURCES or TRAINING functions of for-hire carrier organizations. The interview would be in person probably sometime within the next few weeks and would be scheduled for 60 - 90 minutes at a time convenient for each participant. The interview is expected to take about 45 minutes, but I want to allow plenty of time for discussion.

If you are interested in participating in the study, please review the attached Informed Consent form for participation requirements. If you meet the participation requirements and want to know more about participating in the study, please contact me via e-mail at [redacted] or by phone (8AM – 10 PM CDT) at [redacted]. **A response by Friday, April 20, 2018 would be greatly appreciated**, so that I can begin data collection for my study as soon as possible.

I can share more details about the study and the interview process during our initial conversation. I am excited about conducting the study and sharing what I learn during my research.

Sincerely,

Debra Washington

Appendix D: Interview Protocol

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Interview Protocol</th></tr>
<tr><th>What you will do</th><th>What you will say— talking points</th></tr>
<tr><td>Introduce the interview and set the stage</td><td>- Thanks for taking time from your no-doubt busy schedule to meet with me.
- Review background of doctoral study
- Review ethics guidelines from participant consent letter
- I will be audio recording. Is that OK?
- I will also take handwritten notes during the interview.
- No compensation or consideration for participation
- Participants' identities will be protected
- Participants can ask to stop interview at any time and for any reason
- I will provide participants an opportunity to review interview transcript for accuracy prior to publishing the study results
- Original files will be securely stored, then destroyed after 5 years
- Are you ready to begin? (Start both audio recording devices)</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Confirm demographic information
• Watch for non-verbal queues
• Paraphrase as needed
• Ask follow-up probing questions to get more in depth</td><td>ICEBREAKER / DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS:
Ask closed-ended questions specific to each organization/participant to collect information needed for rich sample population description.

Gender: Male: ______ Female: _____ Other: _____

Ethnicity: ___________________________

Generation:
Millennial: ___
Gen X: ____
Baby Boomer: ____

Education Level: ___________________________________</td></tr>
</table>

	1. What specific strategies has your company used to retain millennial long-haul drivers?
	2. How did you decide which strategies to use for retaining millennial long-haul drivers?
	3. How has your organization changed its policies/practices to facilitate retention of millennial long-haul drivers?
	4. What barriers to implementing the strategies did you encounter?
	5. How did you address the barriers to implementing the strategies?
	6. How did you assess the effectiveness of the strategies you used for retaining millennial long-haul drivers?
	7. What other experiences have you had related to retention of millennial long-haul drivers that you would like to share?
Wrap up interview thanking participant	This discussion has been very informative. Thank you again for taking the time to share your experiences with me on this topic.
Schedule follow-up member checking interview	I will prepare a transcript and interview summary over the next week. I will e-mail it to you for your review to make sure I have captured your thoughts accurately. I should take you 10-30 minutes to review the interview summary. If you see anything that needs to be revised, please let me know within a week. And if everything is OK, it would be very helpful to me if you could still respond within a week to let me know you approve. Let me confirm that your e-mail address is ……. You will receive the interview transcript by *xxxx* (*date one week after interview date*).

Appendix E: Observation Protocol

Participant # ____________________ Date of observation: _________
Observation Setting /Time: ____

____

Observation instructions: I will conduct the observation incidentally with the face-to-face interview on the date and time scheduled with the participant. I will observe the participant for the duration of the interview, approximately 60-90 minutes. During and immediately after the interview, I will record observation notes regarding participant's behaviors, gestures, and facial expressions.

Descriptive behaviors	Topic / Interview Question	Reflective notes

Appendix F: Summary of Participants' Employers

Company ID	Company size	% long-haul drivers	Est. % millennial drivers	Est. % driver turnover	Est. % millennial driver turnover	Retention definition	Services offered
B	Large	10%	No data	"one of the lowest in our industry"	"low"	No data	Packages
C	Large	"not a lot"	No data	"around 5%"	"Slightly higher than non-millennials"	6 mo.	Packages
D	Small	"most"	10%	"pretty high"	"no data"	12 mo.	Packages
N	Small	80%	10%	50+%	"not much different" than non-millennials	24 mo.	Liquid bulk
X	Large	100%	20-30%	75%	"maybe slighter higher" than non-millennials	No data	Packages
Z	Medium	"most"	No data	30%	"same as non-millennials"	6 mo.	Liquid bulk

Note. Company size: Small = fewer than 400 drivers, Medium = 400 to 1,000 drivers, and Large = more than 1,000 drivers.

Appendix G: Methods for Assessing Effectiveness of Retention Strategies

ID	Assessment method	Participant								
		B1	C2	Z1	Z4	X1	X3	X7	N2	D1
K1	Employee surveys		Y			Y			Y	Y
K2	Exit interviews	Y	Y		Y	Y			Y	
K3	Experience/ tribal knowledge				Y					
K4	Informal communication			Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	
K5	Waiting list of applicants				Y					
K6	Retention rates		Y	Y	Y	Y			Y	Y
K7	Feedback from applicants			Y						

Note. Y = implemented strategies

Appendix H: Emerging Themes for Recruiting Strategies

ID	Theme	Participant								
		B1	C2	Z1	Z4	X1	X3	X7	N2	D1
1	**Strategic Recruitment**	Y							Y	
A1	Offer truck driver training programs		Y							
A2, A11	Apprenticeship/early employment programs	Y	Y	Y						
A3	Recruit from south					Y				Y
A4	Recruit from military				Y					
A5	Setting expectations during recruiting		Y	Y			Y			
A6	Screening out job-hoppers			Y		Y				
A8	Referrals from employees	Y								Y
2	**Competitive Compensation**	Y	Y	Y	Y					Y
B1	Pay raises			Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
B2	Pay by hour/profitability versus miles driven			Y			Y			
B3	Pay for detention (1-2 hours) or weekend layovers			Y					Y	Y
B4	Sign-on bonuses (amount, payoff over X months)					Y				
B5	Performance bonuses (profit-sharing, safety)		Y	Y	Y					
C3	Bonus for referrals									Y
C8	Overtime pay									
C1	401k, with matching	Y	Y	Y						
C2	Pension		Y							
C4	Help pay for truck				Y					
C5	Tuition reimbursement/assistance						Y		Y	
C6	License and certification reimbursement								Y	
C7	Paid days off (holidays, personal days)	Y		Y		Y				
3	**Limit Driver Time Away from Home**									
D1	Relay operation, including slip-seat relays	Y	F							Y
D2	Seek more regional hauls / shorter routes		Y					Y	Y	Y
D3	Flexibility in route assignment / driver profiling		Y	Y					Y	Y
D4	Work with shippers to reduce detention time at loading/unloading							Y		
D5	Seek more routes with no hands-on freight handling		Y							
D6	Use to team drivers				F					
D7	Scheduling policy to limit days away from home			Y					Y	

ID	Theme	Participant								
		B1	C2	Z1	Z4	X1	X3	X7	N2	D1
4	**Improve Driver Comfort When Away from Home**									
E1	Overnight accommodations	Y								
E2	Hot meals									Y
E3	Offer latest technology (new trucks, cameras, GPS, etc.)					Y				
E4	Education re: healthier lifestyle while over-the-road				Y		Y			
5	**Company culture of driver appreciation**	Y	Y							Y
F1	Regular communication with drivers			Y			<u>Y</u>	Y	Y	<u>Y</u>
F2	Visibility and accessibility of leadership								Y	
F3	Express value for drivers	Y		Y		Y	Y			
F4	Driver retention focus team									Y
G1	Family atmosphere	Y								Y
G2	Honesty/integrity				Y					
G3	Employee loyalty/no layoff policy	Y	Y							
G4	Community service	Y								
B6	Supervisors/dispatchers incentives for driver retention			Y						
E5	No weekend work	Y								
E6	No holiday work	Y								
A9	Promotion opportunity		Y							
X	**Retention strategies not specific to millennials**	Y	Y	Y	Y	<u>Y</u>		Y	Y	Y

Note. Y = implemented strategies, F = failed strategies, and <u>Y</u> = primary strategy.

Appendix I: Implementation Barriers

ID	Barrier	Participant								
		B1	C2	Z1	Z4	X1	X3	X7	N2	D1
J1	Understanding millennials needs		Y	Y		Y				Y
J2	Giving up short-term profits – vs long-term sustainability & new business	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y		Y
J3	Passing costs to shippers			Y						
J4	Maximizing truck efficiency		Y	Y						
J5	Cultural resistance – not accepting/tolerating millennials' needs		Y	Y		Y	Y	Y		
J6	Engaging shippers & consignees	Y		Y						
J7	Low unemployment rate	Y								
J8	Meet customers' needs/expectations		Y							
J9	Poor communication with drivers		Y			Y				
J10	Undesirable Business location		Y							Y
J11	Pay structure				Y					
J12	Recruiter incentives not supportive of retention			Y						

Note. Y = implemented strategies.