Motives Why Employees at Fort McPherson Accepted or Rejected Their Relocation

Tashan Renea Whitsett

Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Part of the Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons
This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Tashan Whitsett

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects, and that any and all revisions required by the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Branford McAllister, Committee Chairperson, Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Dr. Diane Stottlemyer, Committee Member, Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Dr. Howard Schechter, University Reviewer, Applied Management and Decision Sciences Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017
Abstract

Motives Why Employees at Fort McPherson Accepted or Rejected Their Relocation Offer

by

Tashan Renea Whitsett

MBA, City University, 1999

BA, Evergreen State College, 1995

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Applied Management and Decision Sciences

Walden University

2017
Abstract

Base closures and relocations reduce costs to the Department of Defense but necessitate the relocation of personnel, organizations, and functions. When Fort McPherson closed, Fort Bragg received the organization’s personnel and equipment. The problem in this study was the lack of knowledge and understanding within the U.S. military, especially among civil service and contractor employees affected by realignments and closures, regarding (a) the decision process to accept or reject offers to relocate, (b) the potential health effects related to relocating, and (c) the effect that personnel relocations and losses have on the military mission. This study is essential because no scholarly research exists that would help individuals to make sound decisions and enable military leadership to understand the impacts to people and missions. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to delve deeply into the personnel issues among those affected by an actual relocation. The conceptual framework included cognitive learning theory, social learning theory, and the theory of planned behavior, all focused on how individuals make decisions. Purposeful sampling was used to select 24 DoD employees from different career fields for semistructured interviews. Transcripts were analyzed, showing that family, retirement, health, and financial factors were the most frequent themes in the decision-making process. The implication for social change is to improve the awareness of all stakeholders in the relocation process regarding the challenges faced by personnel, both assisting people making the decision to relocate and improving communications by military leadership to those affected. The outcome would be a smoother, more effective, and more efficient relocation process and minimal impact on the military mission.
Motives Why Employees at Fort McPherson Accepted or Rejected Their Relocation Offer

by

Tashan Renea Whitsett

MBA, City University, 1999
BA, Evergreen State College, 1995

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Applied Management and Decision Sciences

Walden University
May 2017
Dedication

This research is dedicated to my parents, Richard and Stella Smith, who instilled the desire for education within me and always conveyed the importance of education to me. In addition, I dedicate this study and the importance of hard work, commitment, and knowledge to my family. This study is dedicated to my husband Navarro, who believes that I am a lifelong student and that I will be in school just learning and learning until the day I can’t learn anymore. I dedicate this dissertation to my daughters Sierra and Navaria, in hopes that they will instill the desire for education in their children. I want to ensure that they understand that once a degree is earned, no one can ever take it away. I will commit to giving back what I learned to help others. I contribute this research to all civil service and contractor employees who have decided to relocate from or to remain at a military installation because of a BRAC decision. By conducting this study, I hope that I can empower current and future employees with knowledge so that they can be advocates for improvements to the relocation BRAC process.
Acknowledgments

I would, first of all, like to thank God. Through him, all things are possible, no matter what! There were many times when I said, “Is this degree worth the headache and stress that I am having?” At those times, self-talk kicked in: I called on Jesus, and he gave me strength.

I would like to give a special recognition to all my colleagues at Walden University. We all supported one another throughout this journey. The continuous support system helped me, and I am so grateful.

I would like to acknowledge Dr. Duane Tway, my first chair, who was with me at the beginning of my journey. Three quarters of the way toward the end of my final draft, as I was going into oral brief, Dr. Tway passed away. Dr. Tway was a mentor, chair, and a friend. However, his death did not delay my progress, and Dr. Branford McAllister, who was my methodologist, stepped up and became my chair. Dr. McAllister has given me great guidance, and for that, I am so thankful. In the interim of getting a new committee member, I went through numerous bios to find a perfect fit on my committee. Dr. Diane Stottlemyer agreed to be on my committee after one of my committee members had to step down for unknown reasons. I would like to thank Dr. Stottlemyer for her expertise in content. I offer special thanks to Dr. Howard Schechter, my university research reviewer, KAM reviewer on my KAM5, and facility presenter at two of my residencies, with whom I became well acquainted and with whom I spoke on several occasions during my program. Dr. Schechter gave me great feedback and pushed me to exceed during my KAM5. I really appreciated his involvement, because his honest
encouragement helped me along the way not to take anything lightly during my capstone period. One thing Dr. Schechter told me at the residency that remains embedded in my head is, “Make sure your topic is something you can talk about ten years and beyond. This will help you know if it is something interesting.” I thank him for all his guidance, wisdom, and encouragement.

I would like to give special acknowledgements to my family, friends, sorority sisters, and coworkers who called, emailed, and texted me to check on my well-being throughout this process. I want to say thanks for the continuing to ask me “when are you going to finish,” or saying “are you done yet?” Believe it or not, those questions kept me going.

Last, to all the participants in my study, I could not have done the analysis without your responses. Thank you for taking the time to participate in the interview.
Table of Contents

List of Tables ..................................................................................................................... vi
List of Figures ................................................................................................................... vii
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study....................................................................................1
  Background ....................................................................................................................3
  Problem Statement .........................................................................................................5
  Purpose of the Study .......................................................................................................6
  Research Questions .........................................................................................................6
  Conceptual Framework ..................................................................................................7
  Nature of the Study .........................................................................................................9
  Definitions ....................................................................................................................10
  Assumptions .................................................................................................................13
  Scope and Delimitations ..............................................................................................14
  Limitations ....................................................................................................................15
  Significance ..................................................................................................................16
  Summary ......................................................................................................................17
Chapter 2: Literature Review .............................................................................................19
  Literature Search Strategy ............................................................................................20
  History and Development of BRAC ............................................................................20
  Conceptual Foundation ................................................................................................21
    Social Learning Theory (Bandura) ....................................................................... 22
    Cognitive Learning Theory (Piaget) ........................................................................ 24
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3: Research Method</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Rationale and Design</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative Versus Quantitative</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choosing Among Qualitative Approaches</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Design</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of the Researcher</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant Selection Logic</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling Strategy</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumentation and Design</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures for Participation and Data Collection</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis Plan</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issues of Trustworthiness</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependability</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirmability</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferability</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Procedures</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 4: Results ............................................................................................................118
Field Test ...................................................................................................................120
Setting. .......................................................................................................................121
Data Collection ..........................................................................................................121
Demographics ............................................................................................................122
Data Analysis .............................................................................................................126
Evidence of Trustworthiness ......................................................................................134
Results........................................................................................................................135
Research Question 1 ........................................................................................... 135
Research Question 2 ........................................................................................... 141
Research Question 3 ........................................................................................... 147
Overarching Common Themes ........................................................................... 153
Themes Not Linked to Research Questions ........................................................ 154
Summary ....................................................................................................................159

Chapter 5: Summary, Discussion, Recommendations, Implications, and

Conclusion ...............................................................................................................162

Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings .........................................................164
Research Question 1 ........................................................................................... 164
Research Question 2 ........................................................................................... 167
Research Question 3 ........................................................................................... 169
Subquestion 1 ...................................................................................................... 171
Subquestion 2 ...................................................................................................... 172
List of Tables

Table 1. Piaget’s Stages of Cognitive Development ....................................................... 42
Table 2. Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics for Civil Service Employees ($n = 11$) ........................................................................................................................... 123
Table 3 Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics for Contractor Employees ($n = 13$) ........................................................................................................................... 125
Table 4. Coding Process ................................................................................................. 128
Table 5. Civil Service Codes .......................................................................................... 129
Table 6. Contractor Codes .............................................................................................. 130
Table 7. Categorization Process ...................................................................................... 131
Table 8. Categories Created During Analysis................................................................. 132
Table 9. Themes with Number of Responses ................................................................. 133
Table 10. Subquestion 3 Responses ................................................................................ 152
List of Figures

Figure 1. A depiction of the TPB decision process. ......................................................... 26

Figure 2. Bandura’s three alternative components of interaction. ................................. 44

Figure 3. Decision-making progress. ................................................................................ 46

Figure 4. A depiction of the data analysis process. ......................................................... 126

Figure 5. Reaction to relocation. ..................................................................................... 136

Figure 6. Effect on health. ............................................................................................. 142

Figure 7. Reaction to relocation offer. .......................................................................... 149

Figure 8. Overarching themes. ...................................................................................... 154

Figure 9. Unlinked themes. ........................................................................................... 155
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Decision-making is a cognitive process that involves making a selection from several possible courses of action (Morris, 2005). Every individual goes through the decision-making process daily, and a final choice occurs with every decision made. Once an individual makes a decision, the individual must realize that the decision can have a domino effect, which can generate major life transformations. According to Morris, in order to understand decision-making, an individual not only has to be aware of the choices, but also has to know that decision-making is linked to (a) autonomy, (b) satisfaction, (c) control, and (d) power. The scholarly theories framed around these links include cognitive learning theory (CLT), social learning theory (SLT), and theory of planned behavior (TPB). The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why employees accepted or rejected their relocation offers.

Research from private sector organizational studies exists on employees’ motives for relocating or not relocating, and includes the negative or positive issues associated with the final decision. Researchers have indicated that employees who work in private sector organizations made the decision to relocate or not based their motives on a number of considerations such as psychological health concerns (Kristense, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2008), well-being (Cuyper & Witte, 2006; Leach et al., 2010; Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid, & Lucas, 2012), family (Bakker, Demerouti, & Doilar, 2008), financial (Ng, Sorensen, Eby, & Feldman, 2007), and career (Sagie, Krausz, & Weinstain, 2001; Giles & Rea, 1999). These common factors regarding why private sector employees
accept or reject relocation offers served as a foundation for this research study through the interview questions. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees at Fort McPherson accepted or rejected the offer to relocate to Fort Bragg, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. Muhammad and Hassan (2012) noted that employees relocated because of financial reasons. Hippler (2009) found that employees working for international and domestic organizations were equally divided in terms of making the decision to relocate for promotion and financial reasons. Fouad and Bynner (2008) revealed that transition among employees is different in terms of age and at what stage the employee is in his or her work life. Morris (2005) established that everyone has a way of assessing a situation and making a decision.

As previously stated, psychological health concerns, well-being, family, financial, and career are common factors covered in scholarly literature on private sector employees and relocation. More specifically, information exists regarding private sector employees’ motives for accepting or rejecting relocation. This study was focused on the reasons why civil service and contractor employees within the public sector make the decision to move or not move. In my research, I examined the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission when an Army base realigns, closes, and relocates.
The implication for social change is to improve the Base Realignment and Closure (BRAC) process overall by assisting people making a decision to relocate or not, identifying potential health effects, explaining the effect on the military mission, and enhancing communications during the process. The next sections in this chapter include the background of the issue, problem statement, purpose, research questions, conceptual framework, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitation, limitations, significance of the study, and the summary.

**Background**

My research was centered on the 2005 BRAC law (U.S. Department of Defense [DoD], 2005), which I will refer to as BRAC 2005 from this point forward. BRAC 2005 closed Fort McPherson, an Army base located in East Point, Georgia, and relocated its units and civil service and contractor employees to Fort Bragg, North Carolina. The participants included civil service and contractor employees who decided to relocate or not relocate from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. I investigated civil service and contractor employees from Fort McPherson who were affected by BRAC during the years 2005–2011, when the decision was made to realign, relocate, and close this base.

Base realignment and closure is not new to the Department of Defense community. According to the U.S. DoD (2005) BRAC Report, BRAC originated in the 1960s with the objective of reducing the base structure created during World War II and the Korean War. In view of political and economic outcomes, base closures were the subject of discussions during the 1965 legislative sessions, which required the DoD to report the results of base closures to Congress (U.S. DoD, 2005). In 1977, President
Carter approved Public Law 95-82 (Global Security, n.d.), which required the DoD to notify Congress when a base was a candidate for reduction or closure, and required researchers to conduct studies every 5 years on the strategic basing plan and the environmental and local economy effect of a base closure.

The U.S. DoD (2005) BRAC Report indicated that the 1980s closures were the biggest cuts, resulting in the relocation, realignment, or closure of more than 350 military facilities, bases, and installations with excess capacity in such resources as people, land, and buildings, all in an effort to save money. In 2005, the United States Congress voted on a new round of base realignments and closures, where many organizations from different branches (Army, Air Force, Navy, and the Marine Corps) were co-located on the same base. This transition included force structure and units returning from overseas. The U.S. DoD (2005) BRAC Report revealed that cuts in resources from previous BRACs saved taxpayers more than $16 billion, with more than $6 billion in additional savings annually from the reduction in resources that were removed because of the closures.

As BRAC studies are likely to continue in the future, more and more civil service and contractor employees will be forced to accept or reject offers to relocate. Therefore, the objective of this study was to uncover (a) the motives of civil service and contractor employees who make the decision to accept or reject offers to relocate, (b) any potential health effects from the decisions that these employees made, and (c) the effect on the military mission of these employees’ decisions when an Army base closes because of a BRAC resolution. The gap in knowledge is lack of research into the factors that affect
civil service and contractor employees’ decisions to accept or reject the option to relocate, any potential health effects from the decision, and the effect on the military mission from relocation. As I will show in detail in Chapter 2, considerable research exists on the private sector; however, there is little scholarly research regarding the many implications of military base realignments and closures.

**Problem Statement**

The problem is that there is lack of knowledge and understanding regarding the motives behind the decisions made by civil service and contractor employees to accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects, and the effect on the military mission. Kristense, Borritz, Villadsen, and Christensen (2008); Cuyper and Witte (2006); Leach et al. (2010); Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid, and Lucas (2012); Bakker, Demerouti, and Doilar (2008); and Ng, Sorensen, Eby, and Feldman (2007) investigated the motives that private sector organizations use in efforts to bring awareness aimed toward costs, family, and prevention of health. Ng et al. examined the motives among private sector employees. However, among civil service and contractor employees, as well as the military, no investigation has been done to understand the motives behind accepting or rejecting relocation offers related to costs, family, and prevention of health issues. The lack of research into stress and anxiety among civil service and contractor employees is not documented in the literature. Morris (2005) indicated that in the private sector, employees’ stress and anxiety are associated with whether to move or not with an organization. According to Morris, stress and anxiety were the highest concerns among people who relocated or not in private sector organizations. Thus, the problem is that,
while potential motives exist for accepting or rejecting offers to relocate among private sector employees, such motives are unclear for public sector civil service and contractor employees.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees at Fort McPherson accepted or rejected the offer to relocate to Fort Bragg, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. Interviews were conducted and data analysis revealed information that may be needed to increase the knowledge of individuals who are employed by the DoD. The results of this study may provide improvements to and approaches for future realignments, closures, and relocations for military bases.

**Research Questions**

In this exploratory case study, the open-ended research questions were based on *how*, *why*, and *what* regarding the topic of study. Zin (2003) indicated that these words at the beginning of the sentence are appropriate for the case study method. I designed the research questions to answer the purpose of this study, which was to examine the motives that lead civil service and contractor employees to decide whether to relocate. The main question in this research was, Why did civil service and contractor employees accept or reject the offer to relocate because of this BRAC? The research questions and subquestions were the following:
Research Question 1: How do civil service and contractor employees differ in their decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate?

Research Question 2: How did accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate affect civil service and contractor employee health?

Research Question 3: What are the impacts on the military mission in terms of why a civil service and contractor employee accepts or reject the offer to relocate?

The subquestions were as follows:

Subquestion 1: What financial factors contribute to acceptance or rejection of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 2: What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 3: What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer?

**Conceptual Framework**

In this study, I drew upon three foundational theories to understand the motives behind the decisions made by civil service and contractor employees to accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects, and the effect on the military mission. I explored CLT, SLT, and TPB to lay the foundation of the study. According to Prehar (2001), researchers have applied these three theories to analyze private sector employees’ intentions and decisions. However, there is no evidence in the scholarly literature that the theories have been applied to public sector employees, and specifically employees of the DoD.
In the cognitive development theory that Piaget (1952) hypothesized, the development of human intelligence provided an understanding into the thought process. This theory has four stages: (a) sensorimotor, (b) preoperational, (c) concrete operational, and (d) formal operational. In this study, I used the formal operational stage to explain how individuals draw conclusions. This stage in the theory suggested that individuals draw conclusions from information that is available in phases.

In SLT, Bandura (1978) suggested that individuals make decisions based on self-generated influences. I used this theory from the perspective of how individuals learn from direct experience, or through observation, imitation, or modeling (self-generalization). Therefore, in this study, I investigated Bandura’s self-generated influences to see how they are connected to making decisions about accepting or rejecting relocation offers.

Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) TPB helped to explain how situations can change the behavior in people. Ajzen and Fishbein’s TPB established that individuals make decisions rationally and systematically based on available information. This theory suggests that a decision to relocate with a job may be based on individual standards. The authors developed a decision-making model that maps decision-making components, which are behavioral beliefs, attitudes toward the behavior, normative beliefs, subjective norms, control beliefs, perceived behavioral control, and intentions.

As derived from the literature, theories associated with (a) managing change, (b) leadership, (c) organizations, (d) community, (e) psychological health issues, (f) cognitive issues, and (g) behavior helped make the connection with relocation decision-
making. Winchell’s (2009) empirical evidence in managing change allowed me to analyze how organizations convince employees to relocate. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler’s (2008) perspectives were from the standpoint of the changes in leadership, organizations, community, and placement theory phases.

**Nature of the Study**

I used a qualitative approach and case study method. The case study method was the most appropriate of the qualitative methods, which are narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, and grounded theory (see Yin, 2003) for this study. Case study research is appropriate for this study because it is used to examine real-life situations and provide a foundation for the submission of ideas and experiences (see Yin, 2003). I chose a case study method because this approach enabled me to explore the topic of study through a variety of perspectives, which allowed for a more thorough examination of the issue. An advantage of the case study design was that it enables intimate interaction between the researcher and participants, thereby allowing participants to describe their experiences (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). By obtaining information filtered through the lens of the participants, a researcher is better able to comprehend their actions (Robottom & Hart, 1993). This approach enabled me to explore the topic of study through a variety of perspectives, which allowed for a more thorough examination of the issue. In Chapter 3, each of the qualitative methods is explained in detail and why I did not select them.

The participants in this study were from a variety of career positions and were selected from respondents to a flyer that I created to recruit civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected offers to relocate. Individuals received this flyer in
public facilities (e.g., gym and apartment reader board) off base and through social media. Participant selection occurred through snowball sampling. I based the sample size of this study on Charmaz’s (2006) and Yin’s (2003) recommendations of 20–25 for a case study. Data collection involved open-ended questions during semistructured interviews.

Once the interviews were complete, I entered the data into a software program called NVivo 10 (QSR International). Using this qualitative data analysis software, I evaluated interview transcripts by coding the responses. The categorization of the data facilitated precise analysis of the responses.

Definitions

*Anxiety*: An individual’s temporary state of being nervous or worried; it affects how an individual handles situations (Payne & Scott, 2010).

*Attitude*: Mental state that affects one’s feelings and values, and causes a person to act in a certain way (Ajzen, 1991).


*Behavioral intention*: Both attitude and subjective norms about a particular individual, and when an individual is ready to engage or perform a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

*Civil service employee*: A person employed in the U.S. Civil Service pay system above the wage grade pay level, which means that employees are compensated by environmental differentials and not by job grading. This includes the majority of white
collar personnel employed in professional, technical, administrative, and clerical positions (Defense Technical Information Center, n.d).

*Cognitive learning theory (CLT):* This theory defines the development of human intelligence and the understanding into the thought process (Piaget, 1952).

*Contractor:* An individual who works in an organization but is temporary under a contract that specifies the duties that he or she will perform in the organization. The contract is usually renewed annually (Defense Acquisition Portal, n.d).

*Decision-making characteristics:* These are unique ways to assess a situation, information gathering, coming up with alternatives, making a selection, and taking action (Morris, 2005).

*Depression:* Mental feelings that affect an individual’s behavior, thoughts, and physical being (Payne & Scott, 2010).

*Family:* This includes the civil service or contract employee’s spouse, significant other, children, or dependent he or she supports (Bakker et al., 2008).

*Habit measure:* The acquired pattern of behavior because of frequent repetition (Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003).


*Private sector:* Part of the economy that is not under the direction of the government (Defense Acquisition Portal, n.d).

*Psychological:* Relating to the mind (Morris, 2005).
Psychological health: How average people are living day-to-day in life. For example, if a person is unhappy for a few days it does not mean this person is mentally disturbed (Ashford, 2001).

Reciprocal determinism: A theory set by Bandura (1977) that indicated an individual’s behavior was influenced by personal factors and the social environment. Bandura noted that the possibility of an individual's behavior is conditioned through the use of consequences. At the same time, Bandura emphasized that a person's behavior such as attitude can affect the environment. Reciprocal in terms of interaction is an individual’s mutual feeling or reaction in a situation. Determinism is the final solution in a situation and was considered behavior but emphasized that people are influenced by their own thoughts, beliefs, and ideas. Bandura noted that the back and forth communication that existed within self and with the external world was part of the behavior.

Self-efficacy: An individual’s own ability to complete tasks or meet goals (Wolfe & Betz, 2004).

Social learning theory (SLT): Social learning theory emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors of others. The interaction between the environment, personal, and behavioral reasons that influence behavior (Bandura, 1977).

Stress: A mental or emotional strain on an individual. In terms of an event such as moving, stress can cause other things to go on in an individual (Morris, 2005).

Subjective norms: The perceived social pressure to engage or not to engage in behavior (Ajzen, 1991).
The theory of planned behavior (TPB): This theory connects beliefs and behavior. Ajzen (1991) established the improvement of predictive power to the theory of reasoned action by including behavior control. TPB explains that situations can change the behavior of people. Ajzen indicated that attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavior control together shape an individual’s intentions and behaviors. According to Ajzen, this theory predicts deliberate behavior, because behavior can be deliberative and planned.

The theory of reasoned action (TRA): This theory demonstrates a model for prediction of behavior and intention, which is the frame of relocation decision-making. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) revised this theory to the TPB to emphasize how individuals intend to change or not change in situations.

Well-being: What is ultimately good for an individual including health, happiness, and prosperity. A researcher can measure this by various validated research indicators (Ashford, 2001).

Assumptions

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) described assumptions as “premises so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist” (p. 62). Case study researchers rely on interviewing as one of the most effective ways to capture participants’ life experiences and expert knowledge. This study was based on the assumption that the individuals interviewed would accurately identify themselves as meeting the criteria of making the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate. Assumptions in research
studies are things that are accepted as true and somewhat out of a researcher’s control (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The following items were assumptions in this study.

I assumed that all participants answered the interview questions honestly and truthfully. This assumption was necessary so that the real-life situations could be heard, examined, and valid. To ensure this assumption was met, before the interview process, the participants were given instructions as to how the interview would be conducted, and participation was voluntary and anonymity preserved.

In addition, I assumed I would understand the participants’ responses to the interview questions and interpret them precisely when recording and analyzing the responses. This assumption was necessary because if the responses were not translated correctly, it could have lead to invalid results. Therefore, I transcribed verbatim each response carefully, meticulously, and thoroughly. Finally, I assumed the participants shared fully all their experiences from before, during, and after the relocation. This assumption was necessary to receive a full picture of the experience.

**Scope and Delimitations**

The scope of a study explains what information or subject that is being analyzed (Ellis & Levy, 2009). In my study, I examined the lived experiences of civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. The delimitation in a study refers to the choices a researcher makes that are under the control of the researcher (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The employees who participated in this study were restricted to civil service and contractor employees who made the decision to relocate or reject the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to Fort
Bragg. The boundaries were set around career positions of civil service and contractor employees who made the decision to relocate or not relocate.

Transferability refers to the ability of the study’s findings to be transferred or extended to other situations and contexts (Hanson et al., 2011). The study results in this study will apply to all military installations that are closing or relocating. This potential transferability is because at each military base there are civil service and contractor employees. When a BRAC is conducted and the result of the study is closure or relocation, civil service and contractor employees will experience similar BRAC procedures.

**Limitations**

There were three limitations in this study. The first was that the participants included only civil service and contractor employees who relocated or not from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. The second limitation was that the interviews conducted were limited in number. The third limitation was that time constraints occurred during the interviews and the data analysis.

The participants included in this study were only civil service and contractor employees who relocated or not from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. The specific nature of this group might limit the transferability of my findings. In my study, transferability increased by providing a rich, detailed description of the participants’ report as indicated (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010; Tracy, 2010). As a result, other researchers would be able to find parallels to other groups, such as nonappropriated fund employees. The use of nonappropriated funds are generated by DoD military and civilian personnel
and their dependents and used to augment funds appropriated by Congress to provide comprehensive, morale building, educational and recreational programs (Defense Technical Information Center, n.d).

In the second limitation, a potential bias may have been the number of employees interviewed. This limitation may also have restricted the transferability of the research, but also its dependability. Dependability indicates the degree to which another researcher would be able to replicate the study (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). To ensure dependability, I provided a detailed description of the methods and procedures used to carry out the study in Chapter 3. In addition, I could have increased the number interviewed. However, I followed the observation from Green and Thorogood (2009) that after interviewing 20 people I might begin to see diminishing returns in the responses (saturation). I discuss saturation in detail in Chapter 3.

The third limitation was time constraints during the interviews. A potential bias might have occurred if I did not use sufficient time for each of participants interviewed. In order to handle this, I allowed each participant to answer each question completely. However, they were aware of a specified time for each interview and the measurement was a clock.

**Significance**

This study is significant for several reasons, including a contribution to the literature and implications for social change. This study was significant because no research existed on civil service and contractor employees’ motives accepting or rejecting offers to relocate, the potential health effects from their decisions, and the effects of those
decisions on the military. The results help fill the gap in the literature by providing information and understanding regarding the motives, potential health effects, and effects on the military mission when an Army base realigns, relocates, and closes from a BRAC.

I gathered data from interviews among civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected offers to relocate from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. Understanding and improving how civil service and contractor employees made decisions during a BRAC can allow the DoD the opportunity for improvements to future BRAC relocations. This study is significant because of the lack of research in this area. The literature needs to include more studies involving civil service and contractor employees’ concerns. The implication for social positive change is the potential to reduce negative consequences to civil service and contractor employees’ when accepting or rejecting offers to relocate, the potential health effects from their decisions, and the effects of those decisions on the military.

Summary

The DoD and the Army have specific guidelines in terms of BRAC to abide by, which are laws that govern realignment, relocate, and closure. These decisions require leadership to provide the necessary life-changing information to employees. My goal in this study was to gain an understanding and to examine the motives that contributed to the decision to accept an offer or reject an offer during a BRAC among civil service and contractor employees, their potential health effects, and the effect on the military mission. This study is significant to the field of leadership and management, because it may offer positive social change in regards to factors influencing a decision to relocate or not,
potential health effects, and the effect on the military mission, which can lead to future improvements in the BRAC process.

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the literature on relocation decision-making concepts, theories, processes, methodologies, models, and issues. Chapter 3 provides a description of the methodology to include data collection and analysis. In Chapter 4, the results will be presented. In Chapter 5, I present an interpretation of the results and recommendations for practice and future research.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. The problem that I addressed in this study was the lack of knowledge and understanding of the factors that affect civil service and contractor employees’ decisions to accept or reject the option to relocate, any potential health effects from the decision, and the effect on the military mission from relocation. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a complete literature review of information relating to relocation decision-making, strategies, models, and methodologies.

In this literature review, I examine the contemporary literature related to motives regarding why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject the option to relocate, potential health effects on these employees, and the effect on the military mission from the relocation. In addition, I examined processes and analyzed effective relocation decision-making. The three frameworks involved in the study were TPB, CLT, and SLT. This chapter consists of seven sections: (a) literature search strategy, (b) history and development of BRAC, (c) conceptual framework, (d) relocation decision-making process and applying it to theories, (e) motivation to get employees to relocate, (f) psychological reaction to relocation decision-making, (g) relocation and the organization, (h) relationship between job security and salary, and (i) summary.
**Literature Search Strategy**

The databases that I used in this research were EBSCO Research database system, Academic Search Premier, Business Source Premier, Government, ProQuest, and PsycINF. Several books were relevant to this topic as well. The key words searched included *qualitative, quantitative, case study, employee, decision-making, relocation, BRAC, stress, anxiety, depression, mental health, cognitive development theory, social learning theory, theory of planned behavior, problem solving, decision-making, strategies, retention, career mobility, well-being, mobility, family relocation, organization realignments, work transition, career, career development, psychology of working, job security, financial motivators, occupation, uncertainty, organizational change, and leadership*. The retrieval sources include the library services of Fayetteville State University, Kennesaw State University, and Walden University.

**History and Development of BRAC**

The BRAC Act of 1990 (Part A of Title XX IX of Public Law 101-510; 10 U.S.C. 2687 Note) was the foundation for all subsequent BRAC actions. This BRAC Act established the process for recommendations and approval of actions to use DoD infrastructure and resources more effectively. BRAC 2005 was distinctly different from all of the previous BRAC actions, placing stronger emphasis on reshaping the DoD by creating joint bases and by consolidating the management and support of Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps installations that were geographically close to each other. BRAC 2005 estimated significant savings as a result of reductions in military, civil service, and contractor personnel.
In May 2005, Congress announced that Fort McPherson would be the next installation to experience a BRAC (The U.S. DoD BRAC Report, 2005). I based this study on this BRAC decision and from the perspective of the civil service and contractor employees who made the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate to the gaining installation, Fort Bragg. From May 2005 to September 2010, the installation lost a significant number of employees to retirements, reassignments, resignations, and transfers to other DoD or federal agencies (The U.S. DoD BRAC Report, 2005).

**Conceptual Framework**

Few theories exist in the context of relocation decision-making. Ajzen (1991) explained that the theory of reasoned action, which is now called the TPB, maintains, “individual decisions are affected by two essential issues: (a) attitudes toward the behavior, which is perceived costs and benefits, and (b) subjective norms, which are the options” (p. 155). Morris (2005) noted that decision-making is related to the workplace as linked to autonomy, satisfaction, control, and power. Patrick and Strough (2004) described decision-making in terms as everyday problem-solving, experiences, strategies, and behavioral intentions. Patrick and Strough stated that behavioral intentions are when individuals consider life transitions. Poulou and Norwich (2002) pointed out that planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and CLT (Bandura, 1977) help to construct intentional behavior and decisions about behavioral difficulties.

Wolfe and Betz (2004) determined that a relationship exists between Bandura’s (1977) SLT and relocation. Wolfe and Betz used a survey that tested career decision-making self-efficacy and career indecisiveness. The relationship revealed that (a)
correlations in attachment styles, (b) career decision-making self-efficiency, and (c) career indecisiveness were positively related for men and women. Wolfe and Betz found that an individual with less-developed bonds with his or her career, and who is fearful or has a preoccupied attachment style, is vulnerable to indecisiveness related to making decisions. Wolfe and Betz indicated that the use of Bandura’s foundations in efficacy is valid in performance accomplishments, modeling, anxiety management, social persuasion, and encouragement. According to Wolfe and Betz, these foundations are effective components of making career decisions. The next section, includes information on SLT and how it relates to decision-making.

**Social Learning Theory (Bandura)**

In the 1970s, Bandura furthered the work on SLT by investigating the cognitive aspects of the theory. Bandura (1977) stated that three components are associated within this theory. The first one is that consequences of a given action influence the likelihood that an individual will perform the action in the future. Second, individuals can learn through their own actions, and by observing the behavior of others. The third indicated that individuals can observe behaviors that they see as similar to themselves and are likely model that behavior.

When a person makes a decision associated with relocation, this process is connected to Bandura’s SLT (1977) by the processing of learning and the interaction with the environment. Bandura’s SLT entails that individuals learn through observation, imitation, and modeling, which Bandura called *self generalization*. From this perspective, individuals’ experiences are a continuous cycle between behavior, cognition,
and environmental influences. These influences are centered around human behavior and individuals who have to have self control. In addition, Bandura (1978) indicated that self control is in a system. This system is composed of cognitive structures and subfunctions. The structures and subfunctions occur when individuals perceive, evaluate, and regulate behavior, which helps in decision-making (Bandura, 1977).

Included in Bandura’s (1978) SLT are the following: (a) reciprocal determinism, (b) behavior capability, (c) expectations, (d) self-efficacy, (e) observational learning, and (f) reinforcement. The DoD environment has a major influence on individuals’ behaviors because of uniformity in a bureaucracy organization, which implies that everyone is on the same accord with procedures, policies, and standards of operating procedures. How the operations run daily. Bandura’s (1977) reciprocal determinism goes along with this notion because behavior is influenced by the environment. The influential role of a self system indicates that reciprocal determinism is operated through an individual’s give-and-take analysis of self controlled processes. From this viewpoint, an individual’s decision-making process can be influenced by a person and social environmental reasons to help in the use of basic analytical principals regarding interpersonal development, transactions, and functions in social systems.

According to Bandura (1978), cognitive reasons determine which external events will be observed, “how they will be perceived, whether they have lasting effects, what valence and efficacy they have, and how the information they convey will be organized for future use” (p. 345). This capacity refers to individuals engaging in the thought process, and the plan is to foresee courses of action that are linked to the cognitive
reasons. This influences an individual’s own behavior and self-produced persuasion. In SLT, self-regulated incentives alter routines through motivational purpose. Bandura stated, “when people make self-satisfaction or tangible gratifications conditional upon certain accomplishments, they motivate themselves to expend the effort needed to attain the desired performances” (p. 350). Therefore, anticipated satisfactions of desired accomplishments and the dissatisfactions will increase the likelihood of performance achievements in decisions.

Bandura (1977) revealed that behavior is governed more by consequences than the anticipated consequences. The environment contributes to different effects on behavior depending on an individual’s beliefs and relationships between actions and outcomes, and the meaning of those outcomes. When the belief differs from actuality, which is not uncommon, “behavior is weakly influenced by its actual consequences until more realistic expectations are developed through repeated experiences” (Bandura, 1977, p. 356). In this frame, reciprocal determinism takes meaning. This process is an individual’s give-and-take of his or her behavior, the environment against decisions, and his or her own way to choose which course of action to take in a decision. The next section explains cognitive learning theory (CLT) as it relates to decision-making.

**Cognitive Learning Theory (Piaget)**

Piaget (1952) hypothesized cognitive learning theory (CLT) to explain cognitive learning and how presumption is related to relocation decision-making. Piaget wrote that humans go through several stages during their lives. The stages are: (a) sensorimotor, (b) preoperational, (c) concrete operational, (d) transitional, and (e) formal operational. The
formal operation stage was my focus in this study. Piaget wrote that the formal operation stage is from adolescence to adult.

Piaget’s (1977) methods involved field observations among participants and writing down everything that was observed. This process conveyed how cognitive learning assists in the choices individuals make in situations. Piaget emphasized that different areas of an individual’s life are expressed around formal thought. Individuals at this stage of intellectual development are able to think about multiple variables in systematic ways, formulate hypotheses, and consider possibilities. Individuals in this stage can think about intangible relationships and concepts, such as integrity. Piaget stated that lifelong intellectual development in the formal operation stage is the final stage of cognitive development, and continued intellectual development in adults depends on the growth of knowledge. This knowledge helps individuals make sound decisions.

The next section will discuss TPB and how it relates to decision-making.

**The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen)**

According to Ajzen (1991), TPB helps explain human behavior from the perspective of an individual’s attitudes toward behaviors to intentions. Ajzen wrote that this perspective is part of a person’s decision-making, which is part of the process. For instance, in decision-making, an individual goes through a process. This process starts from the attitude regarding the approach of a situation and how a person makes the decision. Next, the person moves to the behavior, which is the action, and this leads to intention or purpose to which the decision is made. This example indicates one of the advantages of how the TPB approach differentiates between those persons who intend
and do not intend to change under a particular situation. The TPB is framed out of behavioral decision-making models and began from the theory of reasoned action from Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) research. Ajzen (1991) examined and expanded the TPB to add behavioral control to the TPB model because Ajzen wanted to understand a person’s intent or not intent to change. Figure 1 presents a diagram of TPB, which predicts deliberate behavior because behavior can be deliberative and planned.

Figure 1. A depiction of the TPB decision process. Adapted from “The Theory of Planned Behavior” by I. Ajzen, 1991, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, p. 179.

Ajzen (1991) mentioned that behavior starts from two areas. The first area is an individual’s intentions, which is the instant sign of actual behavior. The second area is an individual’s behavioral intentions, which are formed by three reasons: (a) attitudes toward behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceived behavior control.
Ajzen’s (1991) first factor of TPB was the attitude toward behavior. Ajzen stated that attitude is an individual’s assessment and, whether negative or positive, an individual’s belief about the probability of it occurring. For instance, if a person perceives that a potential benefit in eating healthy is to increase longevity, and believes that the likelihood of realizing that the benefit is high in eating healthy will boost longevity, then the individual will be motivated to engage in the behavior. All individuals differ when it comes to decisions and their expected behavior. However, Ajzen wrote that individuals would make assessments and decisions regarding their own attitudes toward their actions.

Ajzen’s (1991) second factor of TPB was subjective norms. Individual subjective norms are perceived beliefs and a person is motivated by fulfillment of those beliefs. For instance, an individual may have various groups that he or she believes in and the resulting behavior may create loyalty to those groups. In referring to a group or groups, an individual makes a subjective decision about how strongly he or she will associate with the group through behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In addition, Ajzen noted that an individual would make an assessment about how motivated he or she is to comply with the group’s norms. As mentioned above in the example of eating healthy, the use of that example can be related to subjective norms. An individual’s desire is to eat healthy to increase longevity, but he or she may feel disapproval from certain groups, such as friends, a spouse, and coworkers, because activities are geared around unhealthy food. However, if this group is important and it creates a high motivation to adopt the group’s norms, and the individual is likely to engage in the behavior. According to Ajzen,
subjective norms differ by individual, considering the situation and behavior that follows. In the example of eating healthy to increase longevity, a spouse may have stronger feelings toward the behavior than a friend may. Therefore, as Ajzen mentioned, depending on the relationship, an individual’s perceived social pressure to engage or not to engage in the behavior will differ.

Ajzen’s (1991) third factor of TPB was perceived behavior control. An individual’s perceived behavior control is the ability to perform the actual behavior. Ajzen wrote that there may be several reasons that are out of a person’s control, and behavior can be changed by those reasons. The example of eating healthy to increase longevity can be used in this factor. For instance, an individual having limited funds to purchase healthier food choices may not completely prevent this person from pursuing eating healthy for longevity. In this example, limitations exist to the perceived behavior. An individual in this example would recognize the actual behavior and purchase healthy food choices. The next section details relocation decision-making and applying it to the theories.

Relocation Decision-Making and Applying it to the Theories

TPB Related

Decision-making is a part of everyday life in modern American society. When it comes to relocation decision-making, many reasons are considered. In the 1980s and 1990s, the percentage of civil service and contractor population who relocated because of BRAC was low (www.defense.gov/brac). During this time, jobs were plentiful, which
kept individuals from relocating if they did not want to when a base realigned, relocated, and closed (U.S. DoD, 2005).

In the research to date, the focus has been on the organization’s mission versus the employees involved. According to Challiol and Mignonac (2005), corporations have become particularly concerned with “geographical mobility of employees as an instrument of flexibility and human resource management” (p. 247). Although these realignments, relocations, and closures are governed by law, the gap in the topic of civil service and contract employees made this research more relevant to examine the problem in these areas. The importance of relocation decision-making is established in the research and defined by its advantages and disadvantages. In this section, I explain how TPB, CLT, and SLT are applied to current literature and answer the research questions.

According to Ajzen (1991), applying TPB to relocation decision-making is a process, and how an individual engages or does not engage in a decision can be reviewed in Ajzen’s TPB model. Ajzen theorized that the theory of TPB explains that situations can change the behavior of people. For instance, applying this theory to the situation of relocation decision-making is a process. How an individual takes on or does not take on the decision is the outcome. In my research, the situation to accept or reject the relocation is a decision; the TPB model displays downward the attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived control that are specific to the decision (Ajzen, 1991).

According to Prehar (2001), few theories exist from the perspective of individual relocation decision-making. Prehar collected the data for the study in two phases. In the
first phase, Prehar mailed surveys to 900 master of business administration (MBA) graduates from three universities in the western, midwestern, and southeastern portions of the United States. The alumni were selected from the universities’ MBA alumni lists. In the second phase, the lists were stratified, and the researcher randomly selected 300 participants from each university to receive the mail survey (Prehar, 2001). This ensured an equal number of men and women. Prehar applied regression analyses to investigate (a) whether costs and benefits are most important in relocation decisions; (b) who are the sources of social input in an employee’s relocation decision; (c) who are the strongest sources of social influence in a relocation decision; (d) and if people who made the decision to relocate or not conceptualize on the costs, benefits, and sources of social input in the same ways as people who have not received an offer but might in the future.

According to Ajzen and Fishbein’s (1980) TRA, attitudes (feelings) and subjective norms in the situation of relocation would predict relocation intentions (purpose) and relocation behavior (actions). The use of Ajzen and Fishbein’s TRA as one of the frames in this study had identifiable intangible costs and benefits, which were the attitudes and the sources of social input known as subjective norms. The results of TRA indicated that employees realized that relocation was advantageous to their careers and personal growth. In terms of the organization, productivity declines as relocated employees adjust to the new location and new coworkers because of employee turnover (Ajzen & Fishbein). The personal relationships with spouses, children, and other extended family were most frequently listed as sources of social influence (Ajzen & Fishbein). Ajzen and Fishbein’s data indicated that these people affected relocations
decisions and relocation adjustment. Several limitations existed in this study, but the major one was in the variables. More variables can be added to understand employees’ behaviors in relocation decisions. Prehar’s (2001) use of TRA in this study revealed important results that confirmed the use of the model for relocation decision-making.

Hicks and Strough (2004) were concerned with relocation decision-making and how it is combined with everyday problem-solving. Participants included 42 men, 52 women, and 1 person who did not disclose gender from a questionnaire. Two questions were addressed: (a) how does strategic processing vary as a function of experience?, and (b) do strategy processing and prior experience influence one’s intention to relocate? The researchers made the distinction between experience, strategic flexibility, and behavioral intention by examining if these participants were unique to relocation (Hicks & Strough, 2004). Hicks and Strough stated that individuals with experience from relocating more often consider relocation as less stressful. Based on individual experiences, Hicks and Strough found that individual thoughts may be an efficient and effective solution to everyday problems. When viewing strategic flexibility in an individual’s decisions, which can be based on prior experiences, these individuals are able to generate a higher number of strategies.

Hicks and Strough’s (2004) results revealed high percentages in the participants’ responses in personal life and work experience, which made the investigation into this topic researchable for everyday problem-solving. The older adults reported personal experience with hypothetical late-life relocation scenarios was related to their own relocation intentions. The results indicated that hypothetical problem-solving can be
linked to real-world behavioral intentions (Hicks & Strough, 2004). In addition, in older adults, the use of strategies from years of experience helped in decision-making. Hicks and Strough’s approach and results demonstrated that the environmental importance of using hypothetical tasks to predict behavior in the daily lives of older adults was positive.

A limitation in Hicks and Strough’s (2004) study was the reasons for the decision to relocate. This factor may have revealed more information into an individual’s behavior and relocation reasons. Hicks and Strough revealed the merging tasks and measures developed in everyday problem-solving literature with behavioral intentions in the real-world, such as late-life relocation decisions.

Wolfe and Betz (2004) identified an influencing factor for individuals who make decisions based on career. Wolfe and Betz investigated career decision-making self-efficacy and showed that fear of commitment relates to career indecisiveness. The researchers concluded that attachment theory supports decisions made about careers (Wolfe & Betz, 2004).

Challiol and Mignonac (2005) discussed two empirical studies regarding the relocation decision-making process relating to dual earner couples. The authors sought to understand employees’ expectations about different scenarios in career mobility to reveal the findings to organizations for potential relocation offers to individuals who are mobile, and develop incentives for individuals who are uncertain about mobility (Challiol & Mignonac, 2005). Challiol and Mignonac conducted two empirical studies with two independent samples using management-level employees—one quantitative and one qualitative.
In the first study, Challiol and Mignonac (2005) sampled participants averaging 36 years of age who were employed in a variety of occupational fields. The first study tested whether a spouse’s attitude toward mobility influenced an employee’s likelihood of accepting a relocation opportunity and whether the opportunity varied according to several variables. As for the participants’ partners, 56% were employees in private corporations, and 24% were government employees. Challiol and Mignonac used a 7-point Likert-type scale to measure the participants’ level of agreement or disagreement with each statement on the survey. Challiol and Mignonac found that the likelihood of accepting a transfer positively correlated to (a) an employee’s willingness to move, (b) perceived job alternatives for the spouse, and (c) spouse’s willingness to move. The likelihood of accepting a transfer was negatively correlated with (a) gender, (b) the career priority of the spouse, (c) length of residence in the current location, and (d) job tenure.

Challiol and Mignonac’s (2005) second study was a qualitative research design and provided a perspective on the dynamics of double-earner couples with one of the partners having the requirement to decide whether to accept or reject the offer to relocate. With this in mind, Challiol and Mignonac sought out different age groups, and who had made relocation decisions at different periods of their lives. A total of 11 couples were interviewed. Each interview lasted between 2 and 3 hours. Challiol and Mignonac stated that the results were complex “because of the attitudes of each partner toward the proposition of geographical mobility, and how it allows for realistic prediction of the final decision” (p. 267).
Challiol and Mignonac (2005) found that beyond the career priorities of each couple, the priority given to family played an influential role. Depending on the couple’s priorities at the time of making the decision to move, attitude differences between the partners were resolved by making different decisions. This revealed that for the transfer to be accepted, both partners had to find a solution that satisfied both of their priorities. According to Challiol and Mignonac, couples gave priority to their careers relative to their life as a family, and others put the family before their professional lives. These results call for more attention to be placed on the values that bring about the exchange between the couples. Challiol and Mignonac stated that their results are consistent with other studies and suggested, “the partner’s influence on the ultimate decision is decisive” (p. 268). The findings provided a clear distinction on the influence of deciding to relocate by showing that a partner’s priority and attitude does not consistently lead to the employee’s rejection of the relocation offer (Challiol & Mignonac, 2005).

Limitations existed in the first quantitative study and the second qualitative study. In the quantitative study, the major limitation was that Challiol and Mignonac (2005) relied on cross-sectional and self-reported data. Although the analysis revealed that the common method was not a serious problem, future researchers should introduce a time-lag between measurement of the independent and dependent variables. The major limitation in the qualitative study was the sample size and the selection of participants. In particular, this prevents direct simplification to a broader population. Challiol and Mignonac (2005) restricted the interviews to couples who were in stable relationships, both prior and following their transfers. Despite the limitations mentioned, the results
from this study provided answers to the research questions, and Challiol and Mignonac noted that the questions were a sensitive problem regarding mobility of employees who live with dual-earner couples.

Employees facing relocation have to make a decision one way or another once the relocation decision is made in the organization. Peach, Jimmieson, and White (2005) examined the effectiveness of TPB as a framework for understanding employee readiness for change. Peach et al. randomly sent out 180 questionnaires to employees of a government agency in Australia, and received a response rate of 84%. Peach et al. found that specific behaviors related to the readiness to relocate. The behaviors were in the form of reading notices relating to relocation, allocating time to carry out activities, and disposing of office files. In respect to behaviors of individuals, the questions on the questionnaire related to intentions, attitude, subject norm, behavior beliefs, normative beliefs, and perceived behavior control under the TPB (Peach, Jimmieson, & White, 2005).

Ng, Sorensen, Eby, and Feldman (2007) examined decisions regarding job mobility from the perspective TPB. Ng et al. wrote that decisions regarding job mobility are based on three reasons from Ajzen (1991) which are subjective norms, the desire to relocate, and individual readiness for change. Multiple types of job mobility exist. The researchers highlighted six specific types of job motilities: (a) internal-upward, (b) external-upward, (c) internal-lateral, (d) external-lateral, (e) internal-downward, and (f) external-downward (Ng et al., 2007). Internal-upward mobility refers to job changes that are promotions but with the same employer. External-upward mobility refers to job
changes that are promotions but with a different employer. Internal-lateral mobility refers to job changes within the same organization and at the same hierarchical level.

External-lateral mobility refers to accepting a job at the same hierarchical level, but with a different employer. Internal-downward mobility refers to demotions within the same organization, and external-downward mobility refers to changing employers and working at a lower hierarchical level at the same time (Ng et al., 2007).

When an individual recognizes that the opportunity for mobility lies within the job, this person has to decide whether or not to relocate with the job. According to Ajzen (1991), the decision to relocate is predicted on the evaluation of subjective norms related to behavior, attitudes toward that behavior, and perceived control of the behavior. Ajzen found that resulting behavior intention predicts subsequent behavior.

Ng et al. (2007) stated that researchers have analyzed job mobility for years, stating that it is vacancy-driven. However, Ng et al. noted that structural reasons can influence the pattern of job vacancies from economic conditions, societal characteristics, and industry differences to an organization’s staffing policies. Economic conditions influence the expansion decisions in two directions: (a) vertical and (b) horizontal. In the vertical expansion, a firm may need more managers to run the firm, increasing the upward mobility options (Ng et al.). Horizontal expansion involves creating additional departments and can increase all three internal opportunities: lateral, up, and down (Ng et al.). A strong economy may increase job opportunities, and a weak economy may make individuals stay in their jobs, and less likely to quit. Another structural factor in job mobility is societal characteristics (Ng et al.). These characteristics include (a) war, (b)
international monetary crises, (c) technological breakthroughs, (d) civil rights movements, and (e) corporate takeovers to name a few (Ng et al.). Industry differences are a structural determinant around job mobility. Ng et al. indicated that gender composition of the industry, wage level, and industry growth are difficult to outline characteristics that influence job mobility. Ng et al. also indicated that staffing policies are chosen by organizations to increase the internal mobility availability options for its employees.

Ng et al. (2007) suggested that researchers continually study TPB in the prediction of career and relocation decisions. In terms of job mobility, “an individual maybe more inclined to pursue an opportunity for job mobility if a person feels that it is consistent with norms to engage in the transition” (Ng et al., p. 376). Ng et al. stated that the terms and conditions of favorable attitudes toward the type of job mobility and a successful transition is up to the person in the decision-making process.

Ng et al. (2007) found some structural reasons that an individual could encounter when a company reorganizes, downsizes, or economic conditions affect an organization’s resources. These reasons could influence how a person makes decisions. The availability of job mobility options is necessary, but not a sufficient condition to motivate employees to pursue job mobility options (Ng et al.). Ng et al. revealed that in terms of subjective norms, individuals with guidance with regard to whether it is appropriate or wise to engage in a type of mobility transition have alternative options. The researchers continued that desirability of mobility and employees’ desire to be mobile is taken by steps towards changing jobs (Ng et al.). The results revealed that the desirability of job
mobility is high when the willingness to transition is high. The readiness to change is the factor that the authors examined regarding job mobility (Ng et al.). This represented individuals’ self-efficacy beliefs and how they feel ready to make a change if they believe they can successfully make the transition in the location or job (Ng et al.). Ng et al. found that self-efficacy predicted the willingness to change.

Ng et al. (2007) wrote about ways that individual differences can constrain mobility, and the boundaries that a person has regarding job mobility. While using the framework from Ajzen (1991), the overall course of a person’s career decisions is likely to be different and based on experiences and growth. Moreover, Ajzen indicated that research in each area can be examined to get a better understanding of how job mobility can affect the ability to view post-decisions, which means accepting something as true until information is made available and adjusting as needed.

Bamberg, Ajzen, and Schmidt (2003) examined the effects of a travel intervention that involved the increase in usage of prepaid bus tickets among college students. Bamberg et al. used TPB as the framework for the study. According to TPB, human actions are guided by three kinds of considerations: (a) beliefs about the likely consequences of the behavior (behavioral beliefs), (b) beliefs about the normative expectations of others (normative beliefs), and (c) beliefs about the presence of reasons that may further or hinder performance of the behavior (control beliefs (Bamberg et al., 2003). Bamberg et al. used a questionnaire designed to assess the make-up in TPB. The travel mode alternatives considered were (a) driving a car, (b) riding the bus, (c) riding a bicycle, and (d) walking. With respect to each alternative, participants answered
questions designed to measure each of the predictors in TPB, which were attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavior control, and intention. Bamberg et al. used a 5-point graphic scale. In addition, the researchers designed two questions to measure each of the predictors in TPB: (a) attitude, (b) subjective norm, (c) perceived behavioral control, (d) intention, and (e) past behavior (Bamberg et al.).

Bamberg et al. (2003) demonstrated that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, intention, and past behavior can range from 1 to 5, with high scores indicating favorable dispositions or actions. Dispositions to ride the bus to campus and actual use of the bus were relatively low because (a) participants generally did not take the bus to campus, (b) participants did not think that people important in their lives expected them to take the bus, and (c) participants reported taking the bus infrequently in the past (Bamberg et al., 2003). This showed that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control influenced students’ intentions to take the bus to the campus, and these intentions in turn permitted an accurate prediction of reported behavior. In discussing the bus as a mode of transportation, Bamberg et al. examined the effect of past behavior, controlling the mediation of intentions and perceived behavioral control, but without the habit measure. The researchers discovered similar results for the use of a car as the mode of transportation (Bamberg et al.). The measure of habit showed that when new things are introduced in the case of the bus, lower bus ticket prices were established during several quarters. This revealed that intentions in the participants’ responses changed. Reported bus usage increased, whereas reported car usage declined.
According to Bamberg et al., the measure of past behavior frequency is taken to reflect habit strength, and the results suggested that habits did change.

Bamberg et al. (2003) stated that the question of habit behavior was not convincing. In their research, habit behavior implied that every time a change in behavior tendency was observed, it can be assumed that habit changed (Bamberg et al.). This line of reasoning shows that such a measure would be possible and comparable to the attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control, and intention needed to examine past behavior in depth after controlling the mediation of intentions and perceived behavior control (Bamberg et al.). The mode of a car as transportation showed similar results. The choice of travel mode in TPB has shown that the decision to make a choice can be affected by interventions that produce a change in attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioral control. According to Bamberg et al. (2003), travel decisions and past travel choices contribute to the prediction of later behavior only if circumstances remain relatively stable.

Armitage and Conner (2001) conducted a meta-analysis investigation using TPB as a predictor of intentions and behavior. Using a quantitative research design, Armitage and Conner’s objective was to focus on ways in which current TPB research can be taken forward in view of the present. The researchers took a database of 185 independent studies published in a 3-year span (Armitage & Conner). The results revealed that TPB accounted for 27% and 39% of variance in behavior and intention, respectively (Armitage & Conner). The perceived behavioral control accounted for significant amounts of variance in intention and behavior, independent of the theory of reasoned
action variables. Behavior measures in individuals were self-reports, and TPB accounted for 11% more than the variance in behavior than the observed measures (Armitage & Conner). A person’s attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control provided a high variance in an individual’s desires than intentions (Armitage & Conner, 2001). The intentions and self-predictions were better predictors of behavior. The subjective norm construct was a weak predictor of intentions. Armitage and Conner stated this because of a combination of poor measurement and the need for expansion of the normative component.

Armitage and Conner (2001) noted some evidence among the data reviewed in the literature. Limitations existed in testing measures of subjective norms. However, the evidence supports descriptive norms within TPB. A subjective norm is operational as a perception of social pressure to comply with the wishes of others or not. The overall result indicated that intentions and self-predictions were superior predictors of behavior than desires (Armitage & Conner). The next section covers CDT and how it relates to decision-making.

**CLT Related**

Cognitive learning theory is the development of human intelligence. Piaget (1952) emphasized that humans experience certain stages throughout their lives. In this research, Table 1 presents the formal operation stage.
Table 1

*Piaget’s Stages of Cognitive Development*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Description of stage</th>
<th>Developmental phenomena</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Birth–2 years</td>
<td>Sensorimotor – Learning to coordinate sensory experience and experiencing the world through senses and actions</td>
<td>Object permanence&lt;br&gt;stranger anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2–6 years of age</td>
<td>Preoperational – Representing things with words and images</td>
<td>Pretend play egocentrism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7–11 years of age</td>
<td>Concrete Operational – Thinking logically about concrete events and grasping concrete analogies</td>
<td>Conservation&lt;br&gt;mathematical transformation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12–adulthood</td>
<td>Formal Operational – Thinking about hypothetical scenarios and processing abstract thoughts</td>
<td>Abstract logic moving into mature reasoning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


I did not go in depth with the first three stages. However, the four stages are the concentration that is part of the framework regarding how individuals form the thought process in decision-making. The cognitive skills described can be considered prerequisite as they pertain to the ability to understand decision-making. Characteristics of formal operational thought include three areas that make this stage important. According to Piaget (1952), idealistic, logical, and abstract are the areas, which are not universal. In the idealistic area, individuals often think about what is possible (Piaget, 1952). A person will think about ideal characteristics of themselves, others, and the world. In terms of logical, the area where individuals begin to think more like scientists, devising plans to solve problems and systematically testing solutions (Piaget, 1952). In
the academic area, individuals in the formal operational stage think more abstractly than do children (Piaget, 1952). For instance, these individuals can solve abstract algebraic equations. Piaget confirmed that not all individuals use the formal operational stage. The reasons for variation are that it requires effort, and depends on the level of formal education and cultural norms. The formal operation stage is how individuals draw conclusions and make decisions from the information available (Piaget, 1952). The next section outlines how SLT is related to decision-making.

**SLT Related**

Social learning theory involves analyzing an individual’s behavior in terms of reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1978). Bandura (1978) stated that reciprocal means a person is in a give-or-take situation with another person, and determinism is when something or events are caused and not determined by a situation. Figure 2 shows the representation of Bandura’s alternative components of an individual’s interactions.
In Figure 2, the P represents an individual’s cognitive and other internal events that can affect perceptions and actions. The B represents an individual’s behavior, and E represents the external environment. Bandura (1978) indicated that the “complexity of interacting reasons, and events produce effects rather than inevitably” (p. 345). When individual’s interact with the environment, they are reacting to outside encouragement. More external influencing reasons affect behavior through a reciprocity in cognitive processes (Bandura, 1978). Bandura emphasized that cognitive reasons partly determine which external events will be observed, perceived, and whether the reasons have lasting effects. Bandura also wrote that SLT has a self structure, which is not a spontaneous
means that controls a person’s behavior. Self structure refers to cognitive structures that provide reference techniques and a set of subfunctions for perception, evaluation, and regulation of behavior (Bandura, 1978). A person’s behavior varies on a number of measurements, such as quality, rate, and ethics. Bandura emphasized that these components tend to have individuals selectively handling situations, parts of their behavior, but ignoring differences on unrelated measures. The next section details the decision-making process.

**Decision-Making Process**

The decision-making process is an identifying experience for everyone. The reality is that individuals are labeled when a decision made is negative. Decision-making is a human action that comes from a magnitude of things, from experience, listening to others, or from a person’s heart (Morris, 2005). It is not that people do not want to make good decisions, the problem is that people do not know the process of making a good decision (Morris, 2005; Prehar, 2001; Sagie et al., 2001; Giles & Rea, 1999). According to Morris (2005), Prehar (2001), and Sagie et al. (2001), they have found that it takes discipline to be a good decision-maker. When making decisions, a person must realize when and why he or she needs to make a decision, proclaim the decision and decide what the decision is, work the decision and make a choice that best fits the person’s values, and commit resources to the decision and act. Morris (2005) noted that not every person will do these things consistently. In the case of relocation decision-making, this calls for a guarantee from the employee to leadership indicating a “yes” to relocate with the
organization. Figure 3 displays the distribution of the decision-making process (Morris, 2005).

In Figure 3, an individual has the power, through a process, to make quality decisions. Morris (2005) stated that if individuals spend enough time creating alternatives and validating assumptions, better decisions occur. The decision-making process is a deliberate effort by an individual to go through a decision-making process. Morris wrote that by going through this process, an individual is exposed to a variety of alternatives and perspectives. Morris revealed that once an individual goes through the decision-making process, viewing the motives is included in the reasons why the decision was made.
Decision-Making Motives to get Employees to Relocate

The reasons that employees make the decision to relocate with their job fall under a variety of scenarios. There is no right or wrong reason, the reason is based on an individual and his or her situation. Hippler (2009) investigated the motives of employees who accept or reject offers to relocate. The researcher distributed questionnaires to 454 international and 279 domestic employees who relocated using a company’s internal mail distribution system (Hippler). Responses were from 317 international and 195 domestic employees who relocated. Hippler assessed the findings at the nominal and ordinal levels, and found 18 motive categories. The following categories were among the high motives: (a) increased future promotions, (b) increased job security, (c) improved career mobility, (d) new skills, and (e) salary increase. Hippler found that in comparison to international and domestic employees, the motives to relocate were equally important.

Hippler’s (2009) study had limitations. The main one noted was the examination of only one company. However, this company was multidivisitional and provided consumers goods and services (Hippler). The participants worked across a large number of functions. The findings provide useful data in the area of promotion, and bonuses for motives for relocation. Furthermore, future researchers can conduct a similar study in other companies to investigate the motives in other career fields.

Past researchers revealed that an individual’s job mobility is affected by reasons, such as satisfaction, specific career enhancing attributes, and job availability (Van Vianen, Feij, Krausz, & Taris, 2003). Van Vianen et al. investigated personality reasons predicting voluntary internal and external job motivators. The authors took a sample of
213 employees (147 men and 62 women) from 18 companies in 34 career fields (Van Vianen et al., 2003). The ages averaged 36 years, and 117 participants had a bachelor’s or master’s degree and 96 participants had lower levels of education (Van Vianen et al.). Van Vianen et al. examined job mobility from a personality perspective. The researchers used the Big Five personality reasons scale. This scale’s reasons are openness (curious), conscientiousness (efficiency), extraversion (outgoing personality), agreeableness (friendly personality), and neuroticism (sensitivity). In addition, Van Vianen et al. measured adult attachment, which included 20 items obtained from the Group Attachment Scale, a scale that has 18 items that measure styles consisting of secure, anxious, and avoidant using a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Van Vianen et al. (2003) revealed that the Big Five personality reasons had no correlation among the number of dissatisfaction job changes, job improvements, and voluntary job rotations. The demographic variables correlated significantly among each other. Women and individuals who were higher educated were employed for a shorter time than men and those individuals that were educated at a lower level (Van Vianen et al.). Gender significantly correlated with emotional stability and adventure seeking, and the number of dissatisfaction job changes. Van Vianen et al. noted that on average, women had lower scores on emotional stability and thrill and adventure seeking than men, and women changed jobs more often for reasons of dissatisfaction.

Van Vianen et al.’s (2003) study had limitations. The major one was that participants had time to make a decision to change their job. However, participants were
informed about confidentiality and their responses were regarded as reliable. The findings carry important theoretical and practical implications. Van Vianen et al. (2003) proved their hypotheses and distinguished between different external job change motives, dissatisfaction changes, and job improvement changes. In addition, demographic and psychological reasons related to dissatisfaction changes.

Cotton and Majchrzak (1990) hypothesized that personality characteristics, attitudes, and intentions would predict whether or not blue collar workers relocated with their company following a shutdown. Cotton and Majchrzak conducted a survey taken by 286 production workers employed at an AT&T Consumer Products Division plant to test the hypotheses. The researchers measured the following: (a) age, (b) job, (c) tenure at the plant, (d) tenure in the area, (e) gender, (f) marital status, (g) spouse employment status, (h) education, (i) family income, and (j) the number of people dependent on the worker at the plant financially. Cotton and Majchrzak noted that age was eliminated because it was highly correlated with job tenure. Income was eliminated because it was highly correlated with marital status. Gender was eliminated because it was highly skewed to being female.

The researchers analyzed the predictor of demographics, personality, variables, attitudes, and intentions, and the results showed that all predictors were key predictors of the decision to relocate. Of the predictors, job tenure rated among the highest for reasons to relocate (Cotton & Majchrzak, 1990). Flexibility, job satisfaction, and quality of life related to relocation by survey data results. Female employees who were married indicated that they were less likely to relocate (Cotton & Majchrzak, 1990).
Organizational commitment was an important factor of relocating until answers in the area of intentions on the survey were displayed in the software program and revealed that organizational commitment data were low in the percentage of importance. Cotton and Majchrzak (1990) revealed that employees whose tenure exceeded 15 years, which included most of the workers, had an option of relocating or being terminated from their jobs. In the sample, 136 employees eventually relocated to other plant locations, while 150 remained in the area (Cotton & Majchrzak, 1990).

Muhammad and Hassan (2012) indicated that employees relocated because of financial reasons. The authors tested the reasons that convince businesses and employees to relocate abroad (Muhammad & Hassan). A questionnaire collected data, and the results indicated that the low taxes overseas influenced the company to relocate. Companies have to cut down on their costs to remain competitive. In addition, infrastructure was another incentive for companies relocating overseas. Muhammad and Hassan indicated with less cost on infrastructure, this would bring labor cost at a higher rate, which created an incentive to get employees to relocate because of salary increases. The highest incentives for employees were in the areas of tax exemption, overtime, and housing allowances (Muhammad & Hassan). Cotton and Majchrzak (1990) stated that the limitation in this study was that only one company was studied, and more companies would give a larger picture of the incentives offered.

**Psychological Reaction to Relocation Decision-making**

Psychological reaction to relocation decisions affects an individual in ways such as (a) anxiety, (b) stress, (c) depression, (d) family, (e) financial, (f) career, and well-
being. A psychological reaction refers to an individual’s mental state. The following sub-level sections detail what a person may encounter once a relocation decision is made.

**Anxiety and Stress**

Numerous researchers have studied relocation (DeBruin & Taylor, 2005; Hamidi & Eivazi, 2010; Martin, 1995, 1999; Martin, Leach, Norman, & Silvester, 2000; Seymour & Dupre, 2008; Yang, Chen, & Spector, 2008) and have incorporated anxiety and stress when it comes to relocation. Researchers who investigated anxiety and stress examined these variables against different theories that were not related to this topic. In relation to the framework for this study, anxiety and stress related to relocation decision-making.

Morris (2005) stated that anxiety (worry) is a temporary state of an individual’s feeling of being nervous or worried. As an individual continues to be in this state of mind, stress begins to take control. Stress is a mental or emotional strain that an individual experiences in certain situations. In terms of an event such as relocation, anxiety and stress can cause other things to go on in an individual’s body such as faster heartbeats, muscles tightening, and breathing quickening (Morris). Morris found that when stress occurs in the body, it lets the body know it is working properly, because it helps an individual stay focused and makes good decisions.

An individual’s approach to situations is an important aspect of decision-making, similar to the situation of a relocation decision (Payne & Scott, 2010). In viewing decisions made by employees regarding job relocation, Martin (1999) wrote that before and after relocation, anxiety could be reduced if preparation is established as soon as the relocation is announced by the organization. Martin took a sample of 54 employees (28
males and 26 females) who worked for the same public organization, which was a central office relocating to another city. The organization invested resources in the areas of (a) hiring a relocation company to sell existing homes, (b) purchasing one at the new location, (c) paying for the costs of the move, and (d) issuing and monetary allowances, which could be used to purchase curtains, blinds, and other household items associated with the move (Martin, 1999). In addition, a resources room was created to post information about the area, schools, and guidance on how to manage relocation.

The participants in this study held positions that ranged from administrative to managerial (Martin, 1999). Participants completed a questionnaire 6 weeks prior to and 3 months after the move. The post-move psychological measures were computed by a regression equation by entering the pre-move psychological measures and relocation preparation score. Participants indicated responses on 7-point scales with the five measures including: (a) mental health, (b) job-related anxiety, (c) job-related depression, (d) intrinsic job satisfaction, and (e) extrinsic job satisfaction; relocation preparation scored among the higher scores (Martin). Martin found that scores under pre-move were high in the area of experiencing relocation problems. The results support the hypotheses. However, Martin mentioned that support to help employees after relocating needs to be addressed according to the high scores.

Canaff and Wright (2004) examined research on how anxiety effects job insecurity and the consequences associated with anxiety. In addition, the researchers investigated the types of strategies employees can use when organizations are relocating and downsizing. Canaff and Wright identified consequences and strategies that were
available to these employees. The consequences and strategies were equal to the information from journals of management, organizational behavior, and organizational psychology that revealed employees experience high anxiety, job insecurity, and job stress (Canaff & Wright, 2004). In addition, Canaff and Wright stated that employees are more “vulnerable than ever to the effects of decisions made from leaders, and employees they have no input” (p. 2). This was a result of a decrease in union representatives and the lack of information and involvement offered to employees. Canaff and Wright (2004) found that as these trends continued in organizations, employees faced these consequences, but strategies exist that could have reduced the high anxiety, job insecurity, and job stress.

Job insecurity was one of the strategies that employees noted in each journal, and Canaff and Wright (2004) found that job insecurity takes on many forms. Canaff and Wright wrote that job insecurity was not just in the lack of confidence, but also in how employees are affected in what happens with their jobs. The researchers stated, “job transfer and the desire to continue in the new location is a cause of anxiety, and it is normal for employees to experience these types of emotional consequences” (Canaff & Wright, p. 3). Individuals experiencing job insecurity have an increased risk for anxiety, depression, and substance abuse. The results from Canaff and Wright indicated that emotional and psychological consequences from relocation were from anxiety or worry, triggering stress or nervous tension. Two strategies discussed for employees were to communicate with leadership and seek counseling (Canaff & Wright). Both can provide support and the necessary action needed for the situation. Employees will be faced with
the continuing threat of anxiety, job insecurity, and job stress regarding relocation. Canaff and Wright indicated that it is up to the employee to talk to someone that can help with the interventions available.

According to Yadoilah and Eivazi (2010), medical researchers have concluded that an important relationship exists between the level of people’s stress and adverse responses, such as (a) heart disease, (b) gastroenteritis, (c) sleep disorders, and (d) increase in absence that are related to job performance. Yadoilah and Eivazi emphasized, “reduction of job stress is a very important factor in job success and increases organizational performance” (p. 964). The researchers tested the levels of employees’ job stress and job satisfaction in order to determine if a relationship existed in organizational performance. Yadoilah and Eivazi used the Eliot Stress Questionnaire (Eliot, 1994) and the Robbins Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (Robbins, 1991) to test job satisfaction. The researchers revealed that the majority of personnel had standard job stress levels (Yadoilah & Eivazi, 2010). Participants did not report any high levels of work-related stress. The relationship between job stress and demographic variables was significantly confirmed for age, education, and years of work. Yadoilah and Eivazi did not find a relationship for gender.

In another study, Hulbert-Williams and Hastings (2008) examined stressful life events that an individual encounters such as bereavement, moving, and changing jobs. The researchers noted that mental and physical health risks are potential reasons when an individual goes through any one of these events (Hulbert-Williams & Hastings). The literature revealed that life events are a function of risk reasons for psychological
problems. Hulbert-Williams and Hastings revealed an association between life events and psychological problems. Findings are consistent across studies. The limitations in this study regarded data collection and one remedy is to collect data from multiple organizations.

DeBruin and Taylor (2005) tested to see if a relationship existed between the different sources of work stress and the experience of stress in the workplace. Employees from a university were asked to download a survey from online that consisted of questions concerning the level of stress caused by work and aspects of work that may cause stress. DeBruin and Taylor obtained a total of 311 responses. DeBruin and Taylor used the following scales to determine the hypotheses of role ambiguity in an individual’s position at work, and how that person is evaluated by (a) relationships, (b) autonomy, (c) stress caused by dealing with bureaucracy, (d) career enhancement, (e) job security, (f) tools and equipment, (g) work, (h) home interface, and (i) workload.

DeBruin and Taylor (2005) stated that role ambiguity related to “the amount of stress experienced by an individual due to vague specifications or constant change regarding the expectations, duties and constraints that define the individual’s job” (p. 753). DeBruin and Taylor stated that role conflict is what an individual experiences when stress occurs from having to fulfill noncomplementary roles in the workplace. Factor analyses of generated items produced a general work stress scale and DeBruin and Taylor addressed a number of sources of work stress: (a) workload, (b) autonomy and bureaucracy, (c) role ambiguity, (d) work or home interface, (e) job security and career advancement, (f) tools and equipment, and (g) physical environment. Workload referred
to the amount of stress experienced by an individual because of the perception that he or she was unable to cope, or be productive, with the amount of work allocated (DeBruin & Taylor, 2005). DeBruin and Taylor wrote that autonomy is a personal independence enabling a person to make an ethical decision and act on that decision. Bureaucracy relates to the stress experience by an individual because of working for an institution where rules are strictly set, and procedures must be closely followed. Role ambiguity is stress experienced from an individual having constant change regarding the expectations and duties of their job (DeBruin & Taylor). DeBruin and Taylor emphasized that work and home interface is associated with stress experienced by the lack of social support at home or from friends, and this stress comes into play both inside and outside the workplace. Job security and career advancement can refer to the stress experienced by an individual as a result of a perceived lack of opportunity to further his or her career. Tools and work equipment relates to the stress experienced from a lack of relevant tools and equipment needed to do the job properly. DeBruin and Taylor stated that the physical environment is stress experienced as a consequence of the physical working environment.

DeBruin and Taylor (2005) used multiple regression analysis to examine the relationships between general work, work stress, and sources for stress. DeBruin and Taylor revealed that high correlations existed in bureaucracy and autonomy in association with relationships. According to DeBruin and Taylor, theses results suggested that individuals having to work according to strict rules and protocol, with little decision-making capacity, had an adverse effect on relationships with others at work. The correlation between career advancement, bureaucracy, and autonomy suggested that
people working in bureaucratic institutions with low job decision-making perceived opportunities for promotion and advancement within the institution to be lacking (DeBruin & Taylor, 2005). In addition, DeBruin and Taylor indicated that other reasons were moderate and displayed a correlation to general work-related stress.

Martin, Leach, Norman, and Silvester (2000) found that researchers have demonstrated that individuals vary in their predisposition towards explaining events in particular ways. Martin et al. noted that previous researchers highlighted that potential risk reasons that increase relocation stress include: (a) gender of relocator, (b) number of children, (c) partner’s career, and (d) number of prior moves. Martin et al. stated that when individuals encounter negative events, they are “more likely to attribute these events to internal, stable, or global reasons” (p. 349). In addition, job relocation presents the relationship between external reasons and psychological reactions that are mediated by the internal cognitive processes. Martin et al. examined the role of attributions in determining psychological reactions to job relocation. The researchers hypothesized that negative psychological reaction would function on a number of relocation problems, and attributions for relocation problems, that have the tendency to attribute negative events to internal and global causes (Martin et al., 2000). Using a cross-sectional survey of 93 people who relocated, the authors tested their hypotheses.

Martin et al. (2000) used several scales that measured their hypotheses. The researchers measured attributions for relocation problems on a 4-item scale (Martin et al.). The Perceived Relocation Problems Scale used a 5-point scale, which measured potential relocation problems. Mental health was measured using a psychological well-
being scale with a 12-item version. Martin et al. mentioned that they had to test the predictions using multiple regression analyses. The regression analyses revealed that relocation problems for mental health and relocation stress was high (Martin et al.). No difference occurred between low and high relocation problems for those who made optimistic attributions to those who made pessimistic attributions. Relocators who had many relocation problems or demands made pessimistic or low control attributions or control experiences produced the worst psychological reactions (Martin et al., 2000). This was because of the lack of control and individuals being unable to use appropriate coping strategies to deal with the situation. Martin et al. supported the predictions using attributions of perceived control. Furthermore, research into the psychological processes involved in job relocation contributes to knowledge that can be useful to other organizations to help reduce relocation stress. Depression regarding relocation decision-making is one of the signs a person may go through when the decision to relocate is made.

**Depression**

Depression in relation to the decision to relocate is a symptom that researchers have investigated as one of the psychological effects that go along with this type of event. Depression is a mental feeling that affects an individual’s behavior, thoughts, and physical being (Payne & Scott, 2010). Armon, Shirom, Melamed, and Shapira (2010) used a longitudinal design to investigate men and women separately. Armon, et al. the hypotheses regarding changes in the components of job demands using a job demand model predict to test changes in depression symptoms over time.
Armon et al.’s (2010) sample size consisted of 692 participants by survey and interviews. Armon et al. measured the participants using the Personal Health Questionnaire, which consists of eight potential symptoms of depression. Workload was measured using a Job Content Questionnaire with responses on a 5-point scale. The researchers measured job control on a 7-item scale with questions similar to Job Content Questionnaire but based on opinions and suggestions (Armon et al., 2010). Armon et al. measured social support using an 8-item measure that covered emotional and instrumental from significant others at work.

Armon et al. (2010) revealed that women have higher levels of depressive symptoms and worse work characteristics than men in all three measures. Symptoms of depression were associated with workload, job control, and social support among men and women. Job strain and work dissatisfaction were predictive of clinically diagnosed depression in men, and women were predicted by private life dissatisfaction (Armon et al.). The limitation in this study was the population studied, as it was a small sample (Armon et al.). However, the results provided evidence regarding job demands using a job demand model predict to test changes in depression symptoms. As depression is one of the indications of relocation decision-making, family is one of the most important parts of the decision, and may have caused some of the depression symptoms.

Family

Family plays an important role in the decision to relocate. Demerouti (2012) integrated theories on family, resources, work-life, and identity to test if a relationship existed among dual-earner couples. Demerouti focused on two areas to test the
hypothesis. The first area was a positive spillover-crossover model among dual-earner couples, in which job resources of one partner were pre-directed to spill over one of the dual earners' individual energy. Demerouti operationalized individual energy as exhaustion. The second area was to investigate why job and home resources affect individual energy. Work and family self-facilitation was theorized to act as a go between the positive effects of job and home.

Demerouti (2012) measured (a) job resources, (b) home resources, (c) work self-facilitation, (d) family self-facilitation, and (e) individual energy. The data supported the fact that job resources influence one's own individual energy through work-self facilitation, and own individual energy influences the partner’s perception of home resources (Demerouti). Demerouti revealed that the exposure of positive pathways influence work characteristics of an individual’s partner through spillover and crossover processes in relation to home and work. Moreover, as an individual’s energy and motivation cross over to the partner, this stimulates a resourceful family environment (Demerouti, 2012).

Bakker, Demerouti, and Doilard (2008) examined how job demands carry on into the home. The researchers hypothesized in two areas: (a) men and women’s jobs contribute to work and family conflict, which also adds to exhaustion; and (b) social undermining mediates the relationship between an individual’s work and family conflict and in his or her home demands (Bakker et al.). Bakker et al. stated, “work and family conflict is within a person across domains, which transmission of demands and consequent strain from one area of life to another” (p. 901). The authors continued to add
that in crossover, if an individual experiences stress in the workplace, that may lead to stress being experienced by the individual’s partner at home. Bakker et al. distributed 900 questionnaires to couples of dual-earners and received a response of 360. The measurement was from a job content questionnaire, and questions related to emotional demands, work, and home using 5-point Likert scale (Bakker et al., 2008). The results revealed that men were slightly older than women, all had children, all had some college or technical background, and women worked more with people than men (Bakker et al., 2008).

Bakker et al. (2008) found that job demands were positively related to participants’ own report of work and family conflict. A significant predictor existed of one’s partner’s experience of social undermining. Social undermining significantly related to the partner’s home demands, and home demands significantly related to family and work conflict (Bakker et al.). Last, family and work conflict related to exhaustion. Bakker et al. noted that the main limitation in this study was the measurement of actual time at work and home, which could affect the level of work and family conflict and family and work conflict data. However, these findings provide evidence for the hypotheses. The negative consequences of an imbalance between work and family mainly concerned outcomes within the individual (Bakker et al.). Work and family conflict are only one part of the multiple challenges that employed parents experience. The conflict is also linked to the quality of family interactions, and these links are alike in men and women. Bakker et al. findings in this study suggest that organizations should pay close attention to work-related characteristics that interfere from work to family life.
Baldridge, Eddleston, and Veiga (2006) examined the influence of relocation decision-making and family from another aspect. To account for the role of family, the researchers tested the model that controlled the effect of previous determinants of willingness to relocate, and then examined the effect of family attributes, including spouse contribution to family income, presence of preschool-age children at home, and perceived strength of the spouse’s and children’s community ties (Baldridge, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2006). Baldridge et al. used a snowball sampling approach to obtain data from a variety of firms in various industries. Out of 1,350 surveys distributed, Baldridge et al. received 676 survey responses.

Baldridge et al. (2006) used several scales to measure the variables in this study. Factor analysis using the principal components method showed items on one dimension. This highest correlation was between marital status and spouse’s community ties (Baldridge et al.). Next was the role gender played in relocation. The author’s noted that female employees were less willing to relocate than their male colleagues (Baldridge et al.). The findings were valid because females were more sensitive to their spouse’s earnings (Baldridge et al.). Baldridge et al. found communities to have a higher effect on females than men. According to Baldridge et al., a male’s career is more frequently given priority when decisions are made that affect both spouses’ careers. Baldridge et al. stated that a spouse’s contribution to family income, presence of preschool-aged children at home, and the perceived strength of spouse’s and children’s community ties are particularly the “most important in shaping an employee’s willingness to relocate” (p.
In contrast with prior research findings, Baldridge et al. did not find a significant influence of age, salary, or education.

Baldridge et al.’s (2006) results suggested that family attributes were important reasons that must be taken into consideration when an organization relocates. More research should be directed to this type of event so that organizations can learn from the stress that employees and their families may experience and get help, if needed. Baldridge et al. indicated that in the mist of psychological things going on in a person’s decision to relocate, the concerns regarding finances and career exist.

### Finance and Career

Delobelle, Rawlinson, Ntuli, Malatsi, Decock, and Depoorter (2010) noted that in relation to relocation and decision-making, finance and career were among the highest reasons individuals have to relocate. Delobelle et al. conducted a correlational study of the relationship between demographic variables, job satisfaction and turnover among primary health care nurses. The researchers found that satisfaction with work content and coworker relationships, and dissatisfaction with pay and work conditions, were statistically and significantly associated with tenure (Delobelle et al.). Turnover intent was statistically explained by job satisfaction, age, and education. Delobelle et al. added that health care nurses with tenure were less likely to leave their job because of satisfaction and pay. In addition to wages, the younger aged health care nurses showed more turnover because of their wages being less than the tenured health care nurses (Delobelle et al., 2010).
Ng et al. (2007) examined literature on job mobility, and from this review, introduced a multilevel theoretical framework that describes how individuals’ job mobility unfolds. The researchers used three perspectives. The first was structure perspective, which suggested that economic conditions and industry differences determine the opportunity structure of the job mobility in the labor market (Ng et al., 2007). Next, the individual difference perspective suggested that dispositional attributes affect a person’s preferences regarding his or her behavior associated with job mobility (Ng et al.). Last, the decisional perspective grounded in the TPB suggested that decisions are based on subjective norms, attitude toward the behavior, and perceived behavior control (Ng et al., 2007).

Ng et al. (2007) viewed some major structural determinants of job mobility that people experience. The researchers indicated that 12 types of job mobility exist, based on three mobility dimensions: (a) status (upwards, lateral, or downwards), (b) function (same or changed), and (c) employer (internal or external). Ng et al. highlighted that the focus on the dimensions of status and employer were among the highest significant levels, which indicated that individuals relocate because of status and financial reasons. Ng et al. emphasized, “after each mobility experience, individuals adjust to new positions and reach a new equilibrium point, where they feel comfortable with their and see no urgency to change jobs” (p. 367). Ng et al. mentioned that career equilibrium is disrupted by categories of variables that exist at various levels of analysis, which are: (a) structural reasons, (b) individual differences, and (c) decisional reasons. Structural reasons affect
the opportunities for job mobility and exist at the community, regional, industry, and organizational levels.

In view of the mobility options for an individual relocating, Ng et al. (2007) revealed that personality traits, career interests, values, and attachment styles were contributing reasons of decisions. During a weak economy, individuals perceive strong norm for mobility within their current organization, even for jobs at lower levels because the individual is worried about potential lay-offs (Ng et al.). The authors provided insight into the ways structural reasons and individual differences constrain job mobility. Ng et al. revealed that the framework captured significant decisional perspectives that are embedded a multi-level framework, which is important for job mobility. The next section pertains to career and how the decision to relocate influences a person’s career.

Career and relocation decision-making are tough choices any employee has to make. Organizational relocation affects employees’ work lives and nonworking lives. Sagie, Krausz, and Weinstain (2001) used role theory as a framework to examine the influence of the roles of organization members, career holders, and a family person on the employee’s actual relocation. In investigating previous studies, Sagie et al. found that most researchers focused on managers and not on all employees and their roles in the organization. With this in mind, the authors sample consisted of 108 production workers and supervisors in a governmental organization (Sagie et al.). Sagie et al. collected the data in two phases: (a) the announcement of the management decision to transfer, and (b) one month after the actual completion of the relocation. Sagie et al. marked the questionnaires in advance to enable the matching of data collected in both phases.
Sagie et al. (2001) used three biographical variables gathered from each respondent during the first phase: (a) age, (b) marital status, and (c) the number of children living at home. In order to draw from scales, a factor analysis helped examine the responses. Sagie et al. revealed that not all three roles are equally influential. A significant number of employees who relocated with the organization and those who chose to leave the company differed with regard to career-related variables: age and retention intention, and family support. Older employees tend to relocate less often than younger colleagues (Sagie et al., 2001). Employees’ intentions to continue their affiliation with the organization discriminated between both of these groups. In comparison to the workers who intended to stay with the organization, those who preferred to accept a position elsewhere tended to relocate less. Sagie et al. noted that research on behavior and attitudinal responses to organizational change demonstrated “self-serving considerations help in shaping responses” (p. 346). Sagie et al. showed that the data showed those employees assuming career roles scored significantly higher in intentions of willingness to relocate.

Sagie et al.’s (2001) study had some limitations, but the major one was to consider other plants of the same organization to increase the validity of the data. Despite this limitation, Sagie et al. revealed that an employee's different roles, such as (a) organization member, (b) career holder, and (c) family person, contribute to relocation decision and behavior. Sagie et al. stated that this can aid in how organizations in the future handle plant relocations and employee decision-making. The next section outlines
well-being and how a person’s decision to relocate with an organization influences one’s well-being.

**Well-Being**

According to Ashford (2001), organizations have had an increased focus on well-being in the last 10 years when it comes to the quality of life at work. In relation to this research, researchers define this as ultimately good for an individual. A state of the word “good” includes health, happiness, and prosperity. According to Ashford, this can be measured by various validated research indicators. In addition to working, a person’s psychological health is important. Psychological health is how average people are living day-to-day in life. For example, if a person is unhappy for a few days it does not mean this person is mentally disturbed.

Previous research on relocation and well-being has shown that major life events can have short- and long-term effects (Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid, & Lucas, 2012). Luhmann et al. emphasized the importance of well-being relating to how people feel and think about their lives. The authors used a meta-analysis to examine whether life events have different effects on affective and cognitive well-being and if the rate of adaptation varies across different life events (Luhmann et al.). Luhmann conducted a literature search of longitudinal studies based on keywords *well-being, life satisfaction, positive effect, negative effect, happiness, quality of life,* and *depression.* Out of 2,330 publications, Luhmann et al. integrated 188 publications to describe the reaction and adaptation to the events.
Luhmann et al.’s (2012) sample publications provided data on different categories of life events. Family and work-related events indicated the highest rankings. Under these two categories, sub areas consisted of (a) marriage, (b) divorce, (c) bereavement, (d) childbirth, (e) unemployment, (f) re-employment, (g) retirement, and (h) relocation (Luhmann et al., 2012). The meta-analysis revealed differences and similarities between the different life events. With extreme causes of well-being, such as after childbirth, individuals may cognitively evaluate their lives as more negative than before because they have less quality time with their spouse (Luhmann et al., 2012). Unemployment and bereavement had much more negative initial effects on well-being than divorce or retirement, but the rate of adaptation was higher. The publications showed retirement was a neutral event. However, retirement is accompanied by reduced income, less work-related activities, less social contact, and more health problems likely because of age (Luhmann et al.). Luhmann et al. revealed that the results for well-being were significantly low, and the outcome for adaptation to the event was significantly high.

Leach et al. (2010) investigated how poor health acts as a barrier to gaining good quality of work, and how good quality of work is an important prerequisite for positive health outcomes. Stressful or adverse psychosocial work conditions include excessive demands, poor control, lack of job security, and future job prospects as contributors to a decrease in well-being (Leach et al., 2010). In this study, Leach et al. used a project that had data on employment status, psychosocial job quality, and mental and physical health status from 4,261 people.
Leach et al. (2010) revealed that the relationships between work, health, and job quality are not straightforward. The authors found, “health status influences the type of employment transition people take on, but that at the same time, the type of transition undertaken influences health status” (p. 9). The validity of the data revealed that employment status and health outcomes were significantly high among individuals (Leach et al., 2010). The low quality of work was a result of level of education. A strong association also existed between mental health and education in relation to health and employment transitions (Leach et al., 2010). In addition, findings showed that people are more likely to remain in their current employment circumstances, including poor quality of work, rather than move out of the current job (Leach et al., 2010). Leach et al. stated that this association was related to mental and physical health. Older adults tended to remain in current employment circumstances, as finding employment at an older age with a decrease in health was a difficult task (Leach et al., 2010).

Seymour and Dupre (2008) conducted a health risk assessment among 4,000 employees on workplace culture, individual health practice, and environmental effects on physical health. The questionnaire consisted of 70 questions, 40 related to personal health and lifestyle as measured with the Personal Wellness Profile (Seymour & Dupre). This profile is a health and lifestyle assessment tool based on national guidelines and created by Health Promotion, from the University of Toronto and validated by the University of Southern Florida (Seymour & Dupre). On the questionnaire, 19 questions related to organizational health and workplace culture, and 15 questions were composite of drivers of business outcomes, and Sears Employee Index (Seymour & Dupre). The
last 11 questions related to musculoskeletal health. This component of the Healthy Workplace Questionnaire measures the influence of the environment on employees as it relates to musculoskeletal disorders (Seymour & Dupre, 2008).

In Seymour and Dupre’s (2008) study, 1,641 employees completed the online Healthy Workplace Questionnaire and physical testing. The sample consisted of 196 men and 1,445 women. More than 80% of the participants responded positively to work-life balance and positive communication with colleagues (Seymour & Dupre, 2008). In addition, contribution to the organization’s success, pride, respect, fairness, and environment were areas of improvement. Professional development, buy-in to the strategic plan, believing that everyone strives to deliver quality work, and believing that their managers cared about them as a person were positive as well (Seymour & Dupre, 2008). Seymour and Dupre revealed that the health results showed marginally that it outweighed stress.

Engaging employees to take active and decisive personal steps towards health promotion and prevention is difficult. Change strategies can be supplemented by other means to get employees to buy in. Seymour and Dupre (2008) stated that the theory of planned behavior can be incorporated when the understanding of intention and perceived behavior control is understood. These findings can be addressed to improve (a) worker health, (b) job satisfaction, (c) productivity, (d) engagement and (e) retentions are outcomes of a healthy workplace strategy. Seymour and Dupre found that understanding the environment is crucial in implementation.
Yang, Chen, and Spector (2008) looked at stress and relocation from the standpoint of investigating the effect of job stressors on the well-being of a person-to-environment fit approach. The concept of person-to-environment fit was widespread within organizational behavior research (Yang et al., 2008). Yang et al. emphasized that comparable measurements of person and environment help researchers analyze the interaction process of person and environmental influences outcomes. Yang et al. stated, “strain increases as what people prefer falls short of what they actually receive on the job, which is well-being, and it is maximized as actual characteristics of a person’s preferences” (p. 569). The effects of environmental uniqueness explains the relationship of how a person reacts. In terms of explaining the effect of strains, Yang et al. determined that work conditions jointly influenced a person’s strain at work.

Yang et al. (2008) surveyed six organizations to test the hypotheses. Through the companies’ intra email system, 288 questionnaires were distributed yielding an 83% response rate. Yang et al. used five scales to measure (a) actual and preferred conditions at work, (b) career advancement, (c) mental well-being, (d) physical well-being, (e) job satisfaction, and (f) turnover intention. Descriptive statistics and correlations showed the results. The degree of person-to-environment fit related to job satisfaction, mental well-being, physical well-being, and turnover intention (Yang et al., 2008). Career advancement, job satisfaction, and mental well-being increased as the actual levels of advancement approached preferred level increased. Change attributed to five key predictors related to career advancement that were significant for all outcome variables except for physical well-being. Yang et al. found that demographic variables correlated
significantly to stress and well-being variables. Employees’ job satisfaction was higher when actual and preferred career advancement are both high than that when both are low. Actual and preferred career advancement was associated with a low level of job satisfaction. Employees’ mental well-being was higher toward actual and preferred relationships at work, and these both are preferred a positive state to have in job satisfaction.

Yang et al (2008) explored the relationship between stressful aspects of work, career advancement and relationships at work, and stress outcomes from a person-to-environment fit perspective. The findings provided partical support to the hypotheses concerning how actual relationship to preference relationship had in association to influence (Yang et al., 2008). Further research is needed to rule out possible alternatives in the explanation of results.

Cuyper and Witte (2006) examined the influence of job insecurity in temporary and permanent employees in relation to psychological outcomes. In four organizations, temporary and permanent employees received questionnaires. Cuyper and Witte measured the issues of job insecurity on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, life satisfaction, and self-rated performance. The researchers measured the dependent variables life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and self-rated performance using a 7-point scale. Cuyper and Witte developed 14 items on psychological contract content. Factor analyses on these items revealed a three-factor structure. These items related to promises and commitments regarding (a) interesting work, (b) secure job, (c) good pay for the work you do, and (d) a job that is challenging and career prospects.
Cuyper and Witte (2006) performed regressions separately for all dependent variables, and analysis of variance helped test for contract-based differences on psychological contracts, and on the outcomes, which were job satisfaction, life satisfaction, organizational commitment, and self-rated performance. Cuyper and Witte revealed that significant differences existed between temporary and permanent employees’ responses to the word promises located on the questionnaire. Permanent employees’ scores were significantly high and temporary employees’ scores were lower. Cuyper and Witte did not find any significant differences in the scores for job satisfaction. The scores for insecure permanent employees were significantly higher than those for their secure colleagues. In contrast, feelings of insecurity did not affect employee’s low insecurity.

Cuyper and Witte (2006) found evidence that temporary employment does not need to be problematic in terms of psychological outcomes. This study provided future research in the area of examining both temporary and permanent employees regarding job insecurity in relation to psychological outcomes. The next section details relocation and the organization.

**Relocation and the Organization**

**Transition to the New Location**

Transition to the new location is a decision made by the employees who decided to transition to the new location. Individuals make choices and adjust to work that is often a moving target (Fouad & Bynner, 2008). Fouad and Bynner investigated the transition throughout a person’s working life, and the resources needed at different stages
to ensure the success of the transition. The authors looked at the effect of changes on individuals. Fouad and Bynner made known that, “a person’s career is increasingly viewed as a series of choices made early in life, and that choice is constrained by the context in which individuals make choices, including personal and family resources” (p. 241). The researchers examined the individual choice from school to work transition. Individuals in this group make decisions and face a number of psychological challenges, and many are made by government and corporate policies surrounding a transition (Fouad & Bynner, 2008). For example, Fouad and Bynner indicated “local labor market regulations obligating employers to pay overtime and the availability of health care can be critical reasons in deciding whether to apply for or stay in a job” (p. 242). Fouad and Bynner revealed that certain policies affect the transitions. Leaders must read policies and make sure the policies are up-to-date before the transition.

Fouad and Bynner (2008) focused on the roles of (a) capability and adaptability in supporting and facilitating adjustment to work transitions, (b) the relation to identity development, (c) the role of social and institutional contexts or circumstances in shaping work transitions and outcomes, and (d) voluntary versus involuntary transitions. In the roles of capability and adaptability in supporting and facilitating adjustment to work transitions, and the relation to identity development, individuals in this role start from adolescence. This stage is when the individual forms an independent identity and begins to envision and create an occupational dream. Fouad and Bynner noted that if this task is not successfully mastered, an adolescent may experience role confusion. Once an adolescent transitions from school to work, the acknowledgment of commitment is
established that will remain with an individual. By the same token, Fouad and Bynner found that current demands on an individual to develop capability and career adaptability increase as one gets older. In addition, the researchers revealed that women moving back into the workforce after child rearing or men seeking a new job after a temporary leave face obstacles on the path to career success. Fouad and Bynner stated that the decision was because of the increased demands and requirement of jobs.

Fouad and Bynner (2008) believed that the role of social and institutional contexts or circumstances in shaping work transitions and their outcomes is another concern in work transition. The authors stated that individuals are limited by gender, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity when it comes to work transitions. These reasons have different roles and the direct and indirect influences of decision that individuals make can alter the choices or perceptions of the options available. Fouad and Bynner viewed voluntary versus involuntary transitions as assumptions. The researchers found several areas that included: (a) individuals making transitions in optimal circumstances, (b) individuals making transitions voluntarily, and (c) individuals having the capabilities and resources to make the transition. Differences exist between work transitions made voluntarily, driven by personal agency, and involuntarily by personal and environment constraints. Individuals facing involuntarily transitions, such as laid offs and forced retirements, are considered personal circumstances. Individuals facing voluntary transitions experience changing jobs or careers. In both situations, Fouad and Bynner indicated that a successful adjustment to work transition is the voluntary choice. Individuals with a
strong identity capital and adaptability resources are likely to cope well with whatever transitions they encounter.

Fields, Dingman, Roman, and Blum (2005) stated that work is central to an individual’s life, and people will go through many work transitions, both voluntary and involuntary. Fields et al. noted that individuals making voluntary and involuntary decisions face a number of psychological challenges. Relocation decision-making can cause employee turnover if individuals start to find jobs elsewhere if they do not want to relocated. Fields et al. indicated that the decision to relocate can cause employee turnover and result in an increase of resources.

**Turnover in the Organization**

According to Liljegren and Ekberg (2009), turnover in an organization affects the entire organization. The researchers stated that employee turnover intentions and job mobility equally affect health and burnout. Reasons that turnover is easy includes individuals training others, working later, or even taking on more responsibilities with their job. Liljegren and Ekberg investigated the effects of turnover intentions and job mobility on health and burnout. The authors used a questionnaire that 662 civil Service completed. Of the participants, 73% remained at the same workplace, 13% were internally mobile, and 14% left the organization during a 2-year follow-up period.

Liljegren and Ekberg (2009) revealed that significant differences occurred between the low and high turnover intentions groups in mental health and the three burnout variables, both at baseline and after 2 years. At the baseline, the low turnover intentions group had better mental health than the high turnover intentions group, and a
lower degree of burnout. Job mobility had a significant effect on personal and work-related burnout, supporting the hypothesis in the variables. An individual who wants to change workplace because of job dissatisfaction and strain, but has poor health and a high degree of burnout with exhaustion, is less capable of realizing their turnover plan (Leach et al., 2010). This study supported mobility and the health promoting factor, such as the intentions of an employee, which are crucial for positive health effects (Leach et al.). These findings underline the relationship between the individual’s control of his or her working situation and health. Therefore, Leach et al. (2010) stated, it is essential that when turnover occurs in an organization, leadership should be aware of the outcome regarding health and burnout among their employees to promote better health and productivity.

Fields et al. (2005) examined the predictors that lead to employee turnover in organizations. The researchers confirmed that leaving an organization is a form of decision-making and is a two fold process. The authors viewed three job moves that individuals experience once the decision to leave an organization is made. These moves are (a) leaving or moving to a different job in the same organization, (b) leaving or moving to the same job in a different organization, and (c) leaving or moving to a different job in a different organization. Fields et al. explored 18 variables for predictions of leaving a job and moving to these three alternative types of job change. The researchers used data from a national employee survey conducted by the Survey Research Center, and the Center for Research on Deviance and Behavioral Health (Fields,
Dingman, Roman, & Blum, 2005). Data collection occurred by telephone interviews and surveys.

Fields et al. (2005) tested their hypotheses by estimating the parameters for the three logistic regression models to predict the likelihood of each type of job change. The researchers revealed that an employee leaving a current job and taking a different job with the same company is different in the primary gains of an employee leaving a current job and moving to the same type of job in a different organization, because of the change in organizational conditions. The likelihood of an employee taking a different job with the same company increases because of lower pay and benefits, lower job satisfaction, and the higher employee education level (Fields et al., 2005). Leaving a job and moving to a different job within the same company is reduced by higher unemployment rates, opposite from the effect hypothesized. Tenure, job stress, and job skill were not significant. In the area of lower pay and benefits, lower performance ratings, fewer family responsibilities, and lower unemployment rate were not significant. An employee leaving a job and moving to a different type of job with a different company increases because of lower job security, less tenure, lower age, being male, and having fewer family responsibilities. The other variables that increased the possibility of an employee leaving and moving to a different job in a different company (lower job satisfaction, less concerned supervision, and lower unemployment rate) were not significant predictors. The study results in terms of transition can help other organizations and employees avoid the tendency to leave after the transition. Leadership must understand employee decisions and the concept that turnover may be better modeled as a decision to leave a
job, but was the highlight and supported by the research in this study. Fields et al. (2005) noted that some of the turnover can be alleviated if two-way communication occurs between employees and leadership. The next section includes a discussion on communication, which is vital in relocation decision-making.

**Communication Among the Organization**

Winchell (2009) believed that communication among employees of an organization is one of the most important reasons in change. Winchell noted that because successful change requires the active participation of everyone, a program to support the culture would appear to be a given. According to Winchell, managing change is essential and many organizations may difficulty in getting employee buy-in. Employees have to be aware of their options, and know where to get information when needed. Winchell wrote that the communication process is in terms of a comprehensive assessment, and noted that face-to-face communication is the most important form of communication. Face-to-face interaction involves questions and answers. Furthermore, investigation on how various delivery capabilities is essential. Another factor in the organizational change model is the uncertainty to change among employees and communities. Leadership in the organization has to put together strategies and know exactly what the employees want in order to make change happen.

According to Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler (2008), a lack of communication can affect an entire community when faced with organizational change. The researchers conducted a case study at Fort Ritchie Army Garrison in Cascade, Maryland, which resulted from defense base closure and realignment. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler
conducted a case study to examine the ramifications and effects on a community after an Army post closed. The framework came from placement theory and the researchers included change from leadership, organization, and the community in the examination. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler collected data gathered from the base closure realignment including, (a) interviews, (b) historical data, (c) a post hoc social impact assessment, and (d) concepts of placement theory regarding issues and lessons that can be learned from this type of organizational change.

Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler (2008) stated, “when a military base, especially one that has served as a major community employer, leaves an area, disruptions within the community is expected” (p. 663). This type of situation leaves a community in a must change position. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler interviewed the homeowners and the business owners left in the community after the base left. The data revealed the military had no authority or control of those living outside the gate. The community must make the necessary changes to adapt. Once the military stops communication outside the base, the external employees’ organizations have to come up with ways to make change happen within the community.

**Job Satisfaction and Organizational Change Effects**

Hamidi and Eivazi (2010) investigated the levels of employees’ job stress and the relationship of job satisfaction to organizational performance. The researchers used a cross-sectional descriptive study of participants from an urban health center. Participants included 120 employees who completed the questionnaire. For measuring the levels of participants’ stress and satisfaction, Hamidi and Eivazi used the Eliot Stress
Questionnaire, Robbins Job Satisfaction Questionnaire, and Performance Indices were used. The majority of personnel had job stress levels. This rating was under the variables normal or satisfied. Hamidi and Eivazi found that age, education, and years of work significantly confirmed the relationship between job stress and demographic variables (Hamidi & Eivazi, 2010). The researchers also found a significant relationship between the levels of participants’ job stress and the satisfaction components regarding promotion and pay. Hamidi and Eivazi noted a direct relationship between the participants’ job satisfaction level and their satisfaction with each of the job satisfaction components. If the satisfaction components increased, the total level of satisfaction of the participants would increase. At the optimum stress level, a positive statistical correlation between the participants’ job stress and their level of performance occurred. Although Hamidi and Eivazi reported moderate levels of job stress, managers must be aware of, and sensitive to, negative reasons in the workplace, such as job stress, that influence employees’ health, job satisfaction, and performance.

Motivation for organization change design requires individual buy-in, and employees have no choice. Narayan, Steele-Johnson, and Core (2007) designed a transtheoretical model, which is a model that assesses a person’s readiness to act on changing for the good, which includes having strategies that modify behavior, experiences, and environment. The models for organizational change design gave perspective to organizational change. The importance of pretraining influences, readiness to change, and models were critical in recognizing progression. Further investigation is
needed to investigate all employees’ motivation to learn. More research needs to be
devoted also to the various effects on older employees.

Narayan et al. (2007) revealed that some limitations or resistance constrains a
nongovernment organization, which could affect organizational effectiveness and
implementation of an intervention program. Information sharing for supporting change is
a factor that companies need to consider. The researchers noted that leadership behavior
and organization change design must be communicated among employees. The next
section relates to this topic and the decision to relocate.

**Leadership Behavior and Organizational Change Design**

Masood, Dani, Burns, and Backhouse (2006) mentioned that leadership is one of
the most complicated topics when dealing with organizational change models. Leaders
must prepare to address the changes that come as a consequence of change. According to
Masood et al. little evidence exists concerning the kinds of leader behavior required in
various organizational settings. Organizational variables such as size, organizational
environment, strategies, and technology are likely to impose different demands on leaders
and as a result require a specific behavior. Masood et al. indicated that the process runs
in the background of all leadership activity, irrespective of the reasons that affect
leadership activity. The authors stated that transformational leadership could be
potentially effective across a variety of situations, although certain contextual reasons,
such as structure of the organization, could facilitate the emergence and effect of
transformational leadership (Masood et al., 2006). Organizations have to examine the
leadership models as a group characterized as contingency or situational models.
Following leadership and organizational change, Margolin (2007) examined personal level, behavior, and control from the top-down manager working collaboratively with colleagues by relinquishing overall control. Margolin’s theory was similar to Masood et al. (2006) in relationship to reasons in behavior that affect leadership activity within the organization. Margolin identified three action cycles: (a) a starting point; (b) initial assessment, based on data collected in order to introduce change; and (c) reassessment through reflective examination of what was achieved. A new identity emerged through action research, and the social theory was necessary to be investigated within the research. The findings provided a new identity through action research and showed that the first cycle did not have agreement and the framework lead to a disconnection. This cycle lead to the understanding and changing of management style. Margolin articulated, “the framework lead into disconnects but a strategy that led to create a process, and this was weekly meetings, professional learning community, teaching practice, and enquiry group” (p. 522).

Margolin (2007) stated, “a manager can change styles and cultivate the leadership of others by empowering them and granting support required for independent performance” (p. 526). The second cycle was supportive but needed little improvement. According to Margolin, this was the top-down style (Margolin, 2007). This type of style allowed the current employees to know who was leading the organization. Nonetheless, Margolin described the need for developing relationships between supervisors and employees from the top down. The third cycle revealed that change was supported and agreed. However, action research challenges dictated the traditions and routines that the
organization was accustomed to. Therefore, companies should review leadership and models during the organizational change process.

**Efficiency for Supporting Organizational Change Design**

When it comes to relocation of a military installation, efficiency for supporting organizational change design involves good organization and a plan. Because of the Defense Base Closure and Realignment Commission law of 2005 study, DeLorenzo (2008) identified a successful organizational leadership design with concepts in models. DeLorenzo took data from the Base Closure Realignment Plan, and inserted the data into a research model. By doing this, DeLorenzo created a design for implementation. The implementation helped to create a newly constructed emergency department. From this perspective, it showed that leadership is transformational and was taking measures to promote change. Leaders can learn to make the change process more simple and innovation in the organization easier. DeLorenzo inferred that transformational leaders will correct weak situations by communicating. An example is not having separate lines of authority, and everyone being on the same level. DeLorenzo supported this perspective is with a model that illustrates steps taken to minimize organizational barriers. DeLorenzo illustrated how he used Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy model. The traditional, top-down hierarchy of the military and the tendency of its members to identify their previous structure resulted in a new structure (DeLorenzo). Thus, in time, this military organizational change implemented different transformation strategies for buy-in.
Masood et al. (2006) reviewed various leadership styles inserted into a research model. The model helped to decide if it is possible to transform leadership style without changing culture and situational strength preferences. The model depicted individual leadership and the effect of the organization as a system. The authors conducted a qualitative study using questionnaires to evaluate transformational leaders (Masood et al., 2006). The study included 339 followers consisting of leader-subordinates at middle and lower management for 76 leaders from five manufacturing companies. Masood et al. found that organizational culture is the glue that holds the organization together. The model depicted an alignment model of transformational and non-transformation leadership concepts. The use of this information informed the audience that change is through leadership, and, “transformational leaders will create weak situations where employees are given discretion and freedom to take decisions in their work, increasing employee morale and confidence” (Masood et al., p. 948). A leadership alignment model that illustrates steps taken in organizational transformation can show change. The proposed alignment model needs further testing and would benefit by testing it within different cultures. Masood et al. stated that as the change models are presented to the organization, employee perceptions about the change need discussed. The next section outlines perceptions about relocation.

**Employee Perceptions About Relocation**

Employee perceptions about relocation are affected by a number of things, such as experiences, situations, and information (Winchell, 2009). When a civil service or contractor employee decides to relocate or not, the perception of the employee can affect
the organization. Employee perceptions can delay the organizational change process. Winchell stated that organizations may encounter difficulties in perceptions. Companies must consider the source of information during organizational change and employees’ trust in a particular source. Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia, and Irmer (2007) shared perceptions of job-related, strategic, trust, and openness. The results of their study revealed the recurring theme of perceptions and organizational change. Allen et al. offered these perceptions as explaining an incident in the lack of communication among leadership personnel.

Rhodes, Pullen, and Clegg (2010) conducted a case study following the downsizing and reorganization of a multinational information technology company. Rhodes et al. examined organizational ethics as they emerged in narratives of organizational change told by people who worked at the organization. Exploring the stories of downsizing, Rhodes et al. turned to Ricoeur’s (1980) research to understand narrative and ethics to configure structural analysis. Rhodes et al. explained that the three narrative operations were, “the prefiguration of practical experience as a set of events, configuration of experience into a narrative through a plot, and refiguration of meaning through its ethnic meaning” (p. 539). According to Rhodes et al., these operations help prepare people to deal with everyday life and its ethical evaluation.

Rhodes et al. (2010) used a sample size of 32 interviews conducted across three sites. Data analysis included interviews, observations, and analysis of internal documentation. Limitations in the study included dominant narrative use at V-tech to make sense of the changes implemented. Rhodes et al. suggested that the study be
limited in the scope of ethical deliberations. A key distinction in the analysis is between
story and narrative discourse of the events themselves. Rhodes et al. gave insight into
downsizing, and viewed Ricoeur’s (1980) extensive philosophical research on narrative
and ethics. Instrumental in the change to the organization were (a) the structural analysis
and three narrative operations, (b) the prefiguration of practical experience as a set of
events, (c) the configuration of experience into a narrative through a plot, and (d) the
refiguration of meaning through its ethical meaning (Rhodes et al., 2010). Rhodes et al.
revealed that the information showed how future researchers should apply this theoretical
framework to different types of organizational change, including change in strategy as
well as change in structure. This study provided implications for the understanding of
organizational change, ethics, storytelling, and the relations between those.

Morris (2005) examined the perception of stress and its effect on social workers,
their relationships, and decision-making. Morris distributed a questionnaire to 700 social
workers. Perception was described “as the way people react and respond to others, in
thought, feeling and action” (Morris, p. 347). For instance, if a situation is perceived as
negative, it is likely that external reasons are primarily held responsible. Morris wrote
that if events are perceived as positive, then the events are more likely to be maintained.
Morris showed that perception affects an individual's self-esteem, confidence, self-worth,
value, and equity. Morris illustrated three models that assisted in understanding
perception, intuition, inference, and social skill. Morris stated that individuals obtain
intuition naturally through knowledge. The researcher pointed out that inference shows
that individuals rely on acquiring an understanding of perception through clues, which
lead to an impression and result in generalizing to create and draw assumption (Morris). Morris noted that an individual’s social skills are operated by using interactions, perception, translation, response, and feedback in his or her decision-making.

Morris (2005) revealed that employees have reasons for feeling stressed under workload pressure. These reasons include: (a) performance standards; (b) quality criteria; (c) taking work from home; and (d) fatigue from constant work, which causes lower work performance. These reasons compound decision-making and contribute to job satisfaction and a sense of well-being. Morris mentioned stress so that an individual can be encouraged to find solutions and alternatives to decision-making. Morris stated, “failure to influence decision-making within work increases stress, wear down self esteem, and confidence” (p. 350). Furthermore, Morris believed that decision-making by leadership within an organization is linked to lower job satisfaction because employees are not included in the process. Morris’ results add to how individuals and organizations respond to employees who experience stress and their perceptions. The decision-making process is crucial in determining if an employee decides to stay in the workplace or leave. Morris noted that the process of decision-making is important to acknowledge and explore the perception of an individual experiencing stress.

The perception of placement and relocation to a community is a significant factor in a military BRAC. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler (2008) examined leadership, organizations, community, and placement. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler wanted to know what could be learned from analyzing Fort Ritchie Army Garrison in Cascade, Maryland that might be applicable to other base closures. Their study built upon a case
study of the impacts of BRAC 2005 at Fort Ritchie Army Garrison. The authors noted that placement theory is the theory that explains geographic location. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler explained placement theory in terms of phases. The authors identified these phases: accepting there is going to be a relocation, moving, and settling down at the new location. Changes in leadership and in the organizations may influence whether individuals relocate or not. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler noted that the relocation would affect the community including, for example, businesses closing. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler examined placement theory as it pertains to placement or location when an individual is leaving one place and moving to the next. The authors indicated that the uniqueness about the old place will be important to the new place.

Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler (2008) performed statistical analysis, conducted interviews, reviewed historical data, and examined a post hoc social impact assessment of concepts from the placement theory. They investigated if barriers and resistance to change affected leadership style, organizational structure, and community when an Army base closed. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler wrote that leadership is transformational, and that certain decisions can be made easier for change and innovation in organizations. In addition, when leadership makes certain decisions or changes, transformational leaders may create unfavorable situations. An example is reorganizing work teams to meet new expectations of the transformation. Thanner-Hill and Segal-Wechsler provided empirical evidence that not having the presence of the military in a community can cause economic and social problems.
Relationship Between Job Security and Salary

According to Al-Zoubi (2012), motivation, job satisfaction, and performance are reasons that the relationship between job security and salary is the most important factor in an individual’s decision-making process. Al-Zoubi indicated that many managers and practitioners who work in the government or private sector believe that the way to increase job satisfaction is to raise salaries and financial benefits. These incentives may seem attractive, but questions and actions of employees indicate differently. Sharma and Bajpai (2011) emphasized that the traditional thinking relating money to happiness is diminishing, and data supports a different position.

Sharma and Bajpai (2011) sampled all departments in a private and a public sector organization. The researchers used a questionnaire with questions related to opinions regarding the organization and salary satisfaction, and a theoretical model to measure salary satisfaction. Through literature surveys, Sharma and Bajpai identified 10 variables that have direct effect on salary satisfaction and used the z-test to test their hypotheses. Sharma and Bajpai showed that salary satisfaction is high for the public sector organization as compared to private sector. Salary satisfaction was significantly higher among employees of private sector organizations. Sharma and Bajpai noted that employees unknowingly link salary satisfaction with job security. Salary structure was higher in the private sector, but it was perceived lower because of reasons such as instability and insecurity of jobs. The job security status provided salary satisfaction to employees of public sector organizations. The authors stated that individuals’ salaries in the public sector were lower than the salary of private sector employees. In addition,
Sharma and Bajpai revealed, “wealth provides external resources that buffer individuals against the effects of negative events” (p. 451). Sharma and Bajpai found that salary satisfaction is more influential toward overall job satisfaction. Sharma and Bajpai’s results were in line with their hypotheses. Future researchers needed to test a variety of geographic regions to examine salaries that are a means for enhancing job satisfaction.

Al-Zoubi (2012) investigated the effect of earnings on job satisfaction using survey data from employers. The aim was to examine whether the relationship between salary and job satisfaction is a linear or curvilinear plot. The researcher tested predictability of job satisfaction based on the amount of salary in comparison with the employees’ demographics of gender, age, tenure, and education. On a sample of 858 individuals working in various private and public organizations, Al-Zoubi administered a questionnaire.

Al-Zoubi (2012) used statistical analyses based on average and standard deviations for job satisfaction, age, gender, tenure, education, and salary as variables. The researcher found that 76.8% of the samples were males and 35.2% of the sample age range from 18–60. The tenure working in the same organization ranged 3–5 years (35%), 6–10 years (27.85%), and 11–20 years (15.5%). The educational level was high school or less (6%), diploma (9.8%), bachelor’s degree (71%), and graduate level degree (12.6%). The salary range was 700 U.S. dollars (58.2%), 700–1,400 U.S. dollars (28.3%), and 1,400 or more U.S. dollars (13.3%) per month. The results revealed the lowest job satisfaction mean for employees who received the highest salary range, while the highest job satisfaction mean was for employees who received salary range 700–
1,400 U.S. dollars per month. In gender, females had higher job satisfaction means than males. Demographically, the highest job satisfaction was for employees aged 50–65, while the lowest job satisfaction was for employees aged from 30–39. The employees who spent two years or less in the same organization had the highest job satisfaction mean. Education level and age weakly predicted job satisfaction and the regression was irrelevant.

According to Al-Zoubi (2012), educational levels of the employees who had graduate studies of a master’s or PhD or less than high school certificate had the lowest job satisfaction. Al-Zoubi noted that researchers found that job satisfaction declines with a high level of education. The theory suggested that education has a negative effect on job satisfaction because increased education is associated with higher expectations. This would mean that a person could be dissatisfied with performing the routine tasks required of most jobs even if their salaries are higher than younger employees. Al-Zoubi revealed that employees who already receive high range salaries may develop high expectations about the salary that is already received because of education or having professional skills. Al-Zoubi stated that these employees do not compare their salaries with the salaries of employees of their organizations, but they might compare themselves with outside organizations or groups. Al-Zoubi concluded that salary is a factor for job satisfaction, but is not a major one. Al-Zoubi indicated that salary can influence job satisfaction but work life quality and job characteristics were important.

Al-Zoubi’s (2012) study had a few limitations. For example, some career fields were not included in the sample. However, the researcher balanced this sample and gave
attention to have all basic sectors included in the sample. Al-Zoubi emphasized the importance of looking at psycho-social variables in the work environment: responsibility and job status. The study results can help leaders and employees understand motivation, job satisfaction, and salary among employees.

**Summary**

In this literature review, I provided a complete analysis of information relating to relocation decision-making, strategies, models, processes, and methodologies. This chapter introduced the Army BRAC process, and how civil service and contractor employees are affected by this process. The literature review revealed that gaps exist where further research can add more depth in the area of resistance to relocations in the military because of BRAC, as a lack of research exists on this topic.

I covered several processes and models that illustrated relocation decisions as an organization consolidates and relocates and that have to be adopted by the entire organization. In organizations, labeling behaviors sometimes do not agree with expectations is the way that individuals maintain resistance to change and fight off feedback. The leader’s own level of development is responsible for most of the efforts that fail, and the ability to motivate is not enough. According to Narayan et al. (2007), “there is a need to study motivation in older workers and examine potential differential effects in the older employees then in younger employees; the results for choice to attend training intervention was a motivator” (p. 58). Narayan et al. mentioned that this information showed an increase in understanding of reasons that influence culture. Narayan et al. found that employees were more likely to learn and highlight the
usefulness of pretraining. Narayan et al. noted that four different dimensions of change exist when managing transformation with leadership and design, and the proposed alignment model needs further testing and would benefit by testing these models within different cultures.

The information from each researcher showed how future researchers can apply theoretical frameworks to different types of organizations that undergo change. Leaders need to recognize that during organizational change, employees have to be included in the process and that employees have feelings. Without leaders acknowledging that models, processes, and communication are among the most important steps in organizational transformation, a delay will occur, change the strategy, and make the transition difficult.

Social learning theory was one of the frameworks for this study, and Bandura (1978) stated that people can bring their influence, but the influences of different systems have precedence over how situations and events occur during a decision. The reciprocal mechanisms provide safeguards against social control and conditions of life. However, TPB appeared to be the most favorable in terms of the theory emphasizing that an individual is more likely to engage in behavior if he or she feels that they have control of a particular situation. In relation to the decision to relocate, the literature showed that employees’ actions are based on and perceived to be because of family-related and financial reasons (Ng, Sorensen, Eby, & Feldman, 2007). Family and financial reasons were not a subject of compromise in any way without causing problems.
From the standpoint of job security and salary, both are not a single factor for an employee who has made a decision to relocate with an organization. In reality, financial stability is a predictor of job satisfaction, especially for individuals who receive higher salaries. In regards to relocating, individuals may believe that the increase in salary will increase job satisfactory, but current literature revealed that a higher percentage of employees indicated that job satisfaction increases performance. This relates back to salary increase by job performance. Chapter 3 includes a description of the proposed approach and methodology used in this study for completing a study and to explore the live experiences of civil service and contractor employees, and to understand the motives as to why they accepted or rejected the offer to relocate.
Chapter 3: Research Method

In this study, I investigated the motives of civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to the gaining base Fort Bragg. I explored possible health effects that resulted from the decision, and examined the larger implications of the base relocation in terms of its effect on the military mission. This qualitative study involved a case study design. Interviews included those employees who lived the experience of accepting or rejecting offers to relocate from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg.

The first section of this chapter includes the research questions that guided this investigation, as well as the research design utilized and the rationale for its use. The chapter also has a discussion of the methodology of the proposed study and the role of the researcher in this investigation. The subsequent sections of this chapter include a discussion of the procedures for the sampling and recruitment of participants, followed by a discussion of the data collection procedures and instrumentation. I specified the plan for the analysis of the collected data and offered a discussion of the trustworthiness of the proposed study and the ethical procedures.

Research Questions

The research questions in this qualitative investigation were the following:

Research Question 1: How do civil service and contractor employees differ in their decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate?

Research Question 2: How did accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate affect civil service and contractor employee health?
Research Question 3: What are the impacts on the military mission in terms of why a civil service and contractor employee accepts or rejects the offer to relocate?

In Research Question 1, the term *differ* between civil service and contractor employees meant how these two groups of employees differed in their decisions to accept or reject the offer to relocate because they worked under different pay systems. In Research Question 3, the impacts on the military mission may have been in terms of budget or personnel increases and decreases. In order to conduct the research in response to these research questions, I sought information pertaining to the following subquestions.

Subquestion 1: What financial factors contribute to the acceptance or rejection of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 2: What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 3: What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer?

I obtained data in response to the research questions and subquestions by interviewing the participants and reviewing archival documents. For the first research question, I explored the process by which civil service and contractor employees made the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer. In-depth interviews with the participants yielded information that was necessary to address this question. With the second research question, I explored the employee-related outcomes in terms of health. The data source for this health question came from interviewing the participants in this
The data source for the third research question resulted from examining archival documents and interviewing participants. The documents reviewed included budgetary reports, personnel-related documents, and equipment forms. These documents helped to determine the budgetary effects that relocation decisions have on the military. Interview responses determined the personnel effects that relocation decisions have on the military.

**Research Rationale and Design**

**Qualitative Versus Quantitative**

I considered using quantitative research, which deals with the investigation of a social incident using statistical techniques. After reviewing this type of research approach, a quantitative approach was not appropriate for this study. A quantitative approach yields data from which a researcher obtains generalizable conclusions (Yin, 2003). However, the findings yielded by this approach would not provide the in-depth explanations that I intended to explore with this study.

Unlike the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach allows the researcher the opportunity to uncover the implicit processes and factors that influence a phenomenon (Berry, 2011). Qualitative research allows for a deeper exploration of the phenomenon of interest. Bielby, W.T and Bielby, D.D (1992), have studied relocation within the private sector, but no researchers have analyzed why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject the offer to relocate. A qualitative approach was most appropriate for addressing this gap in the literature. In a qualitative study, a researcher aims to explore the *why* and *how* of an observable fact (Yin, 2003). In this
respective, a qualitative approach was suitable for the present study to explore how and why civil service and contractor employees arrived at the decision to relocate.

Choosing Among Qualitative Approaches

In this qualitative study, the approach came from consideration of research questions and the purpose of this study. I used a cased study approach, which was the most fitting design from the following qualitative approaches: (a) phenomenology, (b) grounded theory, (c) ethnography, and (d) case study. The subsequent sections present a discussion of the approaches and offer the rationale for choosing the case study as the suitable approach for this study.

Phenomenology involves the study of a phenomenon through the lived experiences of individuals who have experienced that phenomenon (Walsh, 2012). Moustakas (1994) indicated that, in phenomenological research, the researcher focuses on the meaning given to these experiences by the participants, rather than focusing on the interpretation of the researcher. The objective of researchers using a phenomenological approach is to arrive at descriptions of the essential components or essence of the phenomenon, not to generate explanations or to validate hypotheses.

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), grounded theory is the most useful approach when the aim of the researcher is to examine the features that underlie the subject of interest and to create a theory grounded in the data. Grounded theory entails an iterative process of data collection and analysis in which the researcher continually refines and connects categories that appear among the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967;
Kolb, 2012). Charmaz (2008) indicated the theory derived from this process and is intended to provide an explanation of the study.

Ethnography is an approach that involves the study of a particular cultural group, or groups, to better understand the culture (Sangasubana, 2011). Using an ethnographic approach, one collects data through a long period of study in which the aim is to immerse oneself within the culture of study through observation and participation (Moustakas, 1994; Van Maanen, 1988). Researchers use ethnography when a cultural group is the unit of analysis (Sangasubana, 2011). In this study, I did not conceptualize civil service and contractor employees as a culture-sharing group. Thus, ethnography was not the best design choice for this study.

Because of the specific aims of this study, these approaches were not found to be the most appropriate choices for this research. Instead, a case study was the most fitting choice for this investigation. Baxter and Jack (2009) offered a set of criteria for determining when a case study design is appropriate. The first criterion was that a case study design is appropriate when the aim of the researcher is to obtain information that can answer how and why questions (Baxter & Jack). In this study, I aimed to elucidate how participants arrived at their decision to relocate or not relocate, and to ascertain why they settled upon their decision. I explored how these decisions affect health-related outcomes, and how the relocation affected the military. For these reasons, the aims of this study met the first criterion.

The second criterion put forth by Baxter and Jack (2009) was that a case study design is appropriate when the researcher does not have manipulative control of the
phenomenon of interest. In this study, the phenomenon investigated was entirely outside of the researcher’s control. I did not have the ability to assign participants to experimental groups, or determine which participants were exposed to which aspect of the phenomenon. I explored the process and outcomes of a phenomenon that had already occurred naturally. For this reason, the context of the current study satisfied the second criterion.

The third criterion proposed by Baxter and Jack (2009) was that a case study design is appropriate when a researcher wishes to explore and account for the context in which the phenomenon of study occurred, or when the researcher is unable to clearly demarcate the boundaries of the phenomenon from those of the context. In this study, the decision to relocate was the phenomenon of interest. The decision-making process did not take place in a vacuum. Rather, a number of external factors influenced the decision-making process. Because of the interrelatedness of the decision and the contextual conditions in which this decision took place, it was necessary to explore all of these factors to obtain a complete understanding of the phenomenon. For these reasons, this study met this criterion. As such, a case study design was the most appropriate qualitative design for this proposed investigation.

**Research Design**

This qualitative study involved a case study design. A case study is an explanatory analysis of a person, group, or event (Yin, 2003). Case study research involves in-depth exploration of a bounded unit, or case, in its real life setting to develop a comprehensive understanding of a process, setting, or phenomenon of interest (Crowe
et al., 2011). According to Baxter and Jack (2009), the case study is an approach to research that enables examination of a phenomenon, and the context in which it exists, through use of a large quantity of data sources. This approach enabled me to explore the topic of study through a variety of perspectives, which allowed for a more thorough examination of the issue.

An advantage of the case study design was that it enabled intimate interaction between the researcher and participants, thereby allowing participants to describe their experiences (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). By obtaining information filtered through the lens of the participants, the researcher was better able to comprehend their actions (Robottom & Hart, 1993). The use of the case study design was also beneficial in that it permitted the use of a variety of data collection methods and sources (Yin, 1981). In this study, I used the case study design to examine the motives of civil service and contractor employees in making the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate, and to examine the health-related effects of the decision and the larger effect of the decision on the military mission.

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher in qualitative research is different from quantitative research. In qualitative research, the researcher acts as the primary instrument of data collection (Xu & Storr, 2012). This means that the researcher is observing, interviewing, or taking notes.

I am a senior management analyst with numerous government certifications. As the researcher for this study, to avoid potential bias or any ethical issues, I was not a
supervisor to any of the participants. My relationship to the participants was that we all worked on the base. My solicitation for participants for this study, was done through social media using a flyer (see Appendix A) explaining how to partake in this study. The interview protocol was in accordance with the criteria that had to be met in the consent form in order to participate.

My role as the researcher in this case study was to collect, organize, and analyze the data from interviews and documents. I collected data through open-ended interviews and used the NVivo 10 software program to organize the data and facilitate the process of thematic analysis. Because of the functions that I performed in the course of this research, some important implications were considered, especially research bias.

In qualitative research, biases can affect the validity and reliability of the findings. In qualitative research, the major biases are in the phrasing of the questions and the researcher’s body language (Tufford & Newman, 2010; Yin, 2003). Tufford and Newman (2010), and Yin (2003), mentioned that the researcher must make sure all questions are open-ended, and that the questions do not influence the participants’ answers. In addition, I remained neutral and objective in writing and capturing what each participant indicated in the interview. I employed Husserl’s concept of epoché, as described by Moustakas (1994), to bracket and set aside my own personal biases, in order to collect and examine the data from a fresh and unbiased perspective.
Methodology

Participant Selection Logic

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. The target population of this study consisted of civil service and contractor employees who were offered the choice to relocate or not. The sampling frame for this study was limited to those civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to the gaining base Fort Bragg.

Sampling Strategy

A purposive, convenience sample strategy helped to solicit participants in this study. Purposeful sampling is an apt strategy when the aim is to identify and select participants with experience relevant to the area of study (Coyne, 1997). The sampling strategy was purposive in that participants were selected based on their perceived ability to provide meaningful and relevant information for the study. The purpose of this strategy was to gain an understanding of both the reasons and the processes used when civil service and contractor employees made their relocation decision. A sample of civil service and contractor employees resulted from a flyer that I created to recruit civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate. Individuals in public facilities off base, and through social media, received this flyer. I used snowball sampling to contact the participants for the study.
In addition, I used BRAC archival reports from the library that were available in public domain. These reports provided accurate information dealing with BRAC decisions. In selecting participants for the study, I aimed to increase variation among the sample by choosing 24 individuals from different career positions within the organization. The following criteria helped to select participants for this study: (a) participants were civil service or contractor employees of the military, (b) participants were stationed at Fort McPherson, and (c) participants who had been offered the opportunity to relocate to Fort Bragg. The BRAC reports were used to indicate how many individuals in a particular career position accepted or rejected the offer to relocate. The offers specified that an email and physical street address needed to be included so that documents concerning the relocation could be mailed. From this information, I was able to know how many civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate.

Sample Size

The sample size for this study was 24 participants. Researchers base considerations of sample size in qualitative studies on the concept of saturation (Mason, 2010). Saturation refers to the point at which the inclusion of additional participants no longer adds novel or meaningful information to the data set (Mason). Researchers have offered different suggestions as to an appropriate sample size to achieve saturation. Morse (1994) stated that a minimum sample of six participants was necessary to achieve saturation. Bertaux (1981) put forth 15 as the minimum acceptable sample size in qualitative research. Charmaz (2006), Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) offered a
different suggestion, supporting the adequacy of a sample of 25 participants for small-scale studies. Green and Thorogood (2009) stated that researchers typically receive diminishing returns after interviewing “20 or so people,” and maintained that novel information is seldom obtained after this point (p. 120).

Based upon these recommendations, I concluded that a sample size of 24 participants was sufficient to achieve saturation in this study. Within this framework, I selected a total of 24 participants, of which 13 were contractor employees—eight males and five females. Eleven civil service employees participated—seven males and four females. Six of the civil service employees accepted the offer to move and five rejected the offer to move. Mason (2010) and Hanson, Balmer, and Giardinos (2011) indicated that assessing the data for saturation throughout the process of data collection and analysis is critical. I considered the data for saturation when all of the concepts discussed by participants had been fully fleshed out by the collective responses of participants, and no novel themes emerged from the responses of the final participants in the sample. I had a plan to achieve saturation prior to the completion of all 24 interviews. However, because I had equitable representation as described, I completed all 24 interviews. I did not have to contact any remaining participants to thank them for their time, or to inform them that data collection was concluded prior to when the sample size of 24 was met.

**Instrumentation and Design**

The instrument used in this qualitative case study consisted of open-ended and semistructured interview questions. Lietz and Zayas (2010) maintained that open-ended interview questions allow the researcher to elicit rich, in-depth descriptions of the
participants’ perceptions and experiences, and enables the participants the freedom to express their views in their own terms. The interviews consisted of 10 demographic questions, followed by 13 primary interview questions (see Appendix C). I designed an interview guide for use as the data collection instrument for this study (Roulston, 2010). An interview guide (see Appendix C) facilitated the systematic collection of in-depth data, but also offered the researcher the flexibility to pursue unexpected developments and lines of conversation within the interview as they arise (Turner, 2010; Xu & Storr, 2012).

The interviews were semistructured, open-ended questions used in face-to-face interviews. A review of the literature and consideration of the research questions guiding this study informed the development of the interview questions. The interview guide contained 13 open-ended interview questions. The interview guide included a question that offered the participant the opportunity to discuss any additional thoughts related to the topic of study. I conducted all interviews using this interview guide. As noted by Turner (2010), the use of an interview guide ensured that I covered all pertinent topics relating to the research questions and it enabled a direct comparison of responses between participants.

To validate this newly developed instrument, I conducted a field test. To initiate the field test, I contacted an expert in the topic of study and asked the expert to review the questions located in the interview guide. The expert offered opinions and suggestions concerning the clarity of the proposed questions, as well as the utility of the interview questions in addressing the research questions that guided this study. Based upon the
expert’s feedback, I revised the interview questions to obtain a final, validated version of
the interview guide. As the researcher in this case study, I ensured that all copies of the
research were kept in a locked safe, that electronic data were password protected, and all
data will be destroyed after a period of 5 years.

**Procedures for Participation and Data Collection**

All participants received an email that included the consent letter requesting their
agreement to participate in the study. Once I received signed consent forms, I scheduled
a time and location for the interviews. Data collection covered a 3-week span and each
interview took approximately 65 minutes. All interviews were audio-recorded to be
transcribed.

During the interviews, each civil service and contractor employee was assigned a
code so that their answers and identity remained anonymous throughout the process of
data collection and analysis. At the end of the interviews, I debriefed the participant by
explaining the objectives of the study. I provided contact information to enable the
participants to contact me later with any questions or concerns related to the study. Upon
completion of the interview, I transcribed the interview responses and emailed each
participant a copy of his or her responses so that the participant could verify for accuracy.
Once all interview data were collected, I input the responses in NVivo 10.

Advantages and disadvantages of this data collection technique exist, noted by
Lietz and Zayas (2010). Face-to-face interviews help with receiving an accurate
transmission of information from the participants. Another advantage is the individual
being interviewed is unable to provide false information during questions related to age,
gender, or race. Using this data collection technique also gives the interviewer control over the interview and keeps the interviewee focused and on track to completion of the interview. Lietz and Zayas indicated that nonverbal communication conveys a message to another individual through body movement. Body gestures are easy to detect and can indicate if a person has interest in the conversation.

As with any data collection technique, there are disadvantages: cost, manual data transcription and entry, and limited sample size (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). While there were no direct monetary costs, there were costs in time for the interviewer and the participants. As a result of the time constraints, I limited my sample size, but ensured that I reached saturation. During my data collection, I used a digital recorder, which cut down on the handwriting but I transcribed the responses from each participant and then entered the responses into NVivo manually.

**Data Analysis Plan**

As demonstrated by Phillippi and Myers (2013), data analysis in this case study involved examination of the responses to the open-ended interview questions, the answers to the demographic questions developed by the researcher, and archival documents. I used the method of data analysis described by Leech and Onweugbuzie (2009) in their survey of qualitative, computer-assisted data analysis techniques. Specifically, the constant comparative method described by these authors involved employing the use of NVivo 10 data analysis software. Next, I discuss what the terms mean in NVivo 10 and the steps followed in completing the analysis of the data.
First, I imported data into NVivo 10 to enable textual analysis. Then I read the data several times to get a general idea of the overall content. As suggested by Smith and Firth (2011), once reading through the data several times, salient and informative statements within the text became apparent. I highlighted the text fragments as they were identified.

Next, I used coding to proceed through the data and assigned codes to identify text fragments. These codes reflected the basic idea expressed by the text fragment. Once I coded all of the data, I grouped text fragments with similar codes together, and assigned these data to a category. Categories are broad structured groups created to systematically organize like data into larger groups. The data organized into categories shared a conceptual link that acted like an umbrella, effectively explaining a certain commonality. I used categorization to gather data that shared relationships and associations into specific groups.

After this step, I examined and identified connections between categories. The aim was to uncover the broader relationships reflected by these connections. Using the NVivo 10 software, I grouped together texts that were close in meaning, or reflected a similar concept, and assigned these categories collectively to a theme. The theme signified the overall idea(s) that the group of categories represented.

This process proceeded until every category was assigned to a theme. The themes revealed from the data were a reflection of the most common and well-supported views of the participants. In the final step of the data analysis, I organized the themes by the research question that the themes addressed.
Before finalizing the organization of the themes, I provided the participants an opportunity to examine, comment upon, and request changes to the analysis. Participant input was essential in capturing the accurate meaning of the experience, and increased the respondent validity, adding to the accuracy of the results. According to Loh (2013), checking the analysis adds to the accuracy of the results, and thereby increases the validity of the researcher's conclusions.

To address Research Questions 1 and 2, I collected information from the interviews as well as BRAC-related reports that were public domain. These documents included budget and personnel reports. This documentation provided information to contextualize the decision-making process and shed light on factors that incentivized the acceptance of the offer to relocate. I compared these several forms of documentation in my analysis of the data. For example, the relocation offers, such as house hunting trip and packing household goods, were described in information obtained through triangulation. This information indicated which civil service employees accepted or rejected the incentives.

In the interviews, I collected information, from which I was able to derive research findings (Houghton et al., 2013). I compared the BRAC report information to the responses provided by the participants and looked for marked similarities or discrepancies between the reports. Documents listing the demographic information of individuals who accepted or rejected the offer corroborated insights gained from the interviews concerning factors that contributed to decisions to accept or reject. This
provided information pertinent to the research questions. These documents were used along with pertinent themes to answer sub research questions 1, 2, and 3.

To address sub research question 1, I collected information from the interviews as well as documentation regarding incentive offer reports. I examined documents indicating whether the employees wanted the incentives or declined. To address sub research questions 2 and 3, I examined documents indicating how long employees remained at Fort Bragg after the relocation, which pointed to their career and satisfaction with their decision to relocate. Documents showing new hiring and employee turnover after the first year of relocation could shed light on employee satisfaction at the base. These reports can provide information would help to contextualize and corroborate the information gained in the interviews concerning career, and how satisfied the employees were with their relocation decision.

**Issues of Trustworthiness**

Qualitative researchers have aims and objectives different from those of quantitative researchers. As such, the quality of qualitative research must be judged by different standards from quantitative research. While quantitative inquiries are evaluated in terms of validity and reliability, the concept of trustworthiness was more relevant in qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) specified a criterion consisting of four measures used to assess the trustworthiness of qualitative inquiries: (a) credibility, (b) dependability, (c) confirmability, and (d) transferability.
Credibility

Credibility refers to the extent to which the findings of the study accurately reflect the phenomenon they are purported to describe (Shenton, 2004). Triangulation is one method for improving the credibility of qualitative studies (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010). In this study, I asked participants to review copies of their transcribed interview to verify the accuracy of the transcription.

Triangulation is another commonly cited method for improving the credibility of qualitative studies (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010). In this study, I incorporated triangulation to improve credibility, using two types of triangulation: (a) data triangulation and (b) method triangulation. Data triangulation occurred through interviewing participants in different career fields who are expected to offer unique perspectives on the topic of study.

Methodological triangulation occurred through examining different documentation including, but not limited to, (a) base status reports, (b) budget reports, (c) BRAC reports, and (d) human resources reports. Through triangulation of the information included in these documents and the information gleaned from the interviews, I was able to validate the research findings. Data collection involved information from the interviews as well as documentation regarding relocation offers. These documents provided information to contextualize the decision-making process, and shed light on factors that provided employees with an incentive to accept the relocation offer. I compared this information to the themes generated from the interviews to look for significant similarities or discrepancies between the two sources of data. Documents
showing the demographics of individuals who accepted or rejected the offer helped to corroborate insights gained from the interviews concerning factors that contributed to decisions to accept or reject the offer. Human resources documents showing new hiring and employee turnover after the first year of relocation provided clues to employee satisfaction. This information helped to contextualize and validate the information gained in the interviews concerning how satisfied the employees were with their relocation decision. Shenton (2004) indicated that a variety of documentary evidence provides contextual information to enrich or confirm the collected data.

**Dependability**

Dependability denotes the degree to which another researcher would be able to replicate the study (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). Shenton (2004) asserted that the creation of an audit trail can improve dependability in qualitative research. To establish dependability, I provided a detailed description of the methods and procedures used to carry out the study. Through this description, an independent researcher would be able to audit or replicate the procedures used in this study.

**Confirmability**

Confirmability concerns the extent to which the findings of the study represent an accurate reflection of the ideas of the participants, rather than the beliefs of the researcher (Hanson et al., 2011). To establish confirmability, a researcher must show clear links between the findings of the study and the data itself (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). Member-checking (Lietz & Zayas, 2010), triangulation (Shenton, 2004), and the creation of an audit trail (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010; Shenton, 2004) are all strategies
that served to increase confirmability. Member-checking is a technique that I employed to verify the accuracy of the transcripts prior to data analysis to ensure that the dataset was correct. Triangulation of sources was a technique employed to confirm the resulting analysis was correct through multiple sources of data. These multiple sources were interview transcripts and the public information reports that display relocation information such as approximate number of personnel, and demographical information from the move that I used. I also used an audit trail to identify the decisions I made such as organization of data in tables and figures and the procedures that both data collection and data analysis entailed. I did this to provide an outline of how I weaved through the data to obtain the results of the research study.

**Transferability**

The transferability of a study suggests the ability of the study’s findings to be transferred or extended to other situations and contexts (Hanson et al., 2011). In qualitative research, the onus is put on the reader to determine a study’s transferability. The reader must, based upon the information presented, determine the degree to which a study is transferable. In this study, transferability increased by providing a rich, detailed description of the participants’ report (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010; Tracy, 2010).

**Ethical Procedures**

The IRB at Walden University granted authorization to conduct this study before starting this study. Participants received a consent form via email. As recommended by Qu and Dumay (2011), participants were informed of their legal rights to participate, the
right to withdraw at any time without penalty, and potential consequence and harm. The participants were also informed that the interview would take between 30 to 60 minutes. There was no known risk in participating in this study.

Confidentiality is one of the most important efforts in conducting an interview (Qu & Dumay, 2011; Saunders, Kitzinger, & Kitzinger, 2014). Before conducting the interviews, as the researcher, I received IRB approval from the University. Once the IRB application was approved, I began to communicate with the potential participants. Each participant received a consent form in an email prior to conducting the interviews. In addition, I informed the participants that I had completed education concerning the protection of human subjects through the National Institute for Health. Appendix D includes a certificate of completion from the National Institute of Health. The data were treated with care to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants (Saunders et al., 2014). The results of the research did not include any names, and information provided in the interviews was stored in a combination safe as directed by IRB.

I will maintain all physical copies of the research, such as transcripts and report data, in a locked safe located within my home. I will keep all electronic data encrypted on a password-protected computer located within my home. After 5 years both physical and electronic data will be destroyed. Physical data will be shredded and electronic data will be wiped from the password-protected computer.
Summary

The purpose of this qualitative study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health-related effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. In this chapter, I described a detailed case study approach and provided information on the research methods employed to conduct the research. Interviews and data from BRAC reports were comprised of the data used for analysis in this study. I analyzed the data using the constant comparative method, with the assistance of NVivo 10 to facilitate the organization of the data.

In Chapter 4, there will be a discussion of research setting, participants recruitment, participant demographic information, data collection procedures, data analysis steps, and the results of the research study. The results of the research study will include a brief paragraph connecting participant responses to the conceptual framework. This will be further expanded in Chapter 5.
Chapter 4: Results

In this qualitative case study, I designed the research questions to answer the purpose of this study, which was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. In this chapter, I report the results of the data collected pertaining to the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accepted or rejected an offer to relocate. The purpose of this qualitative study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind civil service and contractor employees’ decisions to relocate, any individual potential health effects from the decision, and any impact on the military mission. Therefore, my intent was to increase the knowledge of individuals who are employed by the DoD.

In this chapter, I report the results of the data collected on the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accepted or rejected an offer to relocate. I will discuss the research field test, setting, the data collection methods, demographics of the participants, data analysis procedures, and the evidence of trustworthiness prior to explaining the results of the study. These results are organized by research questions.

The main question in this research was the following: Why did civil service and contractor employees accept or reject the offer to relocate because of this BRAC? The research questions that I answered in this qualitative investigation were the following:

Research Question 1: How do civil service and contractor employees differ in their decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate?
Research Question 2: How did accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate affect civil service and contractor employee health?

Research Question 3: What are the impacts on the military mission in terms of the decision made from a civil service and contractor employee when an offer is accepted or rejected in relocation?

In research question one, the term *differ* between civil service and contractor employees means how these two groups of employees differ in their decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate because they work under different pay systems. In research question three, the impacts on the military mission may be in terms of budget or
personnel increases and decreases. To conduct the research in response to these research questions, I strived for information pertaining to the following subquestions.

Subquestion 1: What financial factors contribute to the acceptance of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 2: What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

Subquestion 3: What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer?

The next sections in this chapter will include the field test for the instrument, setting, data collection, demographics, data analysis, evidence of trustworthiness, results, overarching common themes, themes not linked to research questions and a summary.

Field Test

I conducted a field test to validate the newly developed instrument used to conduct my interviews. The purpose of a field test is to ensure the instrument is valid by conducting a review by experts in the field of study (Turner, 2010; Xu & Storr, 2012). The field test ensured that I used the right questions needed to answer my research questions, and the interview questions were clear and concise with no misunderstandings in the questions during the interviews.
Setting

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. The target population of this study consisted of American civil service and contractor employees who were offered the choice to relocate. The sampling frame for this study was limited to those civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to the gaining base Fort Bragg.

The location for this research was an Army base located in Atlanta-East Point, Georgia. The U.S. DoD BRAC Report (2005) indicated that the closure of Fort McPherson and the relocation to Fort Bragg as stipulated by the 2005 BRAC actions resulted in an estimated loss of 7,123 jobs (4,303 direct and 2,820 indirect jobs) between 2006 and 2011 in the Atlanta-East Point metropolitan area.

Data Collection

I used a semistructured, open-ended interview protocol consisting of 10 demographic questions and 13 interview questions (see Appendices B and C). Data collection covered a 3-week span and took approximately 65 minutes each. I audio-recorded each interview and later transcribed the responses manually. It took two hours to transcribe and type each interview. I emailed the responses to each participant for review and correction. The sample included 24 participants and was sufficient to achieve saturation in this study. The sample consisted of 11 civil service and 13 contract
employees. There were no variations in data collection from the plan presented in Chapter 3.

**Demographics**

The instrument that I used in this qualitative case study was an open-ended, semistructured, face-to-face interview with 18 individuals and six telephone interviews, which totaled 24 interviews. I designed an interview guide to use as the data collection instrument for this study. The interviews were conducted separately over a 3-week period, and the interviews took approximately 1 hour and 5 minutes. Of the 24 participants I interviewed, 11 were civil service employees (46%) and 13 were contractors (54%).

The frequencies and percentages of civil service employee demographics are presented in Table 2. Of this group of participants, 100% \( (n = 11) \) were homeowners, which is a feature that could influence any decisions they made regarding relocation. Nine of the 11 (82%) were married, indicating that decisions about relocation affected others, which could have weighed on the choices made. The participants were largely older than the age of 50 (10, 91%) indicating that many were mid-career and were not close to retirement.
Table 2

*Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics for Civil Service Employees (n = 11)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accept or reject offer</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marriage status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age range</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 + ears</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate’s degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years in the Federal Government</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – 8 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 – 12 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 – 16 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 + years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$61k – $70k</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$71k – $80k</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$81k – $90k</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$91k – $100k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$101k +</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of dependents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rent or own at Fort McPherson</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Due to rounding error, not all percentages may sum to 100.
The frequencies and percentages of contractor employee demographics are presented in Table 3. It is interesting to note that the majority of the sample was married (7, 54%), thus any decisions about relocation made would have an effect on their families. Most of the members of this group were over the age of 50 (9, 69%), indicating that they were mid-career and not close to retirement. A great majority (12, 92%) of the sampled contractor employees owned homes and did not rent, a factor that could also affect decision-making.
Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages of Demographics for Contractor Employees (n = 13)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept or reject offer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age range</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 – 49 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 + years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in the Federal Government</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – 8 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 + years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$41k – $50k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$61k – $70k</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$71k – $80k</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$81k – $90k</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$91k – $100k</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$101k +</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of dependents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent or own at Fort McPherson</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Due to rounding error, not all percentages may sum to 100.
Data Analysis

As demonstrated by Phillippi and Myers (2013), data analysis in this case study involved examination of the answers to the open-ended interview questions, the demographic questions, as well as archival documents. I used the method of data analysis described by Leech and Onweugbuzie (2011) in their survey of qualitative, computer-assisted data analysis techniques. Specifically, I employed the constant comparative method described by these authors using NVivo 10 data analysis software. Figure 4 is a representation of the data analysis process.

\[\text{Figure 4. A depiction of the data analysis process.}\]

Initially, I transcribed and typed all interviews into NVivo 10. After reading and rereading the interviews several times, I began to identify and highlight patterns. Using coding, I explored the transcripts and assigned codes to the identified patterns, words, and phrases. These codes were intended to represent the basic idea embodied by each pattern, word, or phrase. Saldaña (2009) stated that a code is a concise description that embodies
the essential meaning of the coded data. Coding can assume a variety of forms and range from a single word to a paragraph. After completing coding of the first interview, I coded the remaining interviews individually until all transcripts were coded. As the coding process continued, I was able to see repeated patterns and overlap in the identified codes. The coding process, itself, occurred in a series of iterative rounds (Saldaña, 2012). During this initial phase, I retained, combined, and reconfigured the codes as I progressed though the analysis process. The coding occurred in NVivo 10 with each code being assigned an identifier.

Examples of the coding process are shown in Table 4. This table was created for explanatory purposes, to enable the reader to understand how codes were created and assigned. The table does not include an exhaustive listing of the codes and is not intended to present the entirety of the coded data. A complete list of codes can be found in Table 5 and Table 6.
Table 4

**Coding Process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raw data</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Reason for code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I wanted to be with my spouse and this organization BRAC’d to another location.</td>
<td>Be with spouse</td>
<td>This fragment indicated that the participant rejected the BRAC offer to remain with their spouse. NVivo 10 coded using participants’ words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress came from the tremendous workload I encountered. I was also responsible for taking care of all G6 property moves along with my workload.</td>
<td>New work stress</td>
<td>This fragment spoke about stress connected to the move and the new position. Coded using the phrase new work stress to describe the data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My health at the beginning of the BRAC move was good and remained so through my move. My physical health has suffered in the past two and half years.</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>This fragment talked about the participant’s health at the beginning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would certainly advise them to really look at all of the possibilities and options prior to making a decision.</td>
<td>Do your research</td>
<td>This fragment illustrated the point that, before accepting any offer, the individual should consider all angles. This was coded using the phrase do you research.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

*Civil Service Codes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Civil service codes</th>
<th>Move to improve career</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advice</td>
<td>Moved to improve career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be with spouse</td>
<td>Needed the money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC briefings full of good information</td>
<td>Neutral move effect perception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC briefing not helpful</td>
<td>New organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC briefings mixed</td>
<td>New work stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command did a good job</td>
<td>No jobs at home (Georgia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely new job</td>
<td>No jobs to relocate back to Georgia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not want to sell home</td>
<td>No military impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult to find a comparable home</td>
<td>No stress from move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do the research</td>
<td>Not enough time to transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial difficulties</td>
<td>Not time to retire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Found a great job</td>
<td>Not leaving family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had to move needed the job</td>
<td>Offer was fallback option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helped military needed job</td>
<td>Process-government job option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing market bad</td>
<td>Quality of life declined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives</td>
<td>Quality of life improved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live anywhere</td>
<td>Relax to deal with stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower income</td>
<td>Rented house to buy time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military had to replace me</td>
<td>Retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military impact - increased work for others</td>
<td>Selling house worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move early option</td>
<td>Stay back option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move home</td>
<td>Time with family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move impacted health</td>
<td>Use to moving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move was advantageous</td>
<td>Very stressful process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move was stressful</td>
<td>Weighed pros and cons</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6

**Contractor Codes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contractor codes</th>
<th>Contractor codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advice</td>
<td>Lack of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big military impact</td>
<td>May relocate again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC briefings helpful</td>
<td>Move would be bad for spouse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAC briefings not helpful</td>
<td>Needed the money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can't retire yet</td>
<td>Neutral reaction to move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking out all the options before deciding</td>
<td>No jobs in area (Georgia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closer to family</td>
<td>No military impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not want to move</td>
<td>Not happy with move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty finding a new home</td>
<td>Quality of life improved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early set up option</td>
<td>Quality of life the same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy decision</td>
<td>Quality of life worse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise</td>
<td>Rejected offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family decision</td>
<td>Relocate again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family separated</td>
<td>Reunite family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family stress</td>
<td>Sequestration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial difficulties</td>
<td>Skill set most appropriate for military</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fond memories of area</td>
<td>Stay back option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good decision</td>
<td>Stressed about the move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Wanted stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worried about child adjustment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After completion of the coding phase, the analysis continued and categories were developed. Categories are broad structured groups created to systematically organize like data into larger groups. The data that were organized into categories shared a conceptual link effectively explaining a certain commonality. I used categorization to gather data that shared relationships and associations into specific groups.

Using the NVivo 10 software, I organized the data. After the data were coded, like codes were joined together to form categories. An example of the categorization processes is displayed in Table 7. This table includes only a sample of the categories.
created and is not an exhaustive listing. All categories that were created are found in Table 8.

Table 7

*Categorization Process*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition of category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family stress</td>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>All codes linked to stress were combined into a category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stressed about move</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise to deal with Stress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move was stressful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New work stress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No stress from move</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very stressful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very stressful process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy house</td>
<td>Incentives</td>
<td>Codes that were related to incentives were gathered into a category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to family</td>
<td></td>
<td>These codes connected because they were all tangibles that were offered to those participants who contemplated relocation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not qualify for Incentives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guaranteed job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help selling house</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives not good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paid time to settle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cash for move</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and travel money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing search</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost incentive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No incentives offered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relocation bonus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strings attached</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After this step, I looked for connections between the categories. I grouped together categories that were close in meaning and reclassified them into themes. In the final step of the data analysis, I organized the themes by the research question that they addressed. The themes that emerged from the data analysis are a reflection of the most common and well-supported views of the participants. Before finalizing the organization of the themes, I asked the participants to examine and comment on the analysis.

As the themes emerged from the data, minor differences in themes for civil service and contractor employees emerged. The differences that did occur were in the number of different responses in the themes. The responses to relocation were universal in that both groups expressed concerns about career, family, moving to a new area,
communication with family, speaking with your spouse, family discussions and input, separation of family, and the impact of the move on their spouse. These concerns were not linked to their status as civil service versus contractors; the concerns arose out of normal human reactions. As the themes emerged from the data analysis, I observed that both groups shared concerns and issues and because of this, I combined and reported their responses together.

Results of the data analysis were reported in a narrative format and 10 themes were identified from the interview data. Table 9 displays the themes and the number of respondents in each theme.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Civil service</th>
<th>Contractor</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look for a job</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannot retire</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do your research</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and exercise</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guaranteed job</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of life</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern about family</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family separated</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial hardship</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, as part of the data analysis process, I examined several DoD public relocation reports that displayed the approximate number of personnel who accepted and rejected the relocation offer and the incentives received. All external information used
was a matter of public record and could be found on the internet. Through triangulation of the information included in these documents and the information captured during the interviews, I was able to derive a deeper level of analysis and connect the themes to the numerical data.

**Evidence of Trustworthiness**

While quantitative inquiries are evaluated in terms of validity and reliability, the concept of trustworthiness is more relevant in qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) specified criteria consisting of four measures to assess the trustworthiness of qualitative inquiries: (a) credibility, (b) dependability, (c) confirmability, and (d) transferability.

In my study, I asked participants to review copies of their transcribed interview to verify the accuracy of the transcription. After participants completed this, I began to review and explore the data. I also employed triangulation to improve credibility. I used triangulation to support the findings by comparing the responses of different interview participants and supporting document analysis. To establish dependability, I provided a detailed description of the methods and procedures used to carry out the study. Through this description, an independent researcher would be able to audit or replicate the procedures used in this study. To ensure confirmability, I showed clear links between the data and the research questions, employed triangulation of data, and have provided a clear audit trail for others to follow. I provided excerpts from the interviews to add rich, thick detail to this study to increase transferability.
Results

The results are presented and organized by research question. Analysis of the data uncovered 10 themes that are reported with the associated research questions. A detailed description of each theme is included along with excerpts from the participants.

Research Question 1

The first research question was, How do civil service and contractor employees differ in their decision-making to accept or reject the offer to relocate? Themes that addressed this research question are described here. The content of the themes was needed to address the thought and decision-making process that led up to the choice to accept or reject the relocation offer. The participants shared concerns and employed similar methods to arrive at their decision to either accept or reject the offer. Themes from all of the participants included (a) family, (b) look for a job, (c) cannot retire, (d) do your research, and (e) incentives. Figure 5 is an illustration of the themes.
Family. Family was one of the most important factors in determining whether to accept or reject the offer to relocate from a contractor or civil service employee perspective. Fifteen of the respondents indicated that moving would be difficult for family members. Because of this, nine of the participants and their families who chose to accept the offer decided that the family would not move. This caused significant strain and difficulty for the participant and the family. Some considerations that prevented families from relocating included owning a home, school district, and spouse’s employment.

Participants who were members of the civil service indicated that speaking with their spouse or family was essential in making the decision. One of the respondents, P21, said, “I would ask; what’s important to them? It should be a family decision to do what is
best for you all.” The participant’s responses indicated that the decision to accept or reject the offer was not made by the employee. They spent time getting input from family before making the decision. For example, participant P16, who accepted the offer, stated, “If you have a spouse take time to go over the details with them.” For one of the civil service respondents, P2, it was more important to accompany their spouse than it was to accept the relocation offer. P2 went on to say, “I wanted to be with my spouse in this organization BRAC’d to another location.” He rejected the offer, and instead found a position in Maryland that enabled him to stay with his wife.

One of the contractor employees, P23, whose family chose to be separated, reported, “It was a family decision, want to keep family in Peachtree City, Georgia. Did not want to uproot them to Fayetteville, North Carolina.” This participant chose to accept the job offer and commute whenever possible to be with the family. Another respondent, P15, who chose to accept the job offer remarked, “Do what’s best for your family and you. Don’t allow others [to] discourage you about your decision.” The decision to accept or reject the job offer was complex for these families; however, after discussion and receiving input from everyone involved, they were able to reach a direction that felt appropriate. One of the contractors, P13, who chose to accept the transfer, was very pleased with their decision. They said:

Relocating to North Carolina, as far as distance goes, I’m closer to my family. The flights are cheaper from North Carolina family [sic], in addition, I have family that lives in South Carolina in the commute to visit his daughter as long [sic].
For this participant, the transfer was very positive as it enabled them to spend increased
time with family members.

**Keep looking for a job.** Another common theme shared with both civil service
and contractor employees was a lack of jobs in the Atlanta Metro area. Eighteen of the
participants indicated that they had searched to find possible employment but were
unable to do so, as the lack of positions both in and outside of the government curtailed
their efforts. Most of the respondents felt that being able to either keep their jobs, get a
promotion, or accepting a job with the idea of a continued search for jobs in Atlanta was
the best option at the time. One of the civil service respondents, P4, stated:

> I left it with the intention of finding a government job within a year. It did not
happen. I chose to relocate to the furnished apartment as I wanted to be ready to
relocate back to Atlanta without any delay.

For this respondent, the move was truly temporary because the job was not in the Atlanta
area. Another respondent, P2, spoke of searching for a job when the transfer offer was
first made. He stated, “I attempted to find a position in Georgia, with no success.” The
relocation was not their first choice, but they were willing to accept it when no other
viable options were presented.

Many of the participants searched for jobs in the Atlanta area before accepting the
relocation offer. One of the respondents, P8, indicated:

> My decision to move was not necessarily a process, but a [sic] weighing my
current job against finding employment in the local area. Due to the recessive
economic situation around the country and particularly in the local area, comparable employment was and still remains [sic] scarce. For this respondent, careful consideration of the employment outlook was an important factor in his decision to accept the relocation offer. Another contractor, P10, indicated, “I exhausted all opportunities to job search in Georgia.” Many other participants echoed this viewpoint and chose to accept the offer.

**Do your research.** One common theme a majority of the participants made was to do your research. Sixteen of the respondents stated that before making decisions, one should get all the information possible and ask many questions. Fourteen participants said the BRAC briefings were a beneficial source of information and knowledge. One of the civil service participants, P4, said, “Do your homework and start as early as possible. Find out your rights and entitlements as early as possible.” They felt the more knowledge that they possessed, the better decision they could make. Another civil service respondent, P6, stated:

> If a permanent solution for your employment – take more time to recon the area you’re buying a home in; it is a huge decision, and if you’re not careful could cost you thousands of dollars to relocate a second time.

Thus, for this participant an essential part of making any decision was to spend time in the relocation area to assess an appropriate place to live. Another civil service participant, P7, recommended, “do your homework and prepare your concerns in writing before you make a decision.”
The contractors who participated in the study made similar recommendations.

One of the respondents, P20, stated:

The most important thing I would tell them is to do their homework, get engaged early, stay engaged in realistic \(sic\) about the expectations and requirements.

Everyone’s situation and needs are different; you cannot expect your organization to tell you everything you need to know. At the end of the day, the organization is going to do what is in its best interest without regard to your personal situation the \(sic\) matter how good an employee you are or how long you have been with them. If you’re entertaining not make the move, take a realistic look at your job skills, the market for those skills, (particularly in the private sector) and be willing to invest yourself to freshen your resume. Understand what your true needs are and what you are willing to do or do without.

This statement sums up the comments made by 15 respondents. They felt it was important for individuals to take responsibility and make the effort to find out information that they would need to make a decision.

**Incentives.** Twenty-four of the participants in the study mentioned the incentives offered at one point or another during their interview. Incentives mentioned included cash, the guarantee of a job, help selling their homes, housing and travel money, aid with the housing search, possible promotion opportunities, and a relocation bonus. One of the incentives mentioned by three of the participants was the aid with selling their homes. Participant P2 stated, “I also received assistance with selling my residence in Georgia.”
**Link to Conceptual Framework.** When participants were presented with a decision on whether to relocate or to not relocate, each participant made a decision based on the information available to them. Piaget’s (1952) CLT research in the formal operational stage of intellectual development, asserted that individuals use information available to them to inform their decision-making process. The participant responses verified this finding. It was demonstrated that participants engaged in abstract thought processes to arrive at decisions. Participants used systematic approaches to contemplate multiple options available to them, and they considered the possibilities and made hypotheses that informed their decision-making. Throughout the semistructured interviews, participants expressed how they arrived at their decisions by examining and weighing multiple factors: family, incentives, cannot retire, and do your research. Because the use of available knowledge was an important aspect of the decision-making process for participants, Piaget’s (1952) CLT was exemplified in participant responses.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question I addressed was, “How did accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate affect civil service and contractor employee health?” For this research question, only themes that addressed issues surrounding health or wellness were chosen. The results of the analysis indicated that the relocation increased levels of stress for the participants and their families. For six of the participants, the stress had an impact on their physical and emotional health and well-being. In addition, 13 of the respondents spoke about the benefits of exercise on their health. They believed that exercise helped them stay healthy and deal with the relocation. There were seven of 11 civil service
employees, and eight of 13 of the contractors that represented these two themes. Participants reported that existing health issues were aggravated and stress lead to health issues as well. Two major themes emerged in the analysis for Research Question 2: (a) health and exercise, and (b) stress. Twenty of the respondents spoke about health and exercise and 15 spoke about stress. The themes are represented in Figure 6.

**Figure 6.** Effect on health.

**Health and exercise.** Only three of the respondents reported any major issues with their health. Any health problems that were spoken about were pre-existing, but were exacerbated by the stress of the moves. One contractor, P13, reported, “No health problems, but I was stressed about the actual move.” Only one of the civil service employees, P3, spoke about his health issues. He stated:
My health was in generally good health. However, once we began the process of preparing for the move (i.e., new home search, selling our current home, relocating children), we began to experience various ailments and other serious health related problems mostly due to the stress of the move.

Thus, for him, although he reported issues with his health, he felt those issues were linked to the stress involved in the move. The respondents reported that they had to travel a much longer distance to receive adequate medical care. One of the civil service employees reported issues finding health care. He stated, “[it was difficult] finding medical for my family. We have to find my doctors, dentist, etc.” One of the contractors, P15, spoke at length about the medical difficulties he faced:

My main issues were hypertension, hypothyroid, knees and back pain, coughing.
Since the move, the pain all of those issues have increased tremendously.
Exercising for me is limited as certain movements aggravate my knees and back.
The coughing, which may be due to the stress of being in North Carolina, has really increased and quite annoying. Having to go back and forth to my family and home in Georgia has also aggravated the issues. My visits to the doctor, both civilian and Veterans Affairs (VA), have increased as well.

He indicated the move itself and the attendant stress affected his physical health. He also blamed some of his symptoms on living in North Carolina. The remainder of individuals who mentioned their own health generally said it remained the same or was better.

Eight of the respondents spoke about maintaining their health at the current level. Seven of the respondents indicated that they were involved in different exercise programs
before the relocation was offered and continued to maintain those programs throughout the adjustment period. These participants reported exercise made them feel healthier and more relaxed. One of the participants, P22, stated, “I had to maintain my physical health and stability to cope by walking and learning how to practice breathing to help handle the stress.” Participants P4, P5, and P16 made statements such as, “Exercise has always been a part of my routine, but became even more important as I was here as a geo-bachelor with not much to do.” (P4) “Health pretty much stayed the same due to continuous exercise program established,” (P5) “Overall my health remained pretty good. The only health issue I have is high blood pressure. I managed to control it by exercising, walking and meds.” (P16) For these individuals, dealing with the relocation did not seem to affect their health in a negative way. Other mentions of exercise by P10 and P17 included, “I have and continually work out regularly at the gym and do P90X home exercise,” (P10) and “I still do my same routine. I am very healthy, increased cycling to reduce stress. I go out dancing a lot.” (P17) For the participants, exercising was a way to remain healthy and relieve stress.

**Stress.** One of the major issues participants experienced pertained to stress levels. The reported high levels related to the decision and act of moving. One of the participants, P14, identified as a contractor and indicated,

It was very stressful having to relocate to another location and to leave my spouse and son. Once we relocated, I started looking for things to do and I started an email that provided information of upcoming events in our new location. I felt
depressed and realized that others were experiencing the same. We had to find some outlet.

Thus, although this respondent did not report any physical illnesses, he did indicate that he was having difficulty with emotional and mental health issues, including depression. He felt the stress of living apart from his family was very great and that it affected him on a personal level. One of the respondents, P14, spoke about the impact of stress on his family:

The separation is stressful on our relationship. Career wise the move was great for me; however, it has added additional stress, separation, and added financial burdens due to constant travel between both locations for my spouse and me.

The continuing separation caused by the move obviously has had a heavy impact on this family. Though the participant indicated that the move was positive for his career, it was also a burden on the family relationships. Another participant also spoke about how the stress of the relocation affected her family. P15 stated:

The first three years of being here, I was denied an alternate work schedule (AWS) so I had to use a lot of annual leave to go home. At one point during the holidays, I had to use leave without pay to be with my family.

The inability to easily access her family was stressful and the impact continued for years.

The respondents also indicated that many of their family members also underwent significant stress. One of the participants, P6, a civil contractor, stated,

I know the stress for my wife during our pending move to Minneapolis began to workout [sic] heavily to cope with the separation and pending move; not yet
associated with our acceptance of the federal government position and mobility agreement relocate [sic].

This period was filled with uncertainty for the employees and their families. This caused significant stress and hardship, with effects that continue. Families faced the stress of decision-making, stress related to moving, and stress related to separation. Nevertheless, the participants all indicated that they tried to rally and make the best of the situation.

Two of the civil service respondents indicated that they felt no stress associated with the move. For them the process was smooth and easy. P1 and P2 stated, “There was no stress related to the move” and “I did not experience any stress before, during or after relocation.” For them, unlike a majority of other respondents, the move was smooth and care free.

**Link to the Conceptual Framework.** According to Bandura’s (1977) SLT, individuals’ behaviors and decisions result from the interaction between cognitive processes (internal factors) and external factors. The participants who relocated each responded differently from one another because they adopted different mechanisms to adjust to their new environment. Because of the change in an external factor, such as the new environment, participants used different cognitive processes to identify mechanisms or ways to adjust. Participants demonstrated that the reciprocal determinism of SLT was in effect, because they decided to adjust to their new environment by taking on new things to do in a small city. Participants made the decision to adjust to this new environment and this adjustment could have lasting effects on participants’ actions and behaviors. This decision was a by-product of the interaction between cognitive processes
and external factors, which were informed by one another in a reciprocal manner. Because of this, participants provided support for the premises of Bandura’s (1977) SLT through the recollection of their experiences.

**Research Question 3**

Research question three asked, “What are the impacts on the military mission in terms of why a civil service and contractor employee accepts or reject the offer to relocate?” For this question, themes that addressed participants’ thoughts and ideas about the impact of employee choice to relocate on the military mission were chosen.

In terms of impact on the military mission, only two of the respondents believed that any decision that they made would have any impact upon the functionality of the service. Two respondents indicated that the military had to pay incentives, which cost money and affected budgets. Other than this, the only thought was that they are replaceable and their decision not to remain employed as a civil service or contractor employee would have no real impact. When contacted after the initial interview, half of the respondents indicated they were currently seeking a different position.

An examination of the BRAC reports indicated that each employee who accepted the offer received $25K. The employees who rejected the offer received $0. In addition, employees who accepted the offer received 10 days of paid administrative leave to look for a place.

Three subquestions were employed to enable an in-depth exploration into what factors directly influenced the participant’s decision-making choices as well as their satisfaction with the decision once the choice was made. The answers to these questions
provided a clearer picture that can be used regarding how to improve and understand what services, options, and choices need to be made when offering relocation packages. This information may aid the military in making more cost effective decisions and aid in preparing the individuals who accept or reject the offer to be satisfied with the decision.

**Subresearch Question 1.** What financial factors contribute to the acceptance of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?

The main financial factor that applied to the acceptance was that the relocation offer was money. Both civil service and contractor employees spoke about the incentives and mentioned cash incentives, cash for the move, or an increase in salary as reasons they chose to relocate. One of the contractors, P10, stated, “My company offered $4,000 to move during a weekend.” Participants P3 and P7 stated, “The relocation bonus . . . was made available to all personnel who accepted the offer.” Participants P6, P8, and P9 spoke about the “monetary compensation for house hunting.” (P6) Participant P1 mentioned that receipt of a “monetary payment was 25% of my gross salary.”

**Subresearch Question 2.** What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee?
The two themes found that applied to this research question were (a) cannot retire and (b) guaranteed job. These themes were chosen as they directly related to participants' decision-making process relating to their careers. Figure 7 displays the themes.

Figure 7. Reaction to relocation offer.

**Cannot retire.** This theme was mentioned by twelve participants; for them, the relocation left them no choice. They were not at an age to retire but were close enough that leaving their positions did not seem to be a sensible option. Participant P1 stated, “I did not have any circumstances that complicated my decision because I knew I had to follow my job because I was not able to retire.” Participant P4 concurred stating, “I didn’t qualify for full retirement. Relocating with the job made good sense.” Participant P8 was looking to his future and stated, “Retaining employment in the federal system is a good option toward eventual retirement. Retaining my position in FORSCOM toward
federal retirement contributed to my decision to accept the relocation option.” For him, the job was an opportunity to continue working in the system to accumulate time towards an eventual retirement. Other respondents made similar statements, indicating that they had to move with the job to ensure they were able to retire or that they were close to retirement and did not want to leave their positions.

Other respondents (P1, P4) made comments such as, “I did not have any circumstances that complicated my decision because I knew I had to follow my job because I was not able to retire” (P1), “didn’t qualify for full retirement. Relocating with the job made good sense” (P4), and “My plan was to accept the offer because I knew I could not retire.” (P4). For these individuals, accepting the relocation offer was the best move.

**Guaranteed job.** Sixteen of the participants indicated that they accepted the offer because it was a guaranteed job. Because the state of the economy at the time, finding new positions was challenging, it was better to relocate and still have viable employment. Participant P8 stated:

> The primary incentive for my move was job guarantee more than anything.

> Although, I enjoy the FORSCOM work environment, I would have remained in Metro Atlanta if comparable and guaranteed employment were available.

> However, the guarantee may no longer be the case in light of the potential for more sequestration related job cuts within FORSCOM.

> He believed that this was the best option for him at the time. Job security was also mentioned. Participant P20 stated:
However, because I knew I needed to work for at least another fifteen years and wasn’t willing to hazard the depressed Atlanta job market or start out on my own business, the job security was by far the biggest draw.

Again, the economy was an influential factor in the decision-making process for Participant P20 as noted in the quote above. Participant P14 simply stated, “Guaranteed job was the basis which assisted me with the decision to relocate”, while Participant P4 stated, “It was a no brainer to accept the offer. I wouldn’t have had a job.” Given their experiences with the economy and job market, this was a safe option to choose. The participants believed that for themselves and their families a relocation with a guaranteed job was better than an uncertain financial future.

**Subresearch Question 3.** What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer?

No one theme arose from the data that answered this research question. The reasons people were happy to accept or reject the offers were as diverse as the individuals interviewed for the study. Table 10 lists examples of responses from the participant group.
Table 10

Subquestion Three Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>I wanted to be with my spouse and this organization BRAC’d to another location. I am quite pleased that I relocated. I now reside in Iowa. The crime rate is very low. The cost of living is relatively low and the community is friendly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>We take advantage of day trips to get to know our State, you see, we’ve really never been tied to a state, other than for taxes being prior military and all. Now we have settled, registered to vote, purchased a home, kids are in UNC universities, etc. So in summary, quality of life has changed, we are involved and getting out to explore our state, we’re 2 hours from the beaches and 3 hours from the mountains; not many can say that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P13</td>
<td>Relocating to NC, as far as distance goes; I am closer to my family. The flights are cheaper from NC to family, in addition, I have family that lives in SC and the commute to visit is not as long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P12</td>
<td>The decision was easy; I did not have anything keeping me in Georgia, no house and no family in the area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P16</td>
<td>During the last three years, I had the opportunity to spend lots of time with my mother. She passed in Nov of last year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P20</td>
<td>I had been stationed at Ft Bragg twice during my military career and had fond memories of the area . . . [I] recalled Ft Bragg as a great place to be a Soldier and Fayetteville as a really supportive community of the military at large. My wife and I were both looking forward to being part of the military family again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P21</td>
<td>The incentive of my family not separating again meant more to me than anything else. I was in the US Army for 20 years and did enough of that when I did not have a choice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Link to Conceptual Framework. The results of the study confirmed one of the three components of Ajzen’s (1991) TPB, the third component of perceived behavioral
control. Individuals’ perceived behavioral control is influenced by the factors within and outside of their control. These factors, whether within or outside the bounds of control, have been shown to influence participants’ behavioral intentions. Participants expressed a variety of factors both within and outside of their control. For example, family was a factor within their control related to the decision-making process. A factor outside of the participants’ control was job opportunities. Both factors were taken into consideration in making the decision of whether to accept or reject the offer to relocate. In addition, participants shared their feeling of being expendable. The factor here was that the job opportunity and the income level were out of their control. The inability to obtain or find another job with the current economic trends informed an aspect of their decision-making process. As a result, participants felt that if they did not take this opportunity, they would experience a longer and more difficult path ahead of them than if they relocated.

**Overarching Common Themes**

Overarching themes were considered overarching because they applied to all research questions either directly or indirectly. The information could aid those considering accepting or rejecting relocation offer and aid the military in understanding issues that affect the individuals involved. These were the most commonly cited themes with a majority of participants having responses that fit into these areas. An overarching theme that emerged from participants’ responses was that participants were concerned about their family (fifteen participants) and quality of life (nineteen participants). The participants indicated that family was a deciding factor to accept or reject the offer. In addition, the participants indicated that their quality of life decreased at the new location.
These participants reported distance from friends and family, lack of access to medical professionals, and lower levels of amenities. They expressed unhappiness with the location and the fact that they had not felt a part of the new community. The responses from the participants who did not relocate did not indicate if their quality of life decreased. These themes are shown in Figure 8.

*Figure 8. Overarching themes.*

Overall, these participants were highly satisfied with the decisions they made for themselves and their families. It was evident that a connection across all responses dealt with quality of life, family, and location.

**Themes Not Linked to Research Questions**

Two prominent themes were found in both the civil service and contractor employee responses. These themes did not directly link to the research questions;
however, they were important to note because they arose as a consequence of the decision to relocate and was reported as it affected the employees’ view of the relocation offers. These themes are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9. Unlinked themes.

**Families separated.** Eleven of the families who chose to accept the offer to relocate were forced to separate. Reasons included school systems, owning a home, and spousal employment. The separation was a strain both personally and financially. Participant P4 indicated, “My son was a junior in high school when I left to go to Fayetteville NC. So he and my wife remained in Atlanta for him to complete high school and also to be awarded a Georgia state scholarship (HOPE).” For his family, the cost of
moving was too high. His child would have to switch schools and would lose the chance to receive a scholarship to help pay for college.

The housing market was tight and the cost of comparable homes in the new location made it difficult for the families to find homes they could afford. Respondent P8 reported:

Another reason families separated was due to the housing climate. Housing costs were high and our initial intend [sic] was to move the entire family to North Carolina. However, the difficulties in finding the right home from the existing market and the subsequent implementation of sequestration required a new assessment of the move. For the time being, I have moved to the Fayetteville area for employment and the family remains in metro Atlanta.

Another family ended up separating temporarily. Participant P20 described:

I had one child who started high school (9th grade) in the Fall of 2009. My second school age child was still in middle school and not scheduled to start high school until the Fall of 2010. My wife and I felt strongly that it was important for the oldest child to have continuity in grades 10-12 so decided to split the family. My wife and oldest child relocated to NC in the summer of 2009 so my son could start high school here that fall. My daughter wanted to finish her last year of middle school with her friends so she stayed with me in Georgia for the 2009-2010 school year.
The move resulted in unexpected compromises for the families involved. Separation was often the only solution they could find. It was not ideal, but families did what they had to do to make the situation workable.

Financial hardship. One theme that emerged from the data was financial hardship. Fourteen of the participants of the study found the result of the decision to accept the offer was an unexpected financial hardship. One of the contractor participants, P13, stated, “Several days before BRAC was approved I was in the process of purchasing a home in Atlanta after BRAC was announce [sic] and approval, I (we) pulled out of the contract and lost earnest money.” For this person, the impact was immediate. Other individuals reported longer-term impacts. Many of the families had to split up, with the employee moving and everyone else remaining behind. Participant P15 described this situation:

As for the financial, there is a burden as the home mortgage and rent in North Carolina has to be paid. Double utilities are paid. For a while, the financial responsibilities were on me as my spouse was unemployed at the time of the move. There is also the cost of traveling back and forth to Georgia to be with my family.

Expenses increased because of the relocation and families found themselves supporting two households. Participant P14 said, “Financially it wasn’t a good thing. I ended up with house payments along with a rental payment as well.”

One of the participants, P18, spoke about more intangible benefits and stated:
Loss of benefits (Exchange, commissary, gym, etc.) as a retiree from the military these things were promised. The move closed these facilities down and I do not have access to them, which are in driving distance from an Army base.”

Thus, services and goods that had been attainable at a reduced cost were no longer accessible adding to the financial difficulties.

Six of the respondents mentioned losing money because of the homes they owned. Participant P20 stated:

This gave me a chance to prepare our Georgia home for the market. As it turned out, the housing market in GA soured as did the job market. I was not able to sell the home and rented it for three years before eventually selling it at a substantial loss. If I combine the cost of running two households for a year and the loss in value of my home, the move cost me about $180,000.00.

Although the economy definitely had an impact on these losses, the move exacerbated the situation and made the situation even more difficult. Another family faced both financial losses from the home they owned and having to reach into their retirement saving to fund the relocation. Participant P6 remembered:

The number one issues [sic] we continue to feel is the $26K early withdraw fine we continue to pay over 5 year [sic] using an unsecured personal loan for cashing in 401K retirement plans to buy out our home and transition to Fort Bragg. Without cashing in $55K, we could not have survived the move to Bragg. In short, we lost $36K from what we owed in principle to what the home sold for under the government program.
Participant P16 indicated that the relocation actually decreased her salary:

> We had two options, my spouse could move with me or stay in Georgia. If he did not move, we would have to pay rent in two places. This would have put unnecessary pressure on our finances. Additionally, I did not think I would get another promotion and we did not get a pay increase before or during the fiscal year of the relocation. As a matter of fact, the relocation resulted in a decrease in income.

Other respondents echoed these thoughts. A majority of the participants found that the relocation was financially difficult in the long-term. Even the incentives they received did not cover the financial challenges they faced.

**Summary**

The results of the data collected for this research were presented and analyzed in Chapter 4. Of the 24 total participants, 13 were contractor employees—8 men and 5 women. Ten of the contractor participants accepted the offer to move and three rejected. Eleven civil service employees participated—seven men and four women. Six of the civil service employees accepted the offer to move and five rejected. Results of the data analysis were reported in a narrative format and 10 themes were identified from the interview data. The themes were (a) family, (b) look for a job, (c) cannot retire, (d) do your research, (e) incentives, (f) health and exercise, (g) stress, (h) guaranteed job, (i) family separated and (j) financial hardship, and can be reviewed in Table 10, which lists the number of respondents with each theme.
I addressed three research questions and three subquestions were addressed in this study. Responses to Research Question 1 revealed that there were minimal differences existed between the civil service workers and the contractor employees in their decision-making process. Responses related to Research Question 2 indicated that differences between civil service and contractor employees were minimal as well. Deciding to reject or accept the offer to relocate aggravated health issues in terms of stress. Responses related to Research Question 3 revealed that the impacts on the military mission were nominal. The few respondents believed that the decision that they made would have any impact upon the functionality of the service. Two participants indicated that the military had to pay incentives, which cost money and affected budgets.

The three subquestions were addressed to provide a more in-depth exploration into what factors directly influenced the participant’s decision-making choices as well as their satisfaction with the decision once the choice was made. Subquestion 1 was, What financial factors contribute to the acceptance of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee? The main financial factors that applied to the acceptance of the relocation offer was money. Subquestion 2 was, What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee? The participants indicated that the relocation left them no choice. They were not yet at an age to retire, but were close enough that leaving their positions did not seem to be a reasonable option. Second, participants indicated that they accepted the offer because it was a guaranteed job.
Finally, Subquestion 3 was, What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer? There was no one theme that arose from the data that answered this research question. However, some of the reasons participants’ indicated were having a job and quality of life at new location. Some of the factors that promoted satisfaction with the decision to reject the offer were family and not wanting to relocate to North Carolina. The factors were as diverse as the individuals interviewed for the study.

The results of the study indicated that, overall the participants felt the move, while having some positive features, caused significant financial hardship. Participants felt the quality of life they experienced declined. In spite of this, most of the participants indicated that they felt either neutral or good about the choice they made.

In Chapter 5, I review the final implications of the study. I interpret and discuss the findings of this study. The chapter includes limitations of the study, recommendations for further study, and implications of this study, implications for social change, recommendations for action, and recommendations for further study are discussed.
Chapter 5: Summary, Discussion, Recommendations, Implications, and Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to gain an understanding of the motives behind why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the effect on the military mission. Research from private sector organizational studies exists on the employees’ motives for accepting or rejecting offers to relocate, and researchers have found that motives are based on a number of considerations. These considerations include psychological health concerns (Kristense et al., 2008), well-being (Cuyper & Witte, 2006; Leach et al., 2010; Luhmann et al., 2012), family (Bakker et al., 2008), financial concerns (Ng et al., 2007), and career concerns (Sagie et al., 2001; Giles & Rea, 1999). In addition, researchers have used CLTs, SLTs, and TPBs to frame and understand the motives for relocation in private sector jobs. However, researchers have not studied the reasons why civil service and contractor employees who are employed by the DoD make decisions to accept or reject the offer to relocate. Consequently, such investigation was needed to better understand the motives of why individuals accept or reject the offer to relocate, as well as individual potential health effects from decisions to relocate and the impact on the military mission because of BRAC.

My qualitative analysis indicated few and subtle differences between civil service workers and the contractor employees in their decision-making process. They shared the same concerns and used similar methods to arrive at their decisions to either accept or reject offers to relocate. These concerns emerged as themes, and included (a) family, (b) keep looking for a job, (c) do your research, (d) incentives, (e) stress, (f) no perceived
impact on the military mission, (g) cannot retire, and (h) guaranteed job. Accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate was found to affect civil service and contractor employees’ health by contributing to individual and family stress. In addition, few respondents believed that their decision to relocate or not would have any impact upon the functionality of the service and that their decision not to remain employed as a civil service or contractor employee would have no real organizational impact. However, respondents’ perceptions in this area were not entirely consistent because half of the respondents indicated they were currently seeking a different position when contacted after the initial interview.

For the subquestions, money emerged as the one theme for financial factors contributing to the decision to accept a relocation offer. The two career factors that respondents reported as contributing to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer were the inability to retire and a guaranteed job. No themes emerged from the subquestion involving factors that promoted satisfaction in accepting or rejecting a relocation offer. Responses to this subquestion were highly individualized. Finally, two themes that emerged that were not connected to the research questions involved unexpected financial hardship and the strain of family separation because of the decision to accept the offer to relocate.

The remainder of this chapter includes an interpretation and discussion of the findings. In addition, this chapter includes sections on interpretation and discussion of the findings, conceptual framework, the limitations of the study, recommendations and
implications, implications for social change, recommendations for further study, implications for practice, and conclusions.

**Interpretation and Discussion of the Findings**

The following discussion includes the major themes related to the main research questions concerning the reasons civil service and contractor employees accepted or rejected the offer to relocate.

**Research Question 1**

The first research question was, How do civil service and contractor employees differ in their decision-making to accept or reject the offer to relocate? Themes from all of the participants included (a) family, (b) look for a job, (c) cannot retire, (d) do your research, and (e) incentives.

**Family.** Considering family when making the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate was one of the strongest themes among the participants, and this finding aligns with studies on private sector organizations that identify concerns for family as a major influence on employees’ decisions to relocate (Bakker et al., 2008; Prehar, 2001). Civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected relocation offers indicated that family was a major part of their decision, through involvement in the decision-making process (“It should be a family decision . . .”) and consideration of their families (“. . .do what’s best for your family . . .”). Many respondents indicated that moving would be difficult for family members, and considerations in the decision to relocate included respondents owning a home, children’s school district, and spouses’ employment. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) found that the personal relationships with
spouses, children, and other extended family were most frequently listed as sources of social influence and that these people affected not only relocation decisions, but relocation adjustment as well.

**Keep looking for a job.** Another common theme shared with both civil service and contractor employees was a lack of jobs in the Atlanta Metro area, and the majority of the participants reported that they had searched to find possible employment but were unable to because of a lack of positions both within and outside of government. Several respondents indicated the inability to find a job not only in the Atlanta area, but in Georgia as well, and many accepted the offer to relocate only as a last resort because they had exhausted all job opportunities in the state. Another participant saw the local and national recessive economic situation as the reason for an inability to find employment. Previous research revealed that economic conditions are important components of larger structural processes that can influence employment mobility (Ng et al., 2007). Consequently, my research demonstrated that the ability or inability to obtain another job was a part of the decision-making process largely beyond the control of the individual that influenced their courses of action.

**Do your research.** One common theme of the respondents in their decision-making process was the necessity of doing one’s homework by obtaining as much information as possible and asking many questions regarding relocation. Respondents emphasized the acquisition of knowledge as an important part of the decision-making process and indicated that the BRAC briefings were a beneficial source of information and knowledge. Morris (2005) argued that decision-making is a human action that
involves experience and listening to others, and that it takes discipline to be a good
decision-maker. Part of this discipline may involve sustained effort in the area of
knowledge acquisition to make informed decisions. Piaget (1997) held that continued
intellectual development in adults depends on the sustained acquisition of knowledge and
that knowledge helps individuals make sound decisions. Unlike economic trends, doing
one’s research falls within the realm of the individual’s control. My research revealed
that the respondents did their homework and decisions were made based on the
homework they conducted.

**Incentives.** Most of the respondents in the study mentioned the incentives they
were offered for relocating, incentives mentioned included cash, the guarantee of a job,
help selling their homes, housing and travel money, aid with the housing search, possible
promotion opportunities, and relocation bonuses. Money was also found in subquestion
one to be the main financial factors or incentives related to the decision to accept the
offer to relocate. Both civil service and contractor employees spoke about incentives to
relocate and mentioned cash incentives, cash for the move, or an increase in salary as one
of the primary reasons they chose to relocate.

This finding aligns in part with the findings of Muhammad and Hassan (2012)
who found incentives, primarily economic-related incentives, influenced employees to
relocate to jobs overseas. These incentives included tax exemption, increased overtime,
and housing allowances. In addition, Muhammad and Hassan found that less cost spent
on company infrastructure as a result of moving businesses overseas would be an incentive
to get employees to relocate because companies could then increase employees’ salaries.
In SLT, self-regulated incentives alter routines through motivational purpose. Bandura (1978) noted, “when people make self-satisfaction or tangible gratifications conditional upon certain accomplishments, they motivate themselves to expend the effort needed to attain the desired performances” (p. 350). Based on previous research and the findings of this study, making tangible gratifications conditional upon certain accomplishments (i.e., incentives) seems to work for organizations seeking to motivate individuals to alter routines. My research coincided with previous research from Muhammad and Hassan and revealed that incentives helped civil service and contractor employees accept their offers to relocate.

**Research Question 2**

The second research question I addressed was: How did accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate affect civil service and contractor employee health? Two major themes emerged in the analysis for Research Question 2: (a) health and exercise, and (b) stress. Twenty of the respondents spoke about health and exercise and fifteen spoke about stress.

**Health and exercise.** Only three of the respondents reported any major issues with their health. Any health problems that were spoken about were pre-existing, but were exacerbated by the stress of the move. One contractor, P13, reported, “No health problems, but I was stressed about the actual move.” Only one of the civil service employees, P3, spoke about his health issues. He stated,

My health was generally good. However, once we began the process of preparing for the move (i.e., new home search, selling our current home, relocating...
children), we began to experience various ailments and other serious health related problems mostly due to the stress of the move.

**Stress.** The only major health issue reported by civil service and contractor employees concerning their decision to relocate was stress. Respondents reported that stress levels increased as they considered separation from families, relocating children, added financial burdens, and increased travel for themselves and spouses. One respondent reported that he and his family began to experience various ailments and other serious health related problems because of the stress related to the decision to relocate. Although few of the respondents reported any major issues with their health, stress was consistently reported to exacerbate existing health problems. The finding of increased stress when considering relocation supports the literature that showed stress is a major concern for individuals in private sector organizations who relocated (De Bruin & Taylor, 2005; Hamidi & Eivazi, 2010; Martin, 1999; Martin et al., 2000; Morris, 2005; Seymour & Dupre, 2008; Yang et al., 2008). Stress is a temporary state of an individual’s feeling related to being nervous or worried, and in relation to stressor events, such as relocating, stress can have adverse effects on the body (Morris, 2005).

However, literature shows that how individuals handle stress is connected to the decision-making process as well (Payne & Scott, 2010). For example, Payne and Scott found that how individuals handle stressful situations influenced how they experienced stress, and argued that stress related to relocation was reduced when preparation began as soon as possible after the relocation was announced by the organization. Several respondents of the present study reported that they handled stress thorough exercise and
stress-coping practices, and that these techniques helped them to handle the stress of deciding to relocate. In addition, doing one’s homework and obtaining as much information as possible helped to reduce stress because respondents believed that the acquisition of information helped to make better and more informed decisions. Morris (2005) noted that stress is not always a bad thing. According to Morris, stress responses in the body let the body know it is working properly and can actually help an individual to stay focused and make good decisions. It would seem that stress, which can be expected to accompany stressor events, might be less a problem than issues of how to handle, manage, and reduce stress. My research findings confirmed what Morris and Payne and Scott indicated in terms of stress. Civil service and contractor employees deal with accelerated stress when they must make decisions about work-related relocations.

**Research Question 3**

Research question three was: was, What are the impacts on the military mission in terms of why a civil service and contractor employee accepts or reject the offer to relocate? One major theme emerged in the analysis for Research Question 3: There was no perceived impact on the military mission because of an employee decision to accept or reject relocation offer. Only two of the respondents believed that any decision that they made would have any impact upon the functionality of the service.

Few of the respondents believed that their decision to relocate or not would have any impact upon the functionality of the service, and only two individuals indicated that the military had to pay incentives, which cost money and affected budgets. Other than this, respondents believed that their decisions to relocate or not would have no real
impact on the military mission. However, when contacted after the initial interview, half of the respondents indicated they were currently seeking a different position. Despite respondents’ perceptions that their actions would not affect the military establishment, contact after initial interviews suggest otherwise. Because half of the respondents indicated they were currently seeking a different position the impact to the military will be high economically, as these individuals gradually find new positions or return to their original locations. These individuals will need to be replaced by new workers, and the incentives they received for relocation were spent moving employees who would not remain at their current location.

This finding is important and novel, and it adds to the literature because much of the literature has focused on the effects of relocation on individuals and individual decision-making processes. Concerning the impact of employee relocation on organizations, Prehar (2001) found that organizational productivity could decline while relocated employees adjust to new locations and new coworkers. However, Prehar did not look at direct costs to organizations of lost incentives and employee replacement. In addition, this finding of my research supports Morris’ (2005) argument that the decision-making process is a highly individualized experience. Consequently, while novel, this finding is not unexpected because individuals tend to focus on matters that concern themselves and their families directly (Bakker et al., 2008; Morris, 2005) and not their employing organizations. This finding suggested that individuals do not see their actions as having larger consequences of any real importance, or if they do see their actions as having larger consequences, these consequences do not influence their decision-making
processes. Nevertheless, this finding represents an important consideration for the military and a potential avenue for future research, which might include longitudinal studies and studies that focus on the future residential plans of relocated individuals.

**Subquestion 1**

Subquestion 1 was, What financial factors contribute to the acceptance of a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee? Both civil service and contractor employees spoke about the incentives and mentioned cash incentives, cash for the move, or an increase in salary as reasons they chose to relocate. This supports the findings of Hippler (2009) who found in his study of employee relocation at a large German manufacturing company that salary increase was a highly motivational factor in employees’ decisions to relocate.

The finding also partially aligns with Muhammad and Hassan (2012) who confirmed that incentives, primarily economic-related incentives, influenced employees to relocate to jobs overseas. Incentives included tax exemption, increased overtime, and housing allowances. Muhammad and Hassan also found that less money spent on company infrastructure because of moving businesses overseas and reducing operating costs would be an incentive to get employees to relocate because companies could then increase employees’ salaries.
Subquestion 2

Subquestion 2 was, What career factors contribute to accepting or rejecting a relocation offer from a civil service and contractor employee? The two themes that were found that applied to this subquestion were (a) cannot retire and (b) guaranteed job.

Cannot retire. Many participants mentioned retirement concerns and their proximity to retirement as influences on their decisions to relocate. For them, the nearness of retirement left them little choice; they were not at an age to retire, but were close enough to being able to retire that leaving their positions did not seem like sensible option. This finding of the role of retirement in individuals’ decisions to relocate is novel and adds to the literature regarding career considerations and relocation. This was in agreement with Luhmann et al. (2012) who found that concerns of retirement were connected to employment relocation through well-being. Luhmann et al. found retirement to be a neutral life event, retirement was associated with reduced income, less work related activities, less social contact, and more health problems associated with age. However, more research is needed regarding the influence of retirement on relocation decisions, especially in civil service and contractor employees.

Guaranteed job. Another career factor that influenced the decisions of respondents to relocate was job security, and several indicated that they accepted the offer because it represented a guaranteed job. Again, the state of the economy was an influential factor in the decision-making process. Because of the recessive state of the economy at the time, finding new positions was challenging. Consequently, some respondents thought it was better to relocate and still have viable employment. As with
the theme of keep looking for a job, previous research showed that economic conditions are important components of larger structural processes that can influence employment mobility (Ng et al., 2007) and decisions to relocate.

**Subquestion 3**

Subquestion 3 was, What factors promote satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer? For subquestion 3 concerning the factors that promoted satisfaction with the decision to accept or reject a relocation offer, no single unified theme emerged. Responses were highly individualized.

However, the issue of family did recur in individualized responses to individuals being satisfied with decisions to accept or reject relocation offers. As shown in the literature, family represented a major influence on private sector employees’ decisions to relocate (Bakker et al., 2008; Prehar, 2001). My research study supported these findings and indicated that family was an important influence both when making the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate and on feelings of satisfaction of the decision made.

**Conceptual Framework**

My research was based on three theories related to decision-making and relocation for understanding why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject an offer to relocate, the individual potential health effects from the decision, and the impact on the military mission from a BRAC resolution. These theories included CLT, SLT, and TPB.
Piaget’s CLT

Participants made decisions about relocation from information available to them, and this supports Piaget’s (1952) CLT research, which holds that individuals in the formal operational stage of intellectual development form thought processes in decision-making and engage in abstract thinking based on available information. In the formal operational stage of intellectual development, individuals think about multiple options in systematic ways, formulate hypotheses, and consider possibilities when making decisions. Participants considered personal (e.g., health), social (e.g., family), monetary (e.g., incentives), and career (e.g., retirement) factors when making decisions about relocation. Findings indicated that the use of available knowledge was an integral part of the decision-making process for participants when considering relocation.

In addition, Piaget (1952) theorized that continued intellectual and cognitive development in adults depended on the sustained acquisition of knowledge and that knowledge helps individuals make sound decisions. Participants reported also that the BRAC briefings were a beneficial source of information and knowledge to help make relocation decisions. Participants engage in sustained effort in the area of knowledge acquisition to be able to make informed decisions concerning relocation, and this finding supports Piaget’s CLT that sustained acquisition of knowledge can help individuals develop and make sound decisions. Findings also indicated that individuals’ stages in their careers influenced their decisions to relocate. For example, individuals close to retirement felt that leaving their positions was not a sensible option. Although stages of individuals’ careers do not correspond with Piaget’s stages of intellectual development,
the career stages of individuals influenced their decision-making when considering relocation.

**Bandura’s SLT**

Bandura’s (1977) SLT served as a theoretical foundation for this study. Bandura’s SLT holds that individuals’ behaviors and decisions result from the reciprocal interaction between cognitive processes and external factors. According to Bandura, such reciprocal determinism involves individuals interacting with their environment and deciding which external events will be observed and have lasting effects on individuals’ behavior and actions. Consequently, decisions are the product of the interaction between cognitive and external factors; individuals make cognitive decisions and interact with social factors within particular environments. Participant’s decisions regarding relocation were influenced by their cognitive processes regarding decision-making, which involved the purposive behavior of seeking out additional information about relocation from BRAC briefings (e.g., an environmental or institutional component) and through their own avenues of knowledge acquisition.

My findings study support Bandura’s SLT theory and indicate the individuals made decisions about relocation based on considerations and influences of their environment, including factors such as family, career, retirement, job opportunities, and incentives. My study showed that external factors were high important to how individuals cognitively shaped their potential actions (e.g., relocation). My research also adds to the findings of Wolfe and Betz (2004) in relation to career decision-making self-efficacy. Wolfe and Betz found that individuals with less-developed bonds with their
careers were vulnerable to indecisiveness related to making decisions. In my research, participants mentioned retirement and their proximity to retirement as strong influences on their decisions to relocate. I could not determine the degree to which participants were not bonded to their careers. The participants close to retirement were decisive about their decisions to relocate.

**Ajzen’s TPB**

Ajzen’s TPB (1991) served as an additional component of the theoretical foundation for this study. According to Ajzen, individuals’ behavioral intentions are formed in three dimensions: (a) attitudes toward behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceived behavior control. For Ajzen, individuals’ attitudes involve individuals’ assessment, which can be negative or positive, toward an event or behavior. My findings did not indicate whether participants thought that relocation was initially positive or negative. Participants accepted that they needed to make a decision to relocate or not and went about weighing factors to help them make decisions about relocation.

Ajzen’s (1991) second factor of TPB includes subjective norms, which refers to how individuals make an individual or subjective decision based on the norms of a specific larger group or community and their association with that group or community. The military establishment would be the larger social group that might be a normative influence on participants’ beliefs and decisions to relocate. However, most participants did not consider the military establishment in making their decision to relocate. In addition, most participants believed that their decisions to relocate or not would have no real impact on the military mission. My findings indicated that the military did not have
a normative influence on participants’ decisions to relocate. This finding does not support Ajzen’s theory regarding the influence of subjective norms on behavioral intention.

Ajzen’s (1991) third component of TPB is perceived behavioral control. An individual’s perceived behavioral control involves individuals’ beliefs in their ability to perform the actual behavior. Factors may exist within and outside of individuals’ control that can influence their behavioral intentions. Unlike the second component of Ajzen’s TPB, my findings validated the third component of Ajzen’s TPB by indicating that participants considered factors both within their control (e.g., family concerns) and outside of their control (e.g., economic trends, job opportunities, income) when making decisions to relocate. Previous research revealed that economic conditions, for example, an important component of larger structural processes beyond individuals’ control that can influence employment mobility (Ng et al., 2007). My findings indicated that the ability or inability to obtain another job and economic trends were a part of the decision-making process individuals used when considering relocation. Participants indicated that they would relocate rather than stay put and face an uncertain employment future.

Limitations of the Study

My study had several limitations. The sample was civil service and contractor employees recruited through social media and snowballing. These employees had either to accept or reject the offer to relocate to Fort Bragg. In qualitative research, the sample size is typically small, but the intent is to gain deep and rich information from that sample (Mason, 2010). The interviews that I conducted were limited in number. However, I
considered the data for saturation and all of the concepts discussed by participants were fully revealed by collective responses of the participants. Therefore, in my study, the sample size was sufficient because I reached saturation, at which point the inclusion of additional participants no longer added novel or meaningful information to the data set.

I experienced time constraints during the interviews. The participants were informed that the interview would take between 30 to 60 minutes. The interviews lasted an average of 65 minutes. The responses were taken from only the prepared questions. However, most participants could have spoken for more than 2 hours if I allotted the time for them to vent about issues other than those related to the questions that I asked. For instance, the participants wanted to vent that their move was political and that the employees should have been interviewed to get their opinions.

In considering the limitations mentioned in this study, I handled the responses from each participant accurately from the standpoint of credibility, dependability, and confirmability in the allotted 30 to 60 minutes. Credibility from the participants was reflected in their responses and the email responses they sent to verify the transcriptions. I established dependability by providing a detailed description of the methods and procedures that I used to carry out the study. In doing this, I was able to audit or replicate the procedures used in this study. I established confirmability by showing clear links between the findings of the study and the data itself (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). I used participant-checking by emailing the participants their responses for verification (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). I kept a record of all data for an audit trail (Hanson et al., 2011; Lietz & Zayas, 2010; Shenton, 2004).
Recommendations and Implications

The information collected from this study may have implications for research, professional practice, and social change. Making the decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate is stressful for civil service and contractor employees. This study adds to the body of knowledge by providing insight into the motives behind civil service and contractor employees’ decisions to accept or reject offers to relocate, the individual potential health effects of the decision, and the impact on the military mission. The results are intended to increase the knowledge of individuals who are employed by DoD. The results of this study are intended to provide improvements and approaches for future realignments, closures, and relocations for military bases.

My research was driven by BRAC 2005, which closed Fort McPherson, an Army base located in East Point, Georgia, and relocated its units, civil service employees, and contractors to Fort Bragg. This study was unique because the literature review did not reveal any research on the processes that DoD civil service and contractor employees use to accept or reject relocation decisions because of BRAC. What was discussed in the literature were private sector employees and organizations’ motives for deciding to accept or reject offers to relocate based on research findings. As I investigated the motives of DoD civil service and contractor employees who must decide to accept or reject offers to relocate, the results provided implications for social change from the employees’ lived experiences.
A better and more complete understanding of the lived experiences of civil service and contractor employees who must decide to accept or reject offers to relocate because of BRAC can lead to positive social change by improving the lives of DoD employees.

It is important for all stakeholders to understand BRAC and how it affects the military as a whole. Civil service and contractor employees have to prepare to take necessary steps because once the announcement is made, it cannot be overturned; this is a law. Furthermore, civil service and contractor employees must communicate with their leaders about their specific situations. Remaining aware of town hall meetings concerning BRAC can help employees to have their questions answered and to engage in open dialogue with others involved.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

Based on my findings, I recommend further research into the influence of family and family concerns on DoD employees’ decisions to relocate. The findings of prior studies confirmed that family concerns were a major influence on employees’ decisions to relocate in private sector organizations (Bakker et al., 2008; Prehar, 2001). Consequently, more research is needed on family concerns in relation to how DoD employees’ make decisions to relocate. Future researchers, for example, might focus on how families make decisions as a group, how employees make decisions with spouses, and how spouses’ employment might affect decisions to relocate. Future researchers may focus on larger economic and career factors, such as retirement considerations in relation to DoD employees’ decisions to relocate and the influence of economic trends that influence income potential and job opportunities for employees as well as their spouses.
Findings also indicated that monetary incentives influenced employees’ decisions to relocate, and future researchers may investigate other ways to offer incentives so that DoD employees can relocate.

Another important avenue for further research involves individuals not seeing their relocation decisions and actions as having larger consequences of any real importance for the military. My findings indicated that half of the respondents were seeking a different position when contacted after the initial interview, and they mentioned that the impact to the military mission would be economically high. The reason for this response was because of individuals gradually finding new positions or returning to their original location. These individuals will need to be replaced by new workers, and the incentives they received for relocation were spent on moving employees who would not remain at their current location. Therefore, an investigation into the future or projected residential plans of relocated individuals is a research priority and might include quantitative studies to bolster the results of the present study, as well as longitudinal studies regarding how employees’ plans might change and the factors that might lead to employees changing their plans.

**Implications for Theory**

My research was based on three theories that were related to decision-making and relocation for understanding why civil service and contractor employees accept or reject an offer to relocate, the individual potential effects from the decision, and the impact on the military mission from a BRAC resolution. These theories included CLT, SLT, and TPB. The following section presents the theoretical implications.
Piaget’s CLT. Participants made decisions about relocation from information that was available to them, and this supports Piaget’s (1952) CLT research, which holds that individuals in the formal operational stage of intellectual development form thought processes in decision-making and engage in abstract thinking based on available information. In the formal operational stage of intellectual development, individuals think about multiple options in systematic ways, formulate hypotheses, and consider possibilities when making decisions. Participants considered personal (e.g., health), social (e.g., family), monetary (e.g., incentives), and career (e.g., retirement) factors when making decisions about relocation. Findings indicated that the use of available knowledge was an integral part of the decision-making process for participants when considering relocation, supporting Piaget’s (1952) CLT.

In addition, Piaget (1952) theorized that continued intellectual and cognitive development in adults depended on the sustained acquisition of knowledge and that knowledge helps individuals make sound decisions. Participants reported that the BRAC briefings were a beneficial source of information and knowledge to help make relocation decisions. Participants engage in sustained effort in the area of knowledge acquisition to be able to make informed decisions concerning relocation, and this finding supports Piaget’s CLT that sustained acquisition of knowledge can help individuals develop and make sound decisions. Findings also indicated that individuals’ stages in their careers influenced their decisions to relocate. For example, individuals close to retirement felt that leaving their positions was not a sensible option. Although stages of individuals’
careers do not correspond with Piaget’s stages of intellectual development, the career stages of individuals influenced their decision-making when considering relocation.

**Bandura’s SLT.** Bandura’s (1977) SLT served as a theoretical foundation for this study. Bandura’s SLT holds that individuals’ behaviors and decisions result from the reciprocal interaction between cognitive processes and external factors. According to Bandura, such reciprocal determinism involves individuals interacting with their environment and deciding which external events will be observed and have lasting effects on individuals’ behavior and actions. Consequently, decisions are the product of the interaction between cognitive and external factors; individuals make cognitive decisions and interact with social factors within particular environments. Participant’s decisions toward relocation are influenced by individuals’ cognitive processes regarding decision-making and involve the purposive behavior of seeking out additional information about relocation from BRAC briefings (e.g., an environmental or institutional component) and through their own avenues of knowledge acquisition.

My study findings support Bandura’s (1997) SLT theory and indicate that the individuals made decisions regarding relocation based on considerations and influences of their environment, including factors such as family, career, retirement, job opportunities, and incentives. My study showed that external factors were significant to how individuals cognitively shaped their potential actions (e.g., relocation). My research also adds to the findings of Wolfe and Betz (2004) in relation to career decision-making self-efficiency. Wolfe and Betz found that individuals with less-developed bonds with their careers were vulnerable to indecisiveness related to making decisions. In my
research, participants mentioned retirement and their proximity to retirement as strong influences on their decisions to relocate. I could not determine the degree to which participants were not bonded to their careers, and participants close to retirement were decisive about their decisions to relocate.

**Ajzen’s TPB.** Ajzen’s TPB (1991) served as an additional component of the theoretical foundation for this study. According to Ajzen, individuals’ behavioral intentions are formed in three dimensions: (a) attitudes toward behavior, (b) subjective norms, and (c) perceived behavior control. For Ajzen, individuals’ attitudes involve individuals’ assessment, which can be negative or positive, toward an event or behavior. My findings did not indicate whether participants thought that relocation was initially positive or negative. Participants accepted that they needed to make a decision to relocate or not and went about weighing factors to help them make decisions about relocation.

Ajzen’s (1991) second factor of TPB includes subjective norms, which refers to how individuals make an individual or subjective decision based on the norms of a specific larger group or community and their association with that group or community. The military establishment would be the larger social group that might be a normative influence on participants’ beliefs and decisions to relocate. However, most participants did not consider the military establishment in making their decision to relocate. In addition, most participants believed that their decisions to relocate or not would have no real impact on the military mission. My findings indicated that the military did not have a normative influence on participants’ decisions to relocate. This finding does not
support Ajzen’s theory regarding the influence of subjective norms on behavioral intention.

Ajzen’s (1991) third component of TPB is perceived behavioral control. An individual’s perceived behavioral control involves individuals’ beliefs in their ability to perform the actual behavior. There may be factors within and outside of individuals’ control that can influence their behavioral intentions. Unlike the second component of Ajzen’s TPB, my findings validated the third component of Ajzen’s TPB by indicating that participants considered factors both within their control (e.g., family concerns) and outside of their control (e.g., economic trends, job opportunities, income) when making decisions to relocate. Previous research revealed that economic conditions, for example, are an important component of larger structural processes beyond individuals’ control that can influence employment mobility (Ng et al., 2007). My findings indicated that the ability or inability to obtain another job and economic trends were a part of the decision-making process individuals used when considering relocation. Participants indicated that they would relocate rather than stay put and face an uncertain employment future.

Implications for Practice

Information from this study might also have practical implications as well. For example, because the concerns of family are important to DoD employees’ decision to relocate, BRAC briefings and transitional assistance might involve family support services that include transition counseling, financial advising, spousal employment assistance, and child care and educational information from potential relocation regions. BRAC briefings and transitional assistance might also include stress management and
reduction programs or strategies to help employees and their families cope with relocation and the possibility of families being separated.

Financial advising would benefit all employees. Financial burden was one of the themes mentioned by each participant. DoD leaders should take this implication seriously. There were a number of employees during the relocation that filed bankruptcy. Filing bankruptcy may help the employee outside of work; however, if an employee has a secret or top secret clearance, inside of work, the individual will get reassigned from the particular position to a position that does not require a clearance. Employees obtaining a clearance have to reapply every 5 years. There is a credit check involved and a certain credit score has to be maintained. If this score is not met, and the job requires a clearance, the employee may have to be reassigned from that position.

Another practical recommendation based on my research is incentives for relocating other than monetary incentives. DoD leaders in charge of helping DoD employees relocate should understand that relocation and the decision to relocate involve personal, familial, and economic components that are both within and outside of individuals’ control. The incentives other than monetary that I recommend would be additional vacation days, percentage of educational loans paid, and work from home options. Consequently, relocation assistance should be designed with this in mind.

I plan to submit my recommended changes in the DoD BRAC process, based on my research, to the Army Action Plan Office located at Fort Bragg. This office receives ideas that would benefit DoD. This office takes the information received, holds a panel, and votes on the information that is received. There is one representative from this office
who travels to Washington, D.C. once a year and briefs the officials in D.C. I envision my recommendations most appropriately implemented during the initial BRAC brief to the affected employees, along with the information being provide in a pamphlet.

**Conclusion**

My investigation provided insight into the lived experiences of civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from a closing installation to a gaining base, potential health effects from the decision, and the impact on the military mission. Although researchers have studied employees’ motives for accepting or rejecting offers to relocate in private sector organizations, my research represents one of the first of its kind to focus on DoD employees’ motives for accepting or rejecting offers to relocate. Factors within an individual’s control (e.g., family, personal, and career) and those outside of their control (e.g., larger economic trends, job opportunities) all represented important considerations when making decisions to relocate or not, with family considerations being highly important to individuals’ decisions.

Findings from the study help explain the process used by civil service and contractor employees who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson to make that final decision. Findings confirmed Prehar’s (2001) research that CLT, SLT, and TPB theories are useful in explaining the intentions and decisions of civil service and contractor employees, similar to how the theories were useful in explaining such intentions and decisions among private sector employees. Although no single theory explains an employee’s decision to accept or reject a relocation offer, these three theories in combination explain how and why employees go through a decision-making process to
accept or reject relocation offers. Cognitive processes and social factors are important to employees’ decisions to relocate; however, employees making decisions based on the norms and concerns of the larger social establishment, the military, are less important, which represents a troubling aspect of relocation for the military.

I believe, based on my findings, that my research will increase the knowledge of individuals who are employed by the DoD as well as the larger society. This research is hopefully the beginning of many efforts to improve how civil service and contractor employees decide to accept or reject an offer to relocate because of BRAC. It is also important for DoD leaders in charge of helping DoD employees relocate to realize that individuals’ behaviors and decisions regarding relocation resulted from the reciprocal interaction between cognitive processes and external factors, and represent a combination of forces within and outside of individuals’ control. DoD leaders in charge of helping DoD employees and contractors relocate should also be aware of the cost to the military of providing assistance and incentives for employee relocation to employees who may find new positions or return to their original locations. DoD leaders in charge of helping DoD employees relocate should consider these findings when developing cost-effective strategies for implementing DoD employee relocation.
References


Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness,


planned behavior: The roles of past behavior, habit, and reasoned action. *Basic
doi:10.1207/S15324834BASP2503_01

Freeman.


344–358. doi:0.1037/0003-066X.33.4344


Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR

Berry, T. R. (2011). Qualitative researchers as modern day Sophists? Reflections on the
qualitative-quantitative divide. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and

practice. In D. Bertaux (Ed.), *Biography and society: The life history approach in

and reluctance to relocate for a better job. *American Journal of Sociology, 97*(5),


Payne, H., & Stott, D. (2010). Change in the moving bodymind: Quantitative results from a pilot study on the use of the bodymind approach (bma) to psychotherapeutic group work with patients with medically unexplained symptoms (MUSs).


Appendix A: Flyer

Are you a civil service or contractor employee who accepted or rejected the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson, Georgia to Fort Bragg, North Carolina from a Base realignment and closure (BRAC) move?

If you answered “YES” please share your experiences in an important research study on how you made your decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate.

I am a doctoral student at Walden University conducting a research project on the factors that contributed to your decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate from Fort McPherson, Georgia to Fort Bragg, North Carolina because of a BRAC decision. I would like to talk to you about your lived experiences. An informal interview would be scheduled at your earliest convenience and designed to find out about your decision process, and experiences.

If you would like to participate in this research study or get more information, please email me.

Thank you for interest and contribution to this research study.
Appendix B: Demographic Questions

The 10 demographic questions are as follows:

1. Gender:  Man    Woman

2. Job title:  ____________Civil Service ___Contractor _____
   Accepted Offer_______Rejected Offer_______

3. Race:  Black  White  Hispanic  Asian  Other

4. Status:  Single  Married  Divorced  Separated
   Widowed

5. Age Range:  21–29  30–39  40–49  50+

6. Educational Level:  High School or GED  Certificate  Associated
   Degree (2 years)
   Bachelor’s Degree (4 years)  Master’s Degree  Ph.D./Doctorate  Some
   College

7. Years with the Federal Government:  0–3  4–8  9–12
   13–16
   17–19  20+

8. Salary Range:  $20 -30K  $31-$40K  $41-$50K  $51-$60K  $61-
   $70K
   $71-$80K  $81-$90K  $91-$100K  $101K+

9. Do you have dependents?  If yes, how many?

10. Did you own or rent at Fort McPherson, Georgia?
Appendix C: Interview Guide

Thank you for participating in this study. I will be asking you a series of questions concerning the process of choosing to relocate, or not to relocate, from Fort McPherson to Fort Bragg. Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and you can choose to stop this interview and withdraw from the study at any time. If there are no questions, then let’s begin the interview.

1. Please describe your process how you made your decision to move or not move.

2. Please describe your health from the beginning of the process when the BRAC was approved, during, and the completion of the relocation. Please include the strategy, if any, for exercise, sport, hobby, etc. if you needed to cope with the relocation or not.

3. Please describe the impact or impacts on the military in terms of your decision to move or not. To elaborate, did your position have you go set-up or stay to close down operations? Describe any monetary payouts on behalf of the military (i.e., house hunting, lodging, etc.).

4. Please describe your family situation, which means the barriers (financial, career, finding schools, finding a home, etc.) for you in terms of relocation from the beginning when the BRAC was approved, during, and the completion of the relocation.

5. Please describe the most important issues to you since you have relocated or not.
6. Please describe how satisfied are you with your decision to accept or reject the offer to relocate.

7. Please describe how your quality of life in terms of entertainment, travel, shopping, hobbies, etc. has changed since you have relocated or not?

8. Please describe what reasons or incentives in terms of incentive award, purchasing of your home, guaranteed job, etc. helped you make the decision to relocate or not to relocate.

9. Please describe your plan in terms of accepting the offer or not accepting the offer to relocate as far as employment (relocate then retire, find another job in another state, etc.).

10. Please describe any circumstances that complicated your decision to relocate or not.

11. Please describe how the BRAC briefings helped before, during, and after the relocation.

12. What advice would you give to someone who is about to experience a BRAC in terms of accepting or rejecting the offer to relocate or not?

13. Would you like to share any additional information in this interview concerning your decision to move or not move?
Appendix D: Human Resource Protections Certificate

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that the researcher successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course “Protecting Human Research Participants”.

Date of completion: 02/27/2012

Certification Number: 797071