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EFFECTS OF THE DIMENSIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE ON TURNOVER INTENTION OF MILLENNIAL EMPLOYEES IN THE U.S.

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EFFECTS OF THE DIMENSIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE
ON TURNOVER INTENTION OF MILLENNIAL EMPLOYEES IN THE U.S.

by

JULIE ROBERTS LEWIS

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Human Resource Development

Greg G. Wang, Ph.D., Committee Chair

Soules College of Business

The University of Texas at Tyler
May 2019


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This is to certify that the Doctoral Dissertation of


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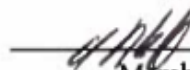
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Dedication

First, I'd like to thank God and my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, for giving me the strength and wisdom required to endure this phase. Second, this dissertation and the resulting degree are dedicated to my husband (Shannon), son (Dylan), mother (Bernita), sister (Shontel), and father-in-law (Charles) who have been my support and the source of my inspiration in the achievement of this personal goal. Throughout the doctoral journey, they continuously offered encouragement and comfort. To each of you, I am forever grateful. Third, dedication is owed to my late grandmother, Mary L. Roberts. She dreamed "BIG" and always told me that one day I'd be a doctor or lawyer. At that time, I did not fully understand the power of speaking things into existence. Thank you, Grandma for always believing in me.

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#GoneTooSoon

#GilleyGang

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Abstract

EFFECTS OF THE DIMENSIONS OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE ON TURNOVER INTENTION OF MILLENNIAL EMPLOYEES IN THE U.S.

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Voluntary employee turnover, or quitting jobs, in the U.S. has been steadily increasing since 2009. This study investigated the relationships among the dimensions of quality of work life (QWL), job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among millennial employees in the U.S. It sought to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed among these variables. The study tested a model of the relationships among the aforementioned constructs using structural equation modeling with the IBM® SPSS® Amos 25.0 (SPSS) software package.

Using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), 339 respondents drawn from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) were examined. Results showed that job characteristics and compensation and benefits had positive and significant effects on job satisfaction. Additionally, job satisfaction had statistically significant effects on organizational commitment and turnover intention. Neither of the dimensions of QWL had positive and significant relationships with organizational commitment. Finally,

neither of the dimensions of QWL had direct and negatively significant relationships with turnover intention.

This study contributes to the literature by informing on which dimensions of QWL directly attribute to enhanced job satisfaction and reductions in turnover intention. Such knowledge provides a better understanding of millennial employees and may aid in turnover reductions and costs incurred by organizations that are related to turnover.

Keywords: quality of work life, work/life balance, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, compensation and benefits, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, turnover, millennials, and Generation Y.

Chapter One

Introduction

Voluntary turnover has long been a challenge faced by organizations. This study was designed to investigate the effects of the dimensions of quality of work life (QWL) on turnover intention of millennial employees in the U.S. QWL is an employees' perception of how the organizational environment meets their needs and well-being at work. In this chapter, the study is introduced by first presenting the background to the research problem. Then, the generational cohorts that comprise the U.S. workplace are acknowledged. While concentrating on the millennial employees, the largest cohort and focus of this study, further elaboration is placed on their position in the context of U.S. based organizations. Research literature on turnover and turnover intention is highlighted. The statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and theoretical underpinnings are presented. An overview of the concepts related to dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention are presented. Finally, the research hypotheses and conceptual model followed by a brief overview of the design of the study, significance of the study, assumptions, delimitations, and definitions are presented.

Background to the Problem

Contemporary organizations are confronted with complex challenges, including retention of qualified employees to ensure organizations remain innovative and competitive (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017; Frese & Fay, 2000). When employees leave

organizations through voluntary turnover, unfavorable outcomes such as increased recruitment and training costs, loss of organizational knowledge, business disruptions, and poor customer satisfaction may occur (Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2013).

Voluntary employee turnover negatively affects work efficiency of those remaining with the organization and is costly to the organization (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006). Turnover costs have been estimated to range from 1.5 to 2.5 times the annual earnings of the separated employee (Allen et al., 2010; Cascio, 2003; Cascio & Boudreau, 2008). To address these challenges, organizational leaders need to recruit and retain skilled and capable employees from the labor force (Schlechter, Syce, & Bussin, 2016). Such concerns are significant as they may have broader implications for organizational competitiveness (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010).

Voluntary turnover does not just happen instantaneously. Turnover is the outcome of an employee's withdrawing process. The employee tends to go through a complex process of intermediary stages before the actual turnover occurs (Allisey, Noblet, Lamontagne, & Houdmont, 2014). Dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and reduced employee performance are just a few work-related factors that employees tend to experience prior to quitting a job (Yücel, 2012). A final behavioral tendency or orientation of that process, prior to actual turnover, is known as turnover intention (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015).

Workplace Dynamics

Changes to workplace dynamics in the U.S. have been attributed to a multi-generational employee population consisting of five generational cohorts (Bennett, Beehr, & Ivanitskaya, 2017; U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). A generational cohort is a

group of individuals close in age who shares a common identity due to their similar experiences of historical events within the same time period (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010). Though five generational cohorts – Silent and Greatest, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y or millennials, and Generation Z – are present in the U.S. workplace, three groups dominate today’s workforce (Fry, 2018). The oldest generation of workers, born in 1945 or earlier and known as the Silent and Greatest or Traditionalist generation, accounts for 2% of the labor force (Weidmer, 2015). The Baby Boomer generation, born between 1946 and 1964, represents 25% of the labor force (Fry, 2018; Weidmer, 2015). They are defined by the boom in U.S. birthrates following World War II.

Generation X or Xers, who were born between 1965 and 1980, account for one-third of the labor force (Chuang & Wang, 2018; Fry, 2018). They are characterized as Xers since they were born during a time of shifting societal values, when more divorces occurred, and when adult supervision declined. Millennials, born between 1981 and 1996, are the largest cohort, accounting for 35% of the labor force (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). They are commonly referred to as Gen Y, Nexters, Generation Me, Boomer Babies, and the Digital Generation (Chuang & Wang, 2018; Great Expectations, 2016). The most recent and youngest generation of workers, born in 1997 or later, comprise 5% of the labor force and are known as the post-millennials, Generation Alpha, or Generation Z/Centennials (Brushardt, Young, & Bari, 2018; Fry, 2018; Nor, Nor, Ahmad, Khalid, & Ibrahim, 2017).

Millennials

Millennials are not only the largest labor force in the U.S., but they are also on the cusp of being the largest living adult generation (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). Millennials are confident, rank higher in self-esteem, are very assertive compared to previous generations, and are considered to possess lower levels of organizational commitment (Jayasundera, Jayakody, & Jayawardana, 2017; Smith & Nichols, 2015). Furthermore, they are more likely to see their jobs as a dispensable piece of life's puzzle and presume total job mobility (Tulgan, 2016). Leaders are perplexed about the elevated levels of turnover among millennial employees. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (USBLS; 2018) turnover among employees has been slowly but steadily increasing over the past two decades. As of January 2018, millennial employees reported they had worked for their current employers an average of only 3 years. Organizational leaders and managers need to understand what satisfies millennial employees and uncover the relationships, if any, that exist among the millennial generational cohort with regard to job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Abate, Shaefer, & Pavone, 2018; Guha, 2010).

According to Kaifi, Nafei, Khanfar, and Kaifi (2012), millennials are characterized as such because of their closeness to the new millennium and being raised in a more digital and technological age. Millennials hold different work values, have different personalities, and have different expectations relating to work preferences (Great Expectations, 2016). They enjoy spending more time with family, have less work centrality, and are not as committed to companies as previous generations of employees (Campione, 2015). Millennials are achievement focused, more accepting of changes in the workplace, seek rapid advancement, seek career and skill development, and desire a

satisfying personal life. They are more willing to put forth extra effort to help an organization advance and become more competitive in the market (Kaifi et al., 2012). At the same time, millennials expect to be acknowledged and rewarded for their efforts.

In their formative years, the millennial generation was exposed to a different lifestyle than their predecessors. Differences included more education, higher competence in information and communication technologies (ICTs), and better use of social media (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010; Nor et al., 2017; Pyöriä, Ojala, Saari, & Järvinen, 2017). Millennials became more dependent on technology at an earlier age and are therefore more proficient than prior generations (Smith & Nichols, 2015).

Technology is an integral part of their lives since they have no recollection of a world without the internet (Brushardt et al., 2018). Many millennials believe the internet is as important as life's necessities, such as air, water, food, and shelter (Stewart, Oliver, Cravens, & Oishi, 2017). Since millennial employees have out-numbered other generational cohorts in the workplace, it is assumed more integrated technology has been implemented in work processes (Kaifi et al., 2012).

Millennials grew up participating in team sports and group learning sessions (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Accordingly, the concept of teams and groups transferred into the workplace because millennials appear to be more collaborative in the work environment than previous cohorts (Calk & Patrick, 2017). Millennials place a high value on teamwork and appreciate autonomy, fulfilling work, social consciousness, flexibility, work-life balance (WLB), and a high QWL (Kumar & Velmurugan, 2018; Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Millennial employees regard work as a part of life, not a detached activity that needs to be balanced by it (Meister & Willyerd, 2010).

Turnover Intention of Millennials

Turnover intention, a predictive measure of potential turnover, is related to an employees' psychological state (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaetner, 2000). Scholars have researched mitigating factors of turnover intention and improving individual and organizational outcomes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Parker & Gerbasi, 2016). The definition of turnover intention varies slightly among researchers; however, the overall intent of the definition is consistent. For example, Tett and Meyer (1993) defined turnover intention as “a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” and described it as the “last phase in the sequence of withdrawal cognitions, a set to which thinking of leaving an organization and intent to actively search for alternative external employment opportunities belong” (p. 262).

Millennials place a higher value on leisure and WLB (Campione, 2015). They actively exist as change agents in the workplace, rejecting the norms of working long hours. They deal with unpalatable employer practices by expressing their concerns and walking away from their jobs faster than generations have in the past. According to a recent Gallop (2016) report, 21% of millennials had changed jobs within the past year, and 60% said they were open to different job opportunities. Data provided by the USBLS (2018) showed the average tenure of millennial employees was three times less than that of previous generations.

Statement of the Problem

Employee voluntary turnover rates in previous generations have been much lower than that of millennials (USBLS, 2018). Baby Boomers are retiring at an increasing rate and are being replaced by millennial employees resulting in a more diverse and rapidly

changing workforce. Millennial workers have a significantly higher likelihood of turnover compared to other generational cohorts (Ertas, 2015). Much of the millennials' turnover is due to a lack of overall job satisfaction, perceptions of unfair compensation, limited opportunities for growth and advancement, and bad relationships with their co-workers or managers (Ertas, 2015; Great Expectations, 2016). Despite this knowledge, research is required to determine exactly what motivates or satisfies millennials and reduces their willingness to leave organizations (Smith & Nichols, 2015).

Considering the influx of millennial workers, the estimated increase in workforce projections of nearly 70% by 2022, and voluntary turnover projections, it is important for employers to understand millennials' perspectives about work aspects (Abate et al., 2018; Gallop, 2016; Great Expectations, 2016). A better understanding of these aspects may help organizational leaders reconsider how they focus on and cater to the motivational aspects of this generational cohort, develop policies that enhance the perception of these employees' QWL, and reduce turnover intentions (Campione, 2015; Yang, Wan, & Fu, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine which factors of QWL affect turnover intention of millennials so that voluntary turnover may be minimized, and costs of turnover incurred by organizations is reduced. The secondary purpose was to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed between the dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Lastly, the purpose was to test an untested model and determine if the model was relevant to millennials.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study was informed by Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory and Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. While an in-depth review of each theory is presented in Chapter Two, a brief overview of the two theories is provided in the sections that follow.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory is a motivational needs model which can be specifically applied to the workplace and characteristics of the work (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx, & Van der Schyf, 1998). Also known as the motivational-hygiene model, the two-factor theory divides human needs into two categories: motivator factors and hygiene factors (Ghazi, Shahzada, & Khan, 2013; Herzberg, 1966).

According to Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), employee motivation is attained when workers are confronted with challenges. They enjoy working in an environment where they can understand, grow, demonstrate responsibility, and be promoted in the organization (Ghazi et al., 2013). Herzberg et al. (1959) used this theory to explain how five factors of job satisfaction (motivators) and seven factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene) influence employee turnover intentions. Herzberg disputed fundamental beliefs about factors that satisfy and motivate employees by presenting assertions that employee pay provides minimal contribution to job satisfaction (Sachau, 2007). He theorized that psychological growth enhanced employee's satisfaction and that workplace relationships, such as those with coworkers and supervisors, led to dissatisfaction more than satisfaction.

Becker's Side-Bet Theory

The three-dimensional model of organizational commitment was proposed and examined by linking the individuals' "extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker, 1960, p.32). The consistent line was to remain with the organization and was a result of lateral exchanges or side bets (Gomes de Jesus & Rowe, 2017). Side bets refer to an accumulation of investments valued by the individual which would be lost if the person left the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Thus, commitments are established, or strengthened, when an employee makes a side bet (Becker, 1960). An expensive value is placed on the side bets because of the accumulation of costs that renders separation from the organization a difficult decision (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014). Consequently, the enhanced commitment is mainly due to the threat of losing investments and the lack of opportunity or ability to replace those investments. This supports the view that side bets, costs, and commitment typically increase as tenure in the organization increases (Reichers, 1985). Hence, turnover intention decreases.

The contract of economic exchange behavior explains the relationship between the organization and employee (Becker, 1960). Employees are committed because they have hidden investments or side bets that have been made over time as they have remained with the organization (Irefin & Mechanic, 2014). Becker's (1960) side-bet theory is fundamental to organizational commitment and thus applicable to the study. When millennials perceive a high degree of QWL via flexible work options, WLB, growth opportunities, and leadership development, they are more likely to remain committed to the organization (Frost, 2018; Howington, 2018; Norton, 2017).

A Brief Overview of the Research Variables

The research constructs and variables of the present study included dimensions of dimensions of quality of work life, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. A brief description of each construct and variable is presented within this section.

Quality of Work Life

QWL describes the employees' perception of their work experience in relation to job satisfaction, turnover intention, turnover rate, personalities, and work stress (Hsu & Kernohan, 2006). When the employee evaluates his or her level of QWL, emphasis is generally placed on the organization's ability to fulfill employees' needs through experiences (Daud, Yaakob, & Ghazali, 2015; Sajjad & Abbasi, 2014). Based on the employees' perception, companies offering accommodating work environments and better quality of work life are more likely to attract and retain valuable employees (Daud, 2010; May, Lau, & Johnson, 1999).

QWL has been expressed as the satisfaction level of an employee towards his or her job in which the organization provides the key necessities and moral support (Daud et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the quality of work life construct and job satisfaction variable are distinctly different. Literature indicates that a good QWL can increase job satisfaction, enhance organizational commitment, lower tardiness frequency, and reduce turnover rates (Golkar, 2013). An employee's QWL can be affected by factors such as social and physical environments within the organization, the administrative system, work tasks, and work-life balance (Rose, Beh, Uli, & Idris, 2006). Therefore, QWL

encompasses the employee's subjective perception of his or her work and the total working environment.

Job Satisfaction

When employees like or dislike their jobs, levels of job satisfaction are assessed (Spector, 1997, 2007). It is related to an individual's satisfaction with psychological, physical, and environmental issues. In the most simplistic definition, job satisfaction is the "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Employee job satisfaction is affected by satisfaction with innumerable aspects of the job (Spector, 1997). Researchers agree that job satisfaction is an employees' biased perception and evaluation of one's current job and organization (Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997). An employee's level of job satisfaction is determined by the nature of the job and by the individual's expectation of what the job must provide (Lu, While, & Barriball, 2005).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a psychological attachment felt by the employee for the organization (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). In other words, organizational commitment is the magnitude to which an individual identifies with and is involved in an organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). It reflects the degree to which the employee adopts the views and culture of the organization. Wiener (1982) defined commitment as the "totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interest" (p. 421) and suggested individuals exhibit behaviors because they are right and moral. Although research shows there are significant differences in the definition of organizational commitment, there is agreement

that when organizational commitment is high, turnover intention is low (Khatri, Fern, & Budhwar, 2001; Luz, de Paula, & de Oliveira, 2018; Yücel, 2012).

Turnover Intention

The focus of considerable research concerning voluntary employee turnover has been on turnover intention, not actual turnover (Arshadi & Shahbazi, 2013; Ghosh, Rai, Chauhan, Gupta, & Singh, 2015). Turnover intention is defined as an individual's perceived probability of leaving the organization (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Literature recognizes turnover intention as a precursor to turnover and the final phase of cognitive withdrawal prior to voluntary turnover (Jehanzeb, Rasheed, & Rasheed, 2013; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Considering turnover intention can result in undesirable outcomes for organizations, organizations may seek to understand its predictors to increase organizational effectiveness (Khawaldi, 2014).

Research Hypotheses

When employees have high perceptions of QWL and are satisfied with their work, determinations of commitment to the organization are enhanced (Rostiana, 2017; Wan & Chan, 2013). As organizational commitment increases, turnover intentions are likely to be weakened, and employees tend to remain (Rostiana, 2017; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015; Wan & Chan, 2013). QWL, job satisfaction, commitment, and voluntary turnover have become topics of interest for organizational leaders and researchers, especially regarding millennial workers in the U.S. (Campion, 2015; Ertas, 2015; Tulgan, 2016; Wenger, 2015). A call for research on turnover intention has never been more important than when it involves the workforce of millennial employees (Ertas, 2015; Kowske et al., 2010).

Millennial employees expect more than financial benefits from the organization (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Flexibility in work schedules, supervisor support, clearly defined responsibilities, and formalized procedures are preferable aspects noted by millennials (Campion, 2015; Rubel & Kee, 2014). Huang, Lawler, and Lei (2007) suggested QWL perceptions increase as employee perceptions of WLB, favorable job characteristics, and supportive supervisors increase. Prior studies have shown the dimensions of QWL are key predictors of turnover intentions (Celik & Oz, 2011; Huang et al., 2007).

Surienty et al. (2014) indicated several QWL dimensions (WLB, job characteristics, and supervisory behavior) had a significant and negative relationships with turnover intention. Sharma and Jyoti (2013) examined dimensions of QWL on job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention of employees in higher education institutions. Results showed QWL was negatively related to turnover intention. Such results indicated good QWL reduces employees' desires to leave organizations.

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been incorporated into many turnover models (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). In most cases, the relationships have been examined independently and through correlational models (Mathieu et al., 2016). Few studies have presented structural models including QWL and turnover with job satisfaction and organizational commitment as intervening variables. Like the present study, it is crucial that additional research on turnover intentions consider the intervening role of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mathieu et al., 2016).

Therefore, this study sought to examine the effect of the dimensions of QWL on employees' turnover intention was analyzed to determine if the model explains turnover intention for millennials representing all industries in the U.S. The indirect influences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were examined as well. The four dimensions of QWL relevant to this study are important to millennials. However, there is not enough research to support the relationships among these variables and turnover intention. Moreover, there is no evidence that any one of the dimensions is a more important or significant predictor of turnover intention than the other dimensions. Therefore, the significance of each QWL dimension was individually evaluated using empirical evidence. To accomplish this, the conceptual model was examined and gave rise to six main hypotheses. The relationships or effects expected in the study were supported by prior research (Huang et al., 2007; Surlenty et al., 2014; Yücel, 2012).

H1: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H2: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H3: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H4: Job satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H5: Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H6: Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

Results of prior studies which examined the relationships among the dimensions of QWL, organizational commitment, and turnovers have been inconsistent (Daud et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2007; Yusoff, Rimi, & Meng, 2015). Consequently, the conceptual model and research hypotheses were tested to provide more conclusive findings regarding turnover intention for millennial employees to human resource development (HRD), leadership teams, and the industry.

Overview of the Design of the Study

A quantitative cross-sectional survey design was deployed to assess the relationships among the constructs and variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Fowler, 2014). Data were collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) participants using Qualtrics[®] and analyzed using the IBM[®] SPSS[®] Amos 25.0 (SPSS) software package. Qualtrics[®], an online survey design and hosting software, was used to collect the data (Brandon, Long, Loraas, Mueller-Phillips, & Vansant, 2014).

Population, Sample Frame, and Sample

The population for this survey consisted of full-time and part-time male and female employees from the ages of 23 to 38 working at various U.S. companies and within all functions of organizations. The study targeted the millennial cohort which currently represents 35% of the U.S. labor force. The following demographic items were solicited to describe the sample: ethnicity, gender, educational level, marital status,

industry, management or non-management, tenure with the company, and full-time or part-time work status (Heen, Lieberman, & Miethe, 2014; USBLS, 2018).

Data Collection Procedures

To obtain data required to test the hypotheses, participants were solicited via MTurk to complete a 32-item survey containing questions and statements relevant to the study's variables. The survey was deployed through Qualtrics[®], web-based software that allows users to create surveys and generate reports through a user-friendly graphical user interface (Chambers, Nimon, & Anthony-McMann, 2016). Prescreening questions confirmed the participants were millennial employees in the U.S. and were not self-employed. If all requirements were not met, participants were informed they did not qualify to partake in the study.

Data Analysis

Using SPSS, data were analyzed, and hypotheses were tested (Huang et al., 2007; Yücel, 2012). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied to assess construct validity and reliability by evaluating composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and the square root of AVE.

Significance of the Study

Recently, turnover intentions among millennial employees in the U.S. have received increasing interest from researchers and organizational leaders (Campione, 2015; Ertas, 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016; Smith & Nichols, 2015). At least forty million millennials are already in the workplace, and it is anticipated that an additional 40 million will enter before 2020 (Ferri-Reed, 2012). As of 2017, 56 million millennials were working or looking for work and had surpassed employment rates of Gen Xers in 2016

(USBLS, 2018). The USBLS expects this growth trend will continue. Today, millennials comprise the largest generational cohort in the U.S. labor force with more than one-in-three American employees (Fry, 2018). Kowske et al. (2010) suggested additional studies be conducted in the U.S. after most millennial employees have entered the workplace. Therefore, it is appropriate to conduct more research regarding these employees.

Human capital is the most valuable asset of any organization. Organizational success depends more on the intangible knowledge and skills of the employees than on the traditional physical capital (Surienty et al., 2014). Therefore, it is important for HRD research to continuously update the literature, providing enhanced knowledge regarding millennial employee turnover intentions. Although the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions have been widely studied in the literature, there is a paucity of empirical studies testing QWL effects on the aforementioned variables (Gabrani et al., 2016; Tarigan & Ariani, 2105; Tnay, Othman, Siong, & Lim, 2013; Yücel, 2012). Insufficient studies related to QWL and turnover intention with intervening effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the millennial generation in the U.S. labor force are available to provide insight on organizational practices (Ertas, 2015). This study contributes to the literature by combining dimensions of QWL construct with a focus on millennial employees in the U.S. and aims to enrich the research literature to inform HRD practice.

Furthermore, this study aimed to provide empirical data regarding factors that minimize turnover intentions which may offer new insight to scholars and practitioners (Mello, 2011; Purba, Oostrom, Born, & van der Molen, 2016). To date, no study has

evaluated all these constructs within the same model. The research and results determined if the model was appropriate for millennial employees representing all industries in the U.S. and provided more conclusive information regarding turnover intention to organizations, leadership teams, and industry. The information obtained can be used to design strategies that will help minimize turnover intentions and potential turnover costs of this generational cohort.

The current study is most significant for HRD. Knowledge of employees' expectations and desires regarding antecedents of turnover intentions equips HRD professionals to design programs that enhance work environments for employees within organizations of various sizes. If results indicate that expectations of millennials vary by demographics, their needs can be individually yet specifically addressed. The study may inform HRD professionals of the effects of the dimensions of QWL on millennial employees, so they are more aware of what is important to this generational cohort. Therefore, they may develop strategies that target the motivational aspects of millennials.

HRD professionals may also design training programs to develop and improve the leadership styles of management teams. Such enhancements may result in adjustments to employee job characteristics that motivate millennials. Then, aspects of work and the environment may be perceived as more meaningful (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Millennials desire a good WLB and will trade a higher paying job for one that allows for more time at home. Addressing factors related to turnover intentions can potentially reduce turnover costs incurred by organizations and increase operational sustainability of organizations in the U.S.

The study is significant for managers who provide key decision-making feedback regarding employee retention strategies and performance management. Empirical data were used to determine the effects of QWL turnover intention, with job satisfaction and organizational commitment serving as intervening variables. Such empirically based evidence enhances the body of literature and knowledge base of managers who provide critical policymaking strategies for organizational policy development and employee development. As a result, managers are more knowledgeable and better equipped to address specific needs of the organization and millennial employees. They can design and facilitate strategies that result in high QWL which enhance satisfaction, commitment, and ultimately improve retention strategies.

Assumptions

At least three assumptions were relevant to the study. First, participants were expected to complete the survey on their own and without influence from others. The second assumption was that participants would respond to each survey question and statement freely and in an honest manner based on their personal experiences and perceptions. These concerns were mitigated by survey design considerations that ensured anonymity, requests to answer the questions honestly, and a user-friendly layout. In addition, the tested model included a control for common method bias. Third, it was assumed there would be a need to keep the survey active for 3 to 4 weeks to achieve a priori sample size of at least 320. However, the use of MTurk participants provided a sufficient number of usable responses within 10 days.

Delimitations

Delimitations regarding the survey structure and content were present within the study. First, the boundary of the U.S. was established as the geographical domain.

Second, the study was delimited by the millennial generation of employees, even though other generations are employed in U.S. companies. Third, the millennial employees could not be self-employed. Fourth, the instrument used to measure organizational commitment was a shortened version of the Allen and Meyer's (1991) three-component model (TCM) instrument that was validated by Huang et al. (2007).

Definitions of Terms

To provide clarity and understanding of terms important for readers and researchers to draw the necessary conclusions, a list of relevant terms is provided.

- *Affective commitment* – “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 63); desire to remain
- *Continuance commitment* – “perceived cost associated with leaving the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 63); need to remain
- *Generational cohorts* – a group of individuals similar in age who share a common identity because they experienced the same historical events within the same time period (Kowske et al., 2010); the U.S. Bureau of Statistics (USBS, 2018) defines generational cohorts by birth year as follows: Post millennials – 1997 or later; millennials – 1981 to 1996; Generation X – 1965 to 1980; Baby Boomers – 1946 to 1964; and Silent and Greatest – 1945 or earlier
- *Job characteristics* – the five affective factors (e.g. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which prompt three critical psychological states, in turn, leads to positive individual and organizational outcomes (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). The three psychological states

include, “experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility of the outcomes of work, and knowledge of the results of the work activities (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 255).

- *Job satisfaction* - "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300)
- *Millennials* – generation of people born between 1981 to 1996 (Fry, 2018)
- *Normative commitment* – “perceived obligation to remain in the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 63); ought to remain
- *Organizational commitment* – “an affective attachment to an organization as a consequence of an individual sharing the organization’s values, their desire to remain in the organization, and their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization” (Yücel, 2012, p. 45)
- *Quality of work life* – “the extent to which an employee is satisfied with personal and working needs through participating in the workplace while achieving the goals of the organization” (Almalki, FitzGerald, & Clark, 2012)
- *Supervisory Behavior* – refers to the responses and communication methods, attitudes, behavior, and support provided or exhibited by the leader towards the employee (Gilbreath & Karimi, 2012)
- *Turnover* – refers to voluntary or involuntary separation from an organization (Allisey et al., 2014)
- *Turnover intention* – the “conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262); “the mediating factor between

attitudes affecting intent to quit and quitting an organization” (Glissmeyer, Bishop, & Fass, 2008, p. 460)

- *Voluntary turnover* – a type of turnover occurring when employees willingly choose to leave their jobs or organizations; quitting a job (Fry, 2018; Ghosh et al., 2015)
- *Work life balance* – the individual’s perception that work responsibilities and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with the individual’s life priorities (Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Kumar & Chakraborty, 2013)

Structure and Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter One provided the background to the problem, statement of the problem, and purpose of the study, as well as an overview of the design of the study. Significance of the study, assumptions, and delimitations were discussed as well. The chapter concluded with important definitions of terminology used throughout this dissertation and relevant to this study.

Chapter Two offers a review of the literature relevant to the concepts examined in the study. It begins with the literature search strategy. An overview of the millennial generation in the U.S. labor force is described and relevant domains of the study are presented. Details of the two theories (Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory, 1959; Becker’s side-bet theory, 1960) that underpinned the study followed by the rationale for the research hypotheses are articulated. The chapter concludes with a table identifying key research articles used to support the study, a diagram of the tested conceptual model, and a summary.

Chapter Three contains details of the design and methods of the study, including the purpose, research hypotheses, and design of the study. The study population, sample frame, and sample are described followed by measurement instrumentation. Next, the survey design, data collection, and analysis procedures are presented. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Chapter Four reports the results of the study. To test the conceptual structural model, hierarchical structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed to develop the most parsimonious and best fitting structural model. Finally, the results and the fit indices of this process are presented, and the testing and analysis of the hypothesized interactions are articulated.

Chapter Five provides a discussion and interpretation of the results in relation to the literature. Contributions to the literature from this study and its implications for theory, practice, and research are offered for human resource development and the broader business context. The chapter concludes with recommendations for possible future research.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

This chapter is organized into seven sections. The first section contains a description of the literature search strategy. The second section includes an examination of the literature regarding the millennial generation along with their position in the U.S. labor force. Section three presents literature related to QWL, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, respectively. The theoretical framework underpinning the study is presented in section four. Section five contains the rationale for the hypotheses. Section six includes a brief overview of the articles supporting the study. Finally, the chapter concludes with a conceptual model that captures the relationships between the constructs and variables studied.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature search strategy included a comprehensive online query using electronic journals and databases accessed through The Robert Muntz Library at The University of Texas at Tyler library portal. Databases and search tools used for locating relevant material included Academic Search Complete, Business Abstracts, Business Source Complete, EBSCOhost, Emerald, LexisNexis, ProQuest, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, PsycINFO, SAGE Journals, SpringerLink, and the Wiley Online Library. Google Scholar was used as a supplemental source in the review. Keywords used for the search included QWL, WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, compensation and benefits, millennials, Generation Y, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, voluntary turnover, three-component model of

commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, or various combinations of the above keywords.

The criteria used in the selection of materials was based on relevance to the study, historical background, construct development, reliability and validity of the constructs, peer review articles from journals, and researchers who specialized in the topic of interest and constructs. The initial search resulted in 17,000 articles that were relevant to quality of work life. Next, the focus was placed on QWL and job satisfaction, one of the intervening variables. This search revealed 9,650 articles. Then the dependent variable, turnover intention, was added to the search criteria. This query resulted in 2,080 potentially relevant articles. After that, organizational commitment, the second intervening variable, was added to the search criteria. This search revealed that 1,590 articles remained. Finally, concentration was placed on millennials because this generational cohort comprises the sample participants. Results showed that less than 100 potentially relevant articles remained.

Additional studies were obtained from reference lists in key studies on QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Reference librarians refer to this method of searching as citation chaining (Savolainen, 2004). Performing a more in-depth review helped identify the gap in the literature regarding the effects of QWL on turnover intention of millennial employees in the U.S. and developed the research purpose. After thoroughly examining the literature, 271 references were used and are discussed in this literature review.

Millennial Generation in the U.S.

The composition of the U.S. labor force consists of five generational cohorts. Three of the generational cohorts make up 93% of the U.S. labor force (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics [USBLS], 2018). The oldest and smallest generation, born in 1945 or earlier, is known as the Silent Generation (Fry, 2018). The second oldest generation, born between 1946 and 1964, is known as the Baby Boomer or Boomer Generation (Fry, 2018). They have a sizeable footprint in the U.S. labor force, but research indicates Baby Boomer retirement rates are increasing each year (Fry, 2018; USBLS, 2018). Therefore, the size of the Boomer workforce will continue to decrease. The third generational cohort, born between 1965 and 1980, is the Gen Xers. Until 2016, Gen Xers dominated the U.S. labor force (USBLS, 2017). The fourth and largest generational cohort, born between 1981 and 1996, is the millennials (Fry, 2018).

Recently, the millennial labor force exceeded that of the Gen X labor force. According to the USBLS (2017), millennials comprise more than one-third of the American labor force. Research indicates the millennial labor force will continue to grow, partly due to immigration (Buckley & Bachman, 2017; Fry, 2018). Buckley and Bachman (2017) reported that millennials represent the largest labor market share of all generational cohorts. The fifth and youngest generational cohort, born during and after 1997, is the post-millennials or Generation Z (Buckley & Bachman, 2017; Fry, 2018). In 2017, nine million post-millennials were employed or looking for work (Fry, 2018; USBLS, 2017). Figure 1 represents the U.S. labor force by generational cohort.

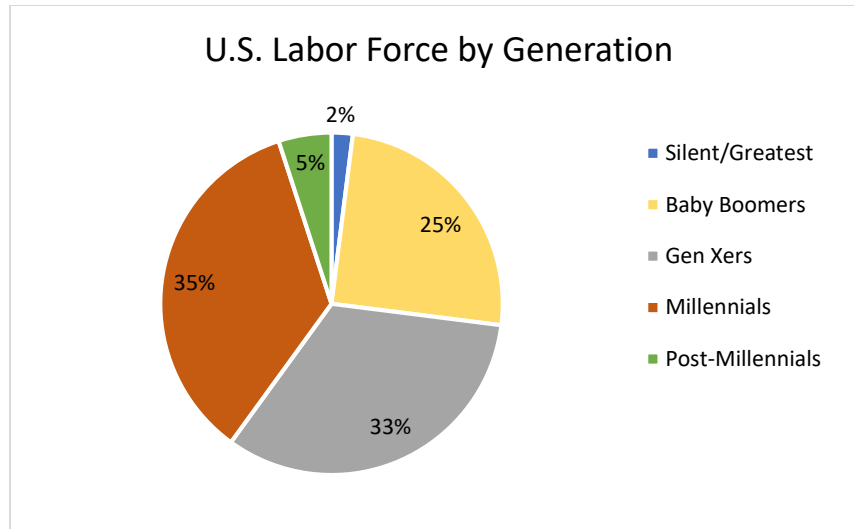


Figure 1. Percent U.S. labor force by generation (source: USBLS, 2018).

They desire educational advancement and adjust well to increasing technological changes. Millennials have experienced the development and expansion of social networking tools and rapid dissemination of communication during their developmental years (Kaifi et al., 2012; Pyöriä et al., 2017). Taylor and Keeter (2010) referred to millennials as the always connected generation because they grew up actively and continuously using technological tools and social networking platforms. The literature has not been consistent on claims regarding the attitudes and ethics of this generational cohort. One group of scholars portrayed them as confident, achieving, socially conscious and responsible, helpers of others, politically engaged, and problem solvers of the world (Burstein, 2011; Greenberg & Weber, 2009; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Kowske et al., 2010). Another group of scholars described them as arrogant, narcissistic, entitled with little concern for others, and civically disconnected (Alsop, 2008; Twenge, 2006; Twenge, Campbell, & Freeman, 2012). This discrepancy has occurred because the debate of generational characteristics has been based on subjective observations instead

of rigorous and valid empirical studies (Ertas, 2015; Kowske et al., 2010; Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008).

Researchers suggest that millennials differ from previous cohorts in terms of their personality traits, relationships with colleagues and supervisors, and career aspirations (Kowske et al., 2010; Ng, Lyons, & Schweitzer, 2012). Many of these differences are attributed to the historical and social events experienced by millennial employees. They have been affected by major events (including the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, the housing bust of 2008, and the economic recession of 2008) that have contributed to their unique characteristics (Dimock, 2018; Mannheim, 1952; Ryder, 1965). An empirical examination of generational effects on work attitudes of millennials in the U.S. found small but significant differences between the different generational cohorts (Kowske et al., 2010). Thus, further research was recommended to control for age by concentrating on individual cohorts. Additionally, Kowske et al. suggested investigation of additional variables of interest such as turnover intentions, learning styles, and personality.

A major business challenge facing organizations today is the attraction and retention of millennial employees (Campion, 2015; Johnson & Ng, 2016). This challenge is exacerbated by the impending retirement of the Baby Boomer generational cohort (Van Bavel & Reher, 2013). Many organizations have adjusted incentive plans, redesigned work-place policies, and implemented new organizational practices to accommodate millennial workers (Campion, 2015; Smith & Nichols, 2015). Despite the adjustments, millennials are more likely to express turnover intentions, exhibit withdrawal behaviors, and leave organizations (Smith & Nichols, 2015). To understand

millennials' work ethic and attitudes, it is imperative to understand their work values and attitudes (Campion, 2015). Millennials place more value on family life and leisure than work life and organizational goals since they desire freedom, flexibility, and balance. Campione posited that when millennial employees perceive negative and unfair aspects of the job and work environment, they consider leaving organizations.

The millennial generation took a prominent position in the workforce in 2016. Thus, a new area of research emerged (Kranenberg, 2014). Very few empirical studies have added to the understanding of why millennials are voluntarily leaving organizations (Johnson & Ng, 2016). According to Tulgan (2016), millennial employees seek a life and career that is more balanced than previous generations. Millennials accept that job security and the notion of retirement after working for one company are highly unlikely (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Their jobs are less important than their families, where they live, their personal activities, and their proximity to friends and family (Campion, 2015). Millennial employees' desires present a real challenge to employers (Great Expectations, 2016). Millennials place more focus on life outside of the job when compared to other generations (Pyöriä et al., 2017; Smith & Nichols, 2015). However, while on the job, their focus is placed on QWL. In other words, they desire work that is meaningful, a caring employer who desires to build an interpersonal relationship, and a flexible work environment with fewer rules and regulations (Smith & Nichols, 2015). When the desires of millennial employees are unfulfilled, they become more mobile and turnover intentions occur (Ertas, 2015).

Millennial employees make a significant contribution to the organizations and the U.S. economy. Therefore, it is important to empirically show whether the dimensions of

QWL affect turnover intention which is a predictor of turnover. A call for additional studies on turnover intention has never been more important than when it involves millennial employees, especially since they comprise more than one-third of the U.S. workforce (Ertas, 2015; Kowske et al., 2010; Fry, 2018). Most important, reducing turnover intention of millennials may reduce costs of turnover incurred by U.S. organizations.

Ertas (2015) compared millennial employees working at U.S. federal service agencies to other generations of workers by assessing turnover intentions and work motivations. Results showed millennials were more likely to report intentions to leave their jobs than older generations. Millennial employees expressed higher degrees of supervisor support regarding WLB, which led to lower turnover intention. Consistent with Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory, Ertas' (2015) study demonstrated workers were motivated when their needs were fulfilled. Hence, motivation is a vital component to worker efficiency and performance. Dealing with the needs and expectations of the younger, rapidly changing workforce requires alternative management strategies to promote and sustain satisfied and productive workers (Ertas, 2015; Smith & Nichols, 2015).

Millennial workers are often achievement focused and yearn to excel beyond expectations of management (Smith & Nichols, 2015). Generational differences, diverse WLB requirements, varying perceptions of work ethics, and different definitions of QWL have created conflict and distrust with other cohorts in the workplace (Chuang & Wang, 2018; Cugin, 2012). Baby Boomers have complained that millennials are difficult to interact with, are entitled, and are overly service-focused (Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg,

2010). It is important that organizations recognize the differences between generations and implement strategies to accommodate all employees.

Quality of Work Life

The development of QWL commenced in the late 1960s (Rose et al., 2006). However, the term QWL was introduced and initial conceptual categories was proposed in the early 1970s (Sundaray, Sahoo, & Tripathy, 2013; (Walton, 1975). During that time, QWL focused on the quality of relationships between employees and the working environment and highlighted the human dimensions of work (Tabassum, 2012). QWL has been defined as an employees' perception of his or her job, especially satisfaction regarding the employee's needs and mental health (Sajjad & Abbasi, 2014). QWL received more attention when General Motors initiated the first QWL program that allowed employees to play an active role in work reform (Bagtasos, 2011; Sundaray et al., 2013). A renewed concern for QWL has occurred in the last two decades due to increasing demands of business environments, family structures, job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention (Bagtasos, 2011; Huang et al., 2007; Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998; Wan & Chan, 2013).

QWL was defined as “the favorable circumstances of a workplace that endorse employee satisfaction by assuring proper rewards, job security, and growth opportunity” (May, Lau, & Johnson, 1999, p. 458). Huang et al. (2007) posited that QWL is the favorable conditions and environments of the workplace that address the total welfare and well-being of employees. Conversely, it has been argued that QWL is determined by the strengths and weaknesses within the environment (Lewis, Brazil, Krueger, Lohfeld, & Tjam, 2001).

QWL is a subjective multi-faceted concept and a multi-dimensional construct that has been described as an employees' capacity to align job characteristics with his or her interests, needs, and desires within an organization (Bagtasos, 2011; Shan, Imran, Lewis, & Zhai, 2017). QWL results from individual's comparison of one's desires, hopes, and expectations with what one perceives as reality (Argentero, Miglioretti, & Angilletta 2007; Nayak & Sahoo, 2015). The literature suggests that QWL is a key component in determining an employee's health, well-being, and satisfaction with the workplace, commitment to the organization, and employee turnover intentions (Kamel, 2013; Mosadeghrad, 2013; Rostiana, 2017; Shan et al., 2017; Sharma & Jyoti, 2013; Surlenty et al., 2014; Yusoff, 2015).

There is no definitive definition for QWL. Many researchers have considered varying dimensions for the QWL construct (Elizur, 1990; Huang et al., 2007; Martel & Dupuis, 2006; Swamy et al., 2015; Walton, 1975). The key dimensions vary across countries as well (Daud, 2010; Sajjid & Abbasi, 2014; Swamy, Nanjundeswaraswamy, & Rashmi, 2015). For example, Straw and Hecksher (1984) stated that QWL dimensions include job security, better rewards systems, higher pay, and opportunity for growth. Rubel and Kee (2014) identified higher pay, increased organizational productivity, and participation as QWL dimensions.

Initially, eight aspects of QWL, including adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy environment, development of human capacities, growth and security, social integration, constitutionalism, total life space, and social relevance were proposed (Daud, 2010; Sajjid & Abbasi, 2014; Walton, 1975). Later, Elizer (1990) defined the dimensions of QWL as autonomy, accomplishment, better working conditions, challenge and

personal responsibility, equitable compensation, and participation in decision making. Martel and Dupuis (2006) developed four dimensions of QWL: WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits, which were WLB and supervisory behavior have been characterized as human and social aspects, while job characteristics, compensation, and benefits have been regarded as organizational facets (Rubel & Kee, 2014). Chen and Farh (2000) originally proposed this QWL construct, which was validated by Huang et al. (2007). These variables correspond to Surienty et al.'s (2014) definition that suggested that QWL is where organizational, human, and social interactions occur. Therefore, this construct and variables were deemed appropriate for this study.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a cognitive and affective reaction towards specific aspects of the job or the job itself (Kim & Back, 2012; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1992; Williams & Podsakoff, 1989). Job satisfaction is specifically related to an employee's attitude toward his or her job (Chen, 2006; Grunberg, 1979). Job satisfaction level is determined by the nature of the job, and by the expectation individuals have of what the job must provide (Lu et al., 2005).

Hoppock (1935) defined job satisfaction as "any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes an employee to be satisfied with his/her jobs" (p. 47). Spector (1997) posited it is the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs. Spector considered job satisfaction as a collection of emotional mindsets regarding employees' perceptions of their job and work environment. An implication of this definition is employees will experience higher levels of job

satisfaction if their values, ideas, and capabilities are used in their daily work activities (Chiu, 2011). The organization will then offer advancements, training and development opportunities, and rewards to the employee.

Job satisfaction has been an important research area because of its significance to individual performance and organizational outcomes and has been discussed in literature since the 1930s. The first intensive meta-analysis of the job satisfaction construct was conducted in the mid-1930s (Hoppock, 1935). Intrinsic needs used in determining worker job satisfaction were demonstrated. This approach resulted in the development of theories explaining job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Such theories include Herzberg (1959) Two-Factor Theory and Maslow (1943) Hierarchy of Needs Theory.

Many theories exist regarding employees' needs, motivational aspects, and satisfaction. Herzberg's (1959) theory is one of the most renowned. It has provided a strong basis for organizational leaders to understand human behavior (Robbins, 1997). Motivating employees and enhancing job satisfaction focuses on the motivator needs (Herzberg, 1966; Spector, 2007). Herzberg's (1959) theory is one of the underpinning frameworks for this study because it significantly effects changes in management thinking and the development or enhancement of organizational strategies (Spector, 1997).

Quality of Work Life and Job Satisfaction

Employees' needs and desires are satisfied when they perceive organizations meet or exceed their expectations. Sharma and Jyoti (2013) revealed employee job satisfaction occurs as a result of high levels of QWL. Since QWL accelerates the creation of a motivated and committed workforce, researchers and organizational leaders continue to

focus on initiatives which promote employees' achieving enhanced job satisfaction, higher performance levels, and reductions in turnover (Gayathiri & Ramakrishnan, 2013).

A positive relationship exists between QWL and job satisfaction among academic professionals. Tabassum (2012) confirmed all aspects of QWL had a positive relationship with job satisfaction among university faculty members. Kermansaravi, Navidian, Rigi, and Yaghoubinia's (2015) study indicated similar results. A positive and significant relationship existed between QWL and job satisfaction, which indicated that better QWL was associated with more job satisfaction among faculty members.

The results of these studies corroborated Mirkamali and Thani's (2011) findings that supported the motivation-hygiene theory. Organizational leaders can strengthen aspects of QWL by (a) creating more opportunities for employee success and safety, (b) promoting balances between work life and employee leisure time, family life, and education, and (c) reducing job stress (Kermansaravi et al., 2015). To prevent dissatisfaction (or hygiene factors) among university faculty members, Mirkamali and Thani (2011) suggested providing adequate work conditions to motivate employees and embracing an organizational climate that fosters collaborations within all levels of the organizational structure.

The relationship between employee's perceptions of quality of work life and job satisfaction among construction workers was examined by Shan et al. (2017). The five latent factors of QWL (fair reward system, safety priority and organizational effectiveness, physical and mental health, resource adequacy, and job tenure) correlated with job satisfaction and were related to Herzberg's (1959) motivator factors. Shan et al. (2017) suggested organizations need to design rewards systems based on their

employees' preferences and modify them to reflect preferred changes over time. Employees can be motivated to perform well when organizations deploy comprehensive safety programs, provide adequate resources, and promote productive work environments. To minimize physical and mental health issues, organizations should evaluate job designs and demands to ensure expectations are aligned with the skills of the employees. Shan et al. also encouraged organizations to look at work life and growth opportunities to enhance job satisfaction.

Improvements in QWL to increase employee satisfaction can result in advantages for all stakeholders (Swamy et al., 2015). Previous studies reported a positive relationship between employees' perceived QWL and their job satisfaction (Kang, Busser, & Choi, 2018; Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, & Lee, 2001). For example, WLB regarding job satisfaction was investigated among 1416 employees across seven distinct cultures. SEM analysis showed WLB was positively associated with job satisfaction (Haar, Russo, Sune, & Malaterre, 2014). Ozturk, Hancer, and Im (2014) evaluated 252 Turkish employees in the hotel industry where job characteristics had a positive impact on job satisfaction. Mathieu et al. (2015) found supervisory behavior was positively related to job satisfaction among 763 employees from different types of small, medium, and large-sized organizations. Rubel and Kee (2014) evaluated operators in a Bangladesh garment manufacturing organization. Compensation and benefits had a positive and significant effect on job satisfaction. The findings verified the prediction of Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory. Herzberg argued that when hygiene factors such as quality of supervision, pay, and working environment were enhanced, job

dissatisfaction was minimized. Based on the literature and findings, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees in the U.S.

H1a: WLB has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1b: Job characteristics have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1c: Supervisory behavior has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1d: Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is a potential outcome that may result from numerous factors that employees may expect in return for their individual contributions to the organization (Rubel & Kee, 2014). Based on the literature and findings of the aforesaid studies, the QWL construct was appropriate to use as a predictor of employee job satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is another construct that has been studied extensively for more than 40 years (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Kessler, 2013; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Panaccio, 2017). Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) began examining the construct in the 1970s because the problem of employee turnover continually plagued organizations. Porter et al. performed a longitudinal study that focused on the attitudinal construct of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The intent was to study the antecedents and outcomes of commitment. For antecedents, the influences of personal and organizational factors on the construct have been proposed

and examined (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982). Regarding outcomes, the influence of commitment on turnover intention, employee performance, and burnout have been investigated (Chieh Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Susanty & Miradipta, 2015; Tnay et al., 2013).

The construct of organizational commitment has evolved from a unidimensional to a multi-dimensional structure (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1974). Mowday et al. (1974) conceptualized organizational commitment with an affective foundation, meaning it was based on the employee's identification with and involvement in the organization. During the 1990s, organizational commitment continued to be a major focus of research (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Allen and Meyer (1990) indicated that commitment is a belief about one's responsibility to the organization where commitment has both affective and cognitive elements. The affective element comprises feelings invoked by a specific mindset (Meyer, Becker, & Van Dick, 2006). The cognitive elements are the behavioral terms and the basis of the commitment (Jaros, 2007). Hence, Meyer and Allen (1991) developed the multi-dimensional Three Component Model of organizational commitment, which consisted of affirmative, continuance, and normative commitments.

Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment are viewed as unique attitudinal components of commitment (Mercurio, 2015). They interact to influence behavior, and employees can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees (Adam & Fayolle, 2015; Allen & Meyer, 1990). These components describe the different aspects of employee organizational commitment development and the resulting implications of their behavior (Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015).

Affective commitment refers to the employee's desire to continue working for the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Continuance commitment refers to the employee's perception of costs related to turnover. Finally, normative commitment refers to the employee's perceived obligation to remain in the organization.

Affective Commitment

Employees who are affectively committed to an organization continue working voluntarily and vigorously for the organization because they want to do so (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). These employees feel their views are aligned with the organization's goals, interests, and values (Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015). Therefore, the interaction between the employee and organization is positive. Employee perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction, along with positive work experiences and supervisor support influence affective commitment (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). Unlike continuance commitment, affective commitment is an emotional bond, not calculative (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993).

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is calculative in nature due to the individual's "awareness of the cost associated with leaving the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 11). Continuance commitment is a structural phenomenon that occurs as a result of exchanges between employees and organizations (Yang, 2008). Meyer and Allen (1991) stated that "employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so" (p. 67). Employees with a high continuance commitment may find it hard to leave the organization because few alternative employment opportunities external to the organization are available (Nagar,

2012). Furthermore, they fear loss of investments acquired throughout their employment tenure.

Normative Commitment

Not as common but equally viable is the belief that commitment is viewed as an employees' obligation to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 61). Bearing similarities to affective commitment, normative commitment is sometimes dismissed as a redundant construct that fails to explain work behaviors (Bergman, 2006; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Whether normative commitment is experienced by the employee as a moral duty or a sense of indebtedness, there are different implications for attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Jaros, 2017; Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010). Employees who are normatively committed to the organization remain because they feel a sense of obligation to continue employment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Under this approach, employees stay because it is proper and morally correct. (Wiener, 1982). They feel a sense of guilt about the possibility of leaving. Levels of and reasons for such guilt vary, as employees feel leaving would subsequently increase the pressure on their colleagues and create a void in knowledge for the organization.

Quality of Work Life and Organizational Commitment

Studies have shown that organizational commitment can be influenced by individual dimensions of QWL (Ahsan et al., 2009; Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Rostiana, 2017; Huang et al., 2007; Yusoff et al., 2015). Huang et al. (2007) examined the relationships among the dimensions of QWL, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions among auditors. The most important study outcome was that the dimensions of QWL resulted in several human resource outcomes. While the job characteristics and

compensation and benefits promoted the development of employee professionalism, WLB and supervisory behavior enhanced organizational commitment. Huang et al.'s (2007) study supported Griffeth et al.'s (2000) study, which suggested organizational commitment was a strong predictor of turnover intention. Such findings are consistent with Becker's (1960) side-bet theory that employees are less likely to leave when they feel the cost of leaving the organization is greater than the cost of remaining.

The psychological process through which organizational commitment is developed was examined by Wong, Wong, and Ngo (2002). Personal values, emotional intelligence, and trust were regarded as important factors in determining organizational commitment. More recently, dimensions of QWL have been linked to organizational commitment (Farid, Izadi, Ismail, & Alipour, 2014; Farjad & Varnous, 2013; Yusoff et al., 2015).

Both employees and managers within organizations have expectations of each other, subsequently forming psychological bonds and commitments. Forms of commitment vary, including collaborative team, labor union, direct or functional supervisor, and profession (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Roodt, 1997). Components of organizational commitment have also correlated with job characteristics, WLB, and compensation (Kamel, 2013; Surlenty et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013). Subsequently, these factors influence the effect QWL has on organizational commitment (Smith & Nichols, 2015).

For organizations to adapt to the intense market competition and rapid changes in technology, commitment is required of their employees. Organizations with employees of stronger commitment are more successful, and experience lower levels of absenteeism

(Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015). However, few studies have analyzed the impact of QWL on organizational commitment. Additionally, it is rare to find studies that have examined the direct effect of QWL on organizational commitment for U.S. workers in the millennial cohort.

When the relationships among QWL, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of employees working in manufacturing firms in Malaysia were examined, some dimensions of QWL (e.g., opportunity for growth, relevance of work life, and social integration) were found to be positively related to all three components of organizational commitment (Yusoff et al., 2015). However, compensation was the only dimension of QWL positively related to normative commitment. Perhaps employees felt obligated to remain because of favorable compensation packages. To improve organizational commitment, Yusoff et al. suggested organizations concentrate on the individual dimensions of QWL, (e.g., employee growth opportunities and social integration) if a highly committed workforce is desired. It is presumable employees will have more commitment and fewer turnover intentions if side bets are created due to QWL dimensions.

Sivalogathan and Edirisinghe (2015) investigated the impact of QWL on organizational commitment of machine operators at an apparel company in Sri Lanka. Findings showed that most employees exhibited satisfactory levels of QWL and organizational commitment, and QWL and organizational commitment had a directly proportionate relationship. Results supported research performed by Asgari and Dadashi (2011) and Farjad and Varnous (2013), which suggested a significant and positive relationship between QWL and organizational commitment. Further examination of

commitment components showed affective commitment predicted QWL more than continuance and normative commitment (Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015). This outcome was consistent with findings from Kamel's (2013) study in which higher levels of QWL resulted in stronger affective commitment or emotional attachment of employees to the organizations. However, the results were contradictory to Becker's (1960) side-bet theory in which the side-bet categories correlated with continuance commitment component, not affective commitment.

Sajjad and Abbasi (2014) investigated the relationship of QWL with organizational commitment among Guilan Province customs office employees in Iran. Results showed a significant and positive relationship between QWL and organizational commitment. A higher QWL resulted in higher organizational commitment of the customs employees of Guilan Province. This result was consistent with Daud's (2010) study, which provided insights on how Malaysian firms could improve upon their employees' commitment.

Side bets are based on many factors including but not limited to the dimensions of QWL. Prior studies and Becker's (1960) side-bet theory provided support for the present research. Becker postulated that when employees made investments, or side bets, organizational commitment levels increased. Farid et al. (2014) studied the relationship between QWL and organizational commitment among lecturers at a public university in Malaysia. Results demonstrated a highly significant correlation between the two variables. Zhao et al.'s (2013) study of nurses in China also confirmed a positive relationship between QWL and the affective commitment component of organizational commitment. Azeem and Akhtar (2014) examined the effects of perceived WLB on

organizational commitment of 275 healthcare employees. Perception of WLB was positively and significantly related to organizational commitment. Fifty-four percent of the commitment among the respondents was influenced by their perceptions of WLB.

Sajjid and Abbasi (2014) evaluated the relationship between QWL and organizational commitment among customs employees of Iran. The results showed a positive and meaningful relationship between compensation and benefits and organizational commitment. The following year, researchers investigated the relationships between job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and organizational commitment of 250 academic employees in Malaysia (Daud, Yaahob, & Ghazali, 2015). Results showed that job characteristics and supervisory behavior had strong and positive effects on organizational commitment. Such literature led to the following hypotheses:

H2: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H2a: WLB has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.

H2b: Job characteristics has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.

H2c: Supervisory behavior has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.

H2d: Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.

Past research on commitment often placed a focus on the affective commitment component. Therefore, future research needs to evaluate all components of commitment for organizations to determine appropriate interventions required to enhance employees'

QWL (Rostiana, 2017). For this reason, this study evaluated the three components of commitment – affective, continuance, and normative.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is the turnover variable most widely utilized in research to predict actual voluntary turnover (Hayes et al., 2006; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). The definition of turnover intention varies slightly among researchers; however, the overall intent of the definition is consistent. Turnover intention is the degree to which an employee plans to leave the organization (Lacity, Iyer, & Rudramuniyaiah, 2008). This definition coincides with Harhara, Singh, and Hussain's (2015) explanation of turnover intention. It is quite ambiguous but definitely reflects the employees' perception towards the organization (Ngo-Henha, 2017). Ultimately, turnover intention can simply be explained as the mediating factor between attitudes affecting intentions to quit and leaving the organization (Yücel, 2012).

Quality of Work Life and Turnover Intention

QWL and its relation to turnover is gaining more attention, particularly for millennial workers in the U.S. (Campion, 2015). Research has shown that employees' perceptions of dimensions of QWL can significantly influence job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and voluntary turnover (Campion, 2015; Mosadeghrad, 2013). Griffin and Moorhead (2012) indicated turnover intention was mainly determined by job satisfaction, commitment, and work-related attitudes. Numerous scholars identified conditions related to salary, an aging workforce or retirement, dissatisfaction with the job itself or characteristics of the job, and enhanced

external opportunities (Abu Jadayil, 2011; Aladwan et al., 2013; Dickey, Watson, & Zangelidis, 2011; Ghosh et al., 2015).

More recent literature has corroborated that QWL has been negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Kang, Busser, & Choi, 2018; Mosadeghrad, 2013; Swamy et al., 2015; Yusoff et al., 2015). Employees who experienced poor quality of work had increased levels of turnover intentions. Such results supported Sharma and Jyoti (2013) findings that indicated QWL was positively correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Additionally, QWL, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were negatively correlated with turnover intention. Therefore, perceptions of good QWL minimized employees' desires to leave companies.

Kamel (2013) showed employee motivation and performance declined when QWL was low, especially during the early stages of an employee's career. Results of a study that examined the relationship between QWL and job satisfaction of construction employees supported this finding (Shan et al., 2017). Perceptions of QWL had a significant and positive effect on job satisfaction of these employees. Given the inconsistent results related to the limited QWL empirical data, further research was recommended (Rostiana, 2017). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationships between QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among millennial workers.

Another study examined the dimensions of QWL on turnover intentions of accounting professions in Malaysia. Results indicated supervisory behavior, WLB, and job characteristics had a strong influence on turnover intention. WLB and job characteristics were observed as the most important and significant QWL factors to

turnover intention (Surienty et al., 2014). However, the compensation and benefits variable was not found to be significantly related to turnover intention. Such results support prior studies that have indicated organizations may gain leverage by offering better QWL options to their employees (Huang et al., 2007; Jabeen, Friesen, & Ghoudi, 2018; Kumar & Singh, 2012).

To better understand factors associated with turnover intention of teachers in higher education institutions in North India, Sharma and Jyoti (2013) took a broader view of QWL by considering all job-related factors, including WLB, pay and promotion, social relationships, working conditions, and exchange of information. Their results revealed QWL was directly and positively related to job satisfaction and job commitment but inversely related to turnover intention among university teachers. As teachers experienced satisfactory levels of QWL, turnover intention was lowered. Therefore, it was expected they had a greater sense of loyalty to the organization.

The relationships among the dimensions of QWL, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of employees working at a manufacturing firm in Malaysia were investigated. Findings suggested fair compensation, social integration in the work organization, and work and total life space had a significant and negative correlation with turnover intentions (Yusoff et al., 2015). Other dimensions of quality of work life such as safe and healthy work conditions, immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, and social relevance of work life did not impact turnover intention.

QWL benefits both the employee and the organization. It affords employees a healthy lifestyle and motivation to perform well, and the organization experiences lower turnover rates (Mosadeghrad, 2013). Additionally, focusing on QWL may provide an

opportunity for organizations to capitalize on sustainable efficiency, enhanced productivity, and improved profits. Mosadeghrad (2013) empirically examined relationships between Iranian hospital employees' QWL and their turnover intentions. Results confirmed improvements in QWL lead to increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover. Mosadeghrad also concluded that demographic variables influenced QWL. For example, significant relationships existed between employees' age, tenure, marital status, and type of employment. Moreover, employees with lower educational levels were more likely to leave because of less satisfaction with pay. These results supported Herzberg's (1959) theory because they suggested compensation was a hygiene factor.

Zhao et al. (2013) examined the effects of QWL on turnover intention among nurses in China and confirmed employees' perceptions of high QWL enhanced job embeddedness and affective commitment. As a result, nurses' loyalty to the organization increased and turnover intention decreased. These results confirmed the negative relationship between QWL and turnover intention previously reported by Conklin (2008) and Zhao et al. (2013). QWL is an important psychological reference for nurses as they consider leaving an organization. When nurses perceived low levels of QWL, they formulated the idea of leaving and began evaluating other options of employment (Zhao et al., 2013). Therefore, organizations should strive to endorse healthy work lives, which is critical for reducing turnover intention (Almalki et al., 2012).

Existing literature indicated the four factors of QWL (WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits) are significant predictors of the outcomes of turnover intentions (Celik & Oz, 2011; Huang et al., 2007). Surlenty et al.'s (2014) study of accounting professionals in Malaysia indicated WLB and supervisory

behavior had significant and negative relationships with turnover intention. Additionally, Zhao et al.'s (2013) study of nurses in China confirmed a negative relationship between QWL and turnover intention. When employees had high perceptions of the dimensions of QWL, turnover intention was reduced (Huang et al., 2007; Surlenty et al., 2014). Such findings gave rise to the following hypotheses:

H3: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H3a: WLB has a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.

H3b: Job characteristics have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.

H3c: Supervisory behavior has a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.

H3d: Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on turnover intention.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction is beneficial for organizations because it is generally associated with favorable work attitudes such as high organizational commitment (Chieh Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Kowske et al., 2010). Numerous studies have investigated the determining factors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lee et al., 2015; Leite et al., 2014). The meta-analyses by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer et al. (2002) demonstrated a positive relationship between the two variables. When employees experienced high levels of job satisfaction, their commitment levels were enhanced as well. Thus, it is hypothesized:

H4: Job Satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennials working in the U.S.

Employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively correlated with turnover, while turnover intention is a predictor of turnover (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017; Ghosh et al., 2015; Griffeth et al., 2000; Leite, Rodrigues, & Albuquerque, 2014; Tarigan & Ariani, 2015). Job satisfaction can also be influenced by job characteristics, QWL, rewards and compensation (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Leite et al., 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Swamy et al., 2015). Identification of reasons for lack of employee job satisfaction can help organizational leaders minimize intentions to quit (Mathis & Jackson, 2010). Moreover, organizational leaders can correct conditions that trigger thoughts of turnover so voluntary turnover rates are addressed (Purba et al., 2016).

Quality of Work Life on Turnover Intention Through Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

A high QWL can make an employee happier and more committed (Wan & Chan, 2013). Organizations that value QWL are more likely to create an environment resulting in higher levels of employee job satisfaction, heightened commitment, and reduced turnover intentions (Shan et al., 2017). Mosadeghrad (2013) examined the relationship between QWL and turnover intention among hospital employees. Results suggested that management could potentially improve employee QWL levels by enhancing employees' satisfaction via policies and procedures, work conditions, and benefits and rewards. An inverse relationship was found between employees' QWL and their turnover intention. Mosadeghrad (2013) stated that improving employees' QWL resulted in increased job

satisfaction and reduced turnover intention. When factors attributing to high levels of job satisfaction were increased, turnover intention was decreased (Herzberg, 1959; Yücel, 2012). Therefore, the following hypotheses were examined:

H5: Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H5a: WLB has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction.

H5b: Job characteristics have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction.

H5c: Supervisory behavior has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction.

H5d: Compensation and benefits have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction.

Prior studies have shown a negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention (Emadzadeh, Khorasani & Nematizadeh, 2012; Omar, Anuar, Majid, & Johari, 2012). Farjad and Varnous (2013) reported a positive correlation between QWL and organizational commitment. According to Kamel (2013), affective commitment fully mediates the relationship between QWL and turnover intention. Therefore, it can be concluded that organizational commitment is a variable that could have intervening effects on the relationship between QWL and turnover intention. When employees' perceptions of WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits are enhanced, organizational commitment was

strengthened, and turnover intention was reduced (Yücel, 2012). Thus, the following hypotheses were examined:

H6: Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H6a: WLB has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6b: Job characteristics have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6c: Supervisory behavior has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6d: Compensation and benefits have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

Despite existing empirical research, there is a research gap in the literature regarding factors that influence turnover intention of millennial employees in the U.S. Most literature available that pertains to millennials in the workplace comes from trade magazines, practitioner articles, and opinion sources (Smith & Nichols, 2015). While these articles have merit, the information is not validated with empirical evidence. As a result, more empirical research needs to be conducted. To fill the gap in the literature regarding factors that stimulate turnover intentions of the millennial workforce in the U.S., the current study served as a response to the request for additional research (Abate et al., 2018; Smith & Nichols, 2015). Additionally, there is a need to further understand the relationships among dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, and turnover intention of millennials as enhanced knowledge benefits all stakeholders.

Some companies have responded to employee needs by offering QWL programs that strengthen job satisfaction and organizational commitment and equip organizational leaders to better manage their employees. However, voluntary turnover of millennials remains a challenge for U.S. organizations. Organizational leaders can combat this challenge by enhancing their knowledge related to the specific QWL factors that influence turnover intentions. With knowledge enhancements, organizational leaders and managers can strategically and proactively address the needs of this generational cohort. Such planned interventions may reduce costs to the organization.

The conceptual model showing the hypothesized relationships between the variables of this study are presented in Figure 2. There are 23 indicators associated with all the variables. All variables were comprised of three indicators, except job satisfaction. The job satisfaction variable consisted of five indicators.

Rationale for Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

This study examined the effect of the dimensions of QWL on employees' turnover intentions with indirect influences of job satisfaction and organizational commitment for the millennials in the United States. The rationale that supported the hypotheses is explained in the above sections. Finally, the hypothesized relationships are presented in the conceptual model.

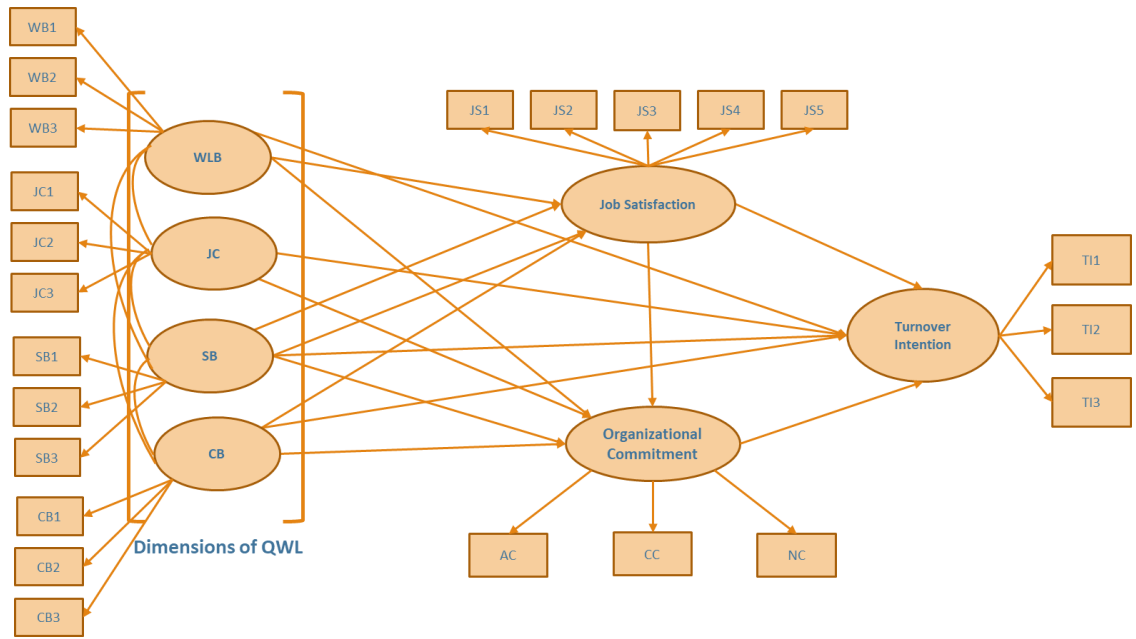


Figure 2. Conceptual model tested.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Two main theories underpinned this study. The first theory is Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory, commonly referred to as Herzberg's two-factor theory. Herzberg et al. (1959) examined themes of stories provided by accountants and engineers who were asked to describe job-related incidents accounting for instances when they felt good and bad. As cited in Sachau (2007), five common factors for job satisfaction were recognized by Herzberg et al. (1959): (a) achievement, (b) recognition, (c) interesting work, (d) responsibility, and (e) advancement and learning. In the meantime, Herzberg et al. identified seven common factors for job dissatisfaction, which were (a) unfair company policies, (b) incompetent or unfair supervisor, (c) bad interpersonal relationships, (d) unpleasant working conditions, (e) unfair salary, (f) threats to status, and (g) job insecurity. Themes of satisfying incidents were called motivator factors, and dissatisfying incidents were called hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 1959; Sachau, 2007).

Herzberg et al. (1959) evaluated ways in which job satisfaction, or motivator factors, were different from job dissatisfaction, or hygiene factors. Results demonstrated motivator factors were mainly due to job content, correlating with factors that made employees happy through achievement, recognition, and growth (Herzberg, 1974). Hygiene factors were due to job context and mainly correlated with factors directly controlled by organizations. Such factors included company policies, working conditions, and employee salary. Motivator factors were considered additive, and motivator needs did not escalate (Sachau, 2007). On the other hand, hygiene factors were not additive, and hygiene needs did escalate. Herzberg (1959) contended the most significant difference between motivator factors and hygiene factors was that motivator factors comprised psychological growth and hygiene factors sought to evade physical and emotional pain.

Due to its conceptual and methodological concerns, Herzberg's two-factor theory is one of the most debated theories (Pinder, 1998; Sachau, 2007). Critics argued Herzberg relied too heavily on his impartial research method to support the theory (Sachau, 2007). Others suggested Herzberg was inconsistent in the terminology used. Therefore, it was difficult to adequately test the theory (King, 1970). Sachau (2007) re-evaluated the motivation-hygiene theory and clarified long-standing misinterpretations of the theory. Herzberg's theory and modern-day research on happiness, intrinsic motivations, and materialism were examined. Findings suggested Herzberg initially proposed a generalized concept that might be better theorized satisfaction as a worldview. Therefore, the theory is best recognized as an underlying concept or system for "understanding the dual nature of satisfaction/dissatisfaction, happiness/unhappiness,

intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, mastery/status, and psychological growth/psychological pain avoidance” (Sachau, 2007, p. 389). The model confirms factors leading to an individual’s long-term happiness are the same as the ones leading to psychological growth and development.

Becker’s (1960) side-bet theory also underpinned the study. It is a significant theory in behavioral and social sciences. Generally, the side-bet theory is incorporated into Meyer and Allen’s (1991, 1997) three-component model of organizational commitment. Commitments are developed when an employee makes a psychological side bet and links extraneous interests with a steady line of activity (Becker, 1960). Relative to organizational commitment, making side bets increases the cost of leaving the organization. Side bets can take on various forms and fall into five broad categories: (a) generalized cultural expectations; (b) impersonal bureaucratic arrangements; (c) individual adjustments to social positions; (d) self-presentation concerns; and (e) non-work concerns (Powell & Meyer, 2004).

Due to generalized cultural expectations, the actions and decisions of an employee are sometimes constrained when side bets are made. They may take the form of generalized cultural expectations, which are defined as the expectations of others regarding what is considered responsible and acceptable behavior (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Violations of the expectations can result in actual or perceived penalties (Becker, 1960). For example, if an individual changes jobs frequently, he can be characterized as unreliable and dishonest.

Side bets are not always self-inflicted but may be imposed on an employee based on the nature of the organizational rules. An example is an organization that implements

a policy offering pension packages and restricted stock options to long-term employees. These rules fall into a category of side bets known as impersonal bureaucratic arrangements (Becker 1960; Powell & Meyer, 2004). In this case, the employee would consider the loss of the financial side bet, the pension or stocks, before considering leaving the organization.

Individual adjustments to social positions generate side bets and have been known to cause side bets (Becker, 1960). This category refers to adaptive efforts made by an individual for a particular situation. However, the adaptations make the individual less fit for other situations (Powell & Meyer, 2004). For example, an employee's investments of resources to obtain organization-specific skills that are not beneficial outside of the current organization are considered individual adjustments to social positions.

Some side bets are generated through self-presentation concerns or face-to-face interactions with others. Concerns arise when an employee makes a conscious effort to present a public image that requires consistently behaving in a specific fashion and refuses to allow others to see him or her in a different light out of fear that he or she would be perceived as dishonest (Becker, 1960). For example, an executive leader may refuse to attend after-hour parties with direct reports because he or she prefers to save face and feels the need to continue preserving his or her image. The final broad category of side bets is non-work concerns, referring to side bets made external to the organization (Powell & Meyer, 2004). When an employee actively participates in company sponsored events that perform outreach services within the local community, participation must cease if the employee leaves the organization. Becker (1960) argued that employee

commitment increases when side bets are combined because they are capable of compounding.

The side-bet theory was tested within the context of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component model (TCM) of organizational commitment consisting of affective commitment (desire to remain), continuance commitment (need to remain), and normative commitment (obligated to remain). The side-bet categories correlated significantly with continuance commitment, and structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis revealed that organizational commitment fully mediated the relationship between the side-bets and turnover intention (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Findings of previous studies provided significant support for the side-bet theory and supported Becker's (1960) argument that some of the costs (financial and societal) incurred when an employee separates from organizations come from side-bets that are external to the workplace, such as family and social activities (Russo & Buonocore, 2012; Sharma & Jyoti, 2013).

Both theories used to underpin this study are appropriate for the constructs being examined: dimension of QWL (WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits); job satisfaction; organizational commitment; and turnover intention. Herzberg's (1959) motivation-hygiene theory describes how factors of job satisfaction and factors of job dissatisfaction affect turnover intentions of employees. Motivator factors are associated with job satisfaction, and hygiene factors are associated with job dissatisfaction. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory is often linked to organizational commitment. Becker suggested commitments are enhanced when employees make side bets. Hence, turnover intention decreases as the number of side bets increase.

Literature Review Summary

Literature guiding and informing the study and hypotheses are reported in Table 1, Literature Review Summary. It is arranged based on the sample population and constructs and variables in the study. Since millennial employees are the focus group, those articles are presented first. Next, articles related to the criterion construct consisting of four variables, intervening variable and construct, and outcome variable are presented, respectively.

Table 1

Literature Review Summary

Authors	Article Title	Summary of Study
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Millennial Workforce in the U.S.

Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010

Millennials' (Lack of) Attitude Problem: An Empirical Examination of Generational Effects on Work Attitudes

The study contributed to sparse empirical literature on generational differences at work. Findings showed millennials reported higher levels of job satisfaction but similar levels of turnover intention when compared to other generational cohorts.

Campione, 2015

Corporate Offerings: Why Aren't Millennials Staying

This study combined research findings on millennials' work attitudes, values, and personal traits. Findings revealed moderate and positive effects of pay and benefits, coworker support as well as highly significant negative effects of long work hours and irregular schedules.

(continued)

Table 1. *Literature Review Summary* (continued)

Authors	Article Title	Summary of Study
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Ertas, 2015	Turnover Intentions and Work Motivators of Millennial Employees in Federal Service	The study compared millennial workers to generations in older cohorts who worked in U.S. federal agencies. Results showed millennials are more likely to report turnover intentions and leave organizations than other cohorts.
Smith & Nichols, 2015	Understanding the Millennial Generation	The article reviewed existing literature on the millennial generation and their workplace.
Johnson & Ng, 2016	Money Talks or Millennials Walk: The Effect on Nonprofit Millennial Workers Sector Switching Intentions	The study analyzed data from millennials employed by nonprofit organizations. It examined the relationship between pay and sector-switching intentions. Results suggested the nonprofit sector may be facing challenges in attracting and retaining millennial managers because of low pay.
Bagtasos, 2011	Quality of Work Life Quality of Work Life: A Review of Literature	
Sundaray, Sahoo, & Tripathy, 2013	Impact of Human Resource Interventions on QWL: An Exploration	The study provides an overview of the literature related to QWL.
Swamy, Nanjundeswaraswamy, & Rashmi, 2015	Quality of Work Life: Scale Development and Validation	The study reviews the meaning of QWL, focuses on the factors influencing QWL, and suggests HR interventions that need to be practiced effectively to improve QWL of employees.
		The study develops a QWL scale for employees working in mechanical manufacturing firms in India.

Table 1. *Literature Review Summary* (continued)

Authors	Article Title	Summary of Study
Quality of Work Life & Turnover Intention		
Mosadeghrad, 2013	Quality of Working Life: An Antecedent to Employee Turnover Intention	The study aimed to identify factors critical to QWL of employees at a hospital in Iran. An inverse relationship was found between QWL and turnover intention.
Surienty, Ramayah, Lo, & Tarmizi, 2014	Quality of Work Life and Turnover Intention: A Partial Least Square (PLS) Approach	The study modeled the relationship between QWL factors and turnover intention among accounting professionals in Malaysia. Results indicated job characteristics, WLB, and supervisory behavior were negatively related to turnover intention.
Quality of Work Life & Job Satisfaction		
Kermansaravi, Navidian, Rigi, & Yaghoubinia, 2015	The Relationship Between Quality of Work Life and Job Satisfaction of Faculty Members in Zahedan University of Medical Sciences	The study examined the relationship between QWL and job satisfaction of university faculty members. Findings suggested a significant and positive relationship between QWL and job satisfaction.
Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015	Improve Your Work Life: The Impact of Quality of Work Life on Organizational Commitment of Selected Apparel Company	The empirical survey investigated the impact of QWL on organizational commitment of machine operators at an apparel company in Sri Lanka. Results indicated QWL had a direct and positive relationship on organizational commitment.

Quality of Work Life, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intention

Huang, Lawler, & Lei, 2007	The Effects of Quality of Work Life on Commitment and Turnover Intention	The study examined the impact of QWL on organizational commitment of employees in a Taiwanese public accounting firm. Findings indicated four dimensions of QWL were significant predictors of the commitment and turnover intention.
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(continued)

Table 1. *Literature Review Summary* (continued)

Authors	Article Title	Summary of Study
Yusoff, Rimi, & Meng, 2015	A Study of Quality of Work Life, Organizational Commitment and Turnover	The study examined the relationship among QWL, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of employees at a manufacturing firm in Malaysia. The findings suggested growth, security, and social relevance positively related to all components of organizational components. Compensation was the only QWL dimension that positively related to normative commitment. Dimensions of QWL were found to be negatively related to turnover intention.
Kamel, 2013	The Mediating Role of Affective Commitment in the Relationship between QWL and Intention to Leave	The study examined the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between QWL and intention to leave of University faculty in Saudi Arabia. Results indicated affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between QWL and turnover intention.

Chapter Summary

This chapter began by describing the literature search strategy. It described the millennial generation and their position in the U.S. labor force. Existing literature was then examined as it related to the dimensions of QWL (WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits) regarding job satisfaction, organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment), and turnover intention. The rationale for the hypotheses were imbedded in the review. Next, the conceptual model was presented followed by an illustration of the conceptual model. Finally, a table of literature summary was presented.

Research indicated that QWL has individual and organizational benefits (Mosadeghrad, 2013). Empirical evidence revealed that QWL was significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kamel, 2013; Shan et al., 2017; Sharma & Jyoti, 2013; Sivalogathan & Edirisinghe, 2015; Yusoff et al., 2015). Additionally, QWL was negatively correlated with turnover intention (Yusoff et al., 2015). This study addresses the need for additional empirical knowledge that provides evidence of the specific dimensions of QWL that influence job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of millennial employees. Thus, the rationale for the stated hypotheses and conceptual model are supported.

Chapter Three

Methods

This chapter presents the methods of the study. The purpose of the study and hypotheses are restated followed by a description of the research design, description of the population and sample, measurement instrumentation, and survey design. Data collection and analysis procedures, and limitations of the methods are also reported.

Research Purpose and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine which factors of QWL affect turnover intention of millennials so that voluntary turnover may be minimized, and costs of turnover incurred by organizations is reduced. The study also aimed to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed between the dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Lastly, an untested model was examined to determine if the conceptual model was relevant to millennials employees in the U.S. with the following hypotheses derived and subsequently tested:

H1: Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H1a: WLB has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1b: Job characteristics have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1c: Supervisory behavior has a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H1d: Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction.

- H2:* Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.
- H2a:* WLB has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.
- H2b:* Job characteristics have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.
- H2c:* Supervisory behavior has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.
- H2d:* Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment.
- H3:* Dimensions of QWL have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention of millennial employees working in the U.S.
- H3a:* WLB has a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.
- H3b:* Job characteristics have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.
- H3c:* Supervisory behavior has a direct and negative effect on turnover intention.
- H3d:* Compensation and benefits have a direct and positive effect on turnover intention.
- H4:* Job Satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennials working in the U.S.
- H5:* Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H5a: WLB has an indirect and negative effect on TOI through job satisfaction.

H5b: Job characteristics have an indirect and negative effect on TOI through job satisfaction.

H5c: Supervisory behavior has an indirect and negative effect on TOI through job satisfaction.

H5d: Compensation and benefits have an indirect and negative effect on TOI through job satisfaction.

H6: Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.

H6a: WLB has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6b: Job characteristics have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6c: Supervisory behavior has an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

H6d: Compensation and benefits have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment.

Research Design

This study deployed a quantitative cross-sectional survey design to examine the relationships specified in the six hypotheses. A quantitative method was appropriate because independent, dependent, and mediating variables were examined using statistical

analysis to determine if correlations existed among the variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Singleton & Straits, 2010). Cross-sectional research designs allowed data associated with the variables to be collected simultaneously (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Qualtrics®, an online survey design and hosting software, was adopted for data collection (Brandon et al., 2014).

Population and Sample

The study population consisted of male and female employees with varied educational backgrounds, working at different levels, within all functions. The employees were not limited to particular industries. Targeted participants consisted of full-time and part-time (not self-employed) millennial employees, who represent more than one-third of the U.S. labor force. The minimum age of each participant for Institutional Review Board (IRB) purposes was 18 years old. However, this study required participants to be 23 to 38-year-old millennial employees due to the generational cohort requirement.

Participants were solicited with the assistance of MTurk, a marketplace for temporary workers which requires human intelligence (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Participants were offered a financial incentive for taking the survey. Within the targeted population, the sample frame for the study was individuals who had an Amazon MTurk worker account (Fowler, 2014). Though Amazon reportedly had more than 500K registered workers from 190 different countries (Stewart et al., 2015), Difallah, Filatova, and Ipeirotis (2018) posited that Amazon's crowdsourcing platform consisted of at least 100K-200K workers at any given time. Difallah et al. (2018) indicated that there were more than 2000 active workers at any given time. Furthermore, the average half-life of

the population of MTurk workers was 400 days. Such results suggested that thousands of new workers arrived on the platform every year.

Online surveys using MTurk's participants allow researchers to recruit large samples quickly and at affordable rates (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). MTurk is an online crowdsourcing labor market where researchers (requesters) use MTurk to hire and compensate workers to complete various computer-based tasks, commonly referred to as human intelligence tasks (HITs; Levay, Freese, & Druckman, 2016). Researchers post HITs on the MTurk website and make these HITs available to all MTurk workers or only to workers who meet a given set of qualifications assigned by the MTurk system (system qualifications) and the researcher (customized qualifications; Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, & Sliter, 2017). Upon completion of the HIT, requesters are given the option to either reject or accept the workers' response. Using MTurk participants and the Qualtrics® platform, empirical data were collected regarding the effect the QWL dimensions had on turnover intention through job satisfaction and organizational commitment of millennial employees in the U.S. Workers were rewarded based upon the stated financial incentive if their HITs were approved (Cheung et al., 2017; Levay et al., 2016). The workers also had to provide a unique survey code which was distributed by Qualtrics® after the survey was completed.

Sample size can affect many factors including bias, statistical power (the probability of not making a Type II error), error (overall solution propriety), and model convergence (Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). Many general rules-of-thumb exist for determining sample size within structural equation modeling (SEM) research. However, most rules are not model specific and may cause overestimates or

underestimates of sample size requirements (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999). According to Henson and Roberts (2006), a common measure for determining sample size is the requirement of at least 10 responses per item within the survey. The survey contained 32 items, and the baseline for determining the minimum sample size was at least $n = 320$ (32 items times 10 responses per item), according to Henson and Roberts (2006).

Measures

To test the hypotheses, four sets of measures were used. QWL was measured using the four dimensions of WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits developed by Chen and Farh (2000) and later validated by Huang et al. (2007). The job satisfaction (JS) scale by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) was adopted for job satisfaction measure. Organizational commitment (OC) was measured by the three subscales of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment from Yücel (2010), containing a modified version of Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model (TCM) of commitment. Turnover intention was measured by Khatri et al. (2001). All instruments had acceptable reliability values ranging from .70 - .90 (George & Mallery, 2016).

Dimensions of Quality of Work Life

The dimensions of QWL consisted of four 3-item subscales. All subscales were anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. Cronbach's alpha coefficients across data sets used in the Huang et al. (2007) validation study ranged from .704 to .820. In the Surlenty et al.'s (2014) study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .580 to 0.887, composite

reliability (CR) ranged from .781 to .929, and average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from .545 to .814. In all cases, job characteristics resulted in the lowest values.

Work/life balance. Huang et al. (2007) used the WLB subscale constructed by Chen and Farh (2000) to measure WLB. The WLB subscale consisted of three items anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. The WLB subscale asked participants to indicate their perceptions of their QWL with statements such as “My current job does not interrupt my family life.” The first order factor structure of the WLB subscale was documented in Huang et al. (2007). Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for WLB was .818.

Job characteristics. Huang et al. (2007) used the JC subscale constructed by Chen and Farh (2000) to measure the employees’ perceptions of their job characteristics. The JC subscale consisted of three items anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. The JC subscale asked participants to indicate their perceptions of their job characteristics with statements such as “My job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work.” The first order factor structure of the JC subscale was documented in Huang et al. (2007). Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for JC was .704.

Supervisory behavior. Huang et al. (2007) used the supervisory behavior (SB) subscale constructed by Chen and Farh (2000) to measure employees’ perceptions of their supervisor’s behavior and support towards them. The SB subscale consisted of three items anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree*

and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. The SB subscale asked participants to indicate their perceptions of their supervisor with statements such as “My supervisor instructs me how to improve my job.” The first order factor structure of the SB subscale was documented in Huang et al. (2007). Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for SB was .820.

Compensation and benefits. Huang et al. (2007) used the compensation and benefits (CB) subscale constructed by Chen and Farh (2000) to measure employees’ perceptions of compensation and benefits provided to them by their employers. The CB subscale consisted of three items anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. The CB subscale asked participants to indicate their perceptions of the compensation and benefits program with statements such as “I am fairly rewarded compared to similar jobs in my organization.” The first order factor structure of the CB subscale was documented in Huang et al. (2007). Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for CB was .743.

Job Satisfaction

The JS scale consisted of five items by the Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) model of overall job satisfaction. A global measure of job satisfaction was most appropriate since the concern was associated with the broader domain of an employee’s satisfaction with the overall job, not specific facets such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1985; Yücel, 2012). Yücel (2012) used five items from the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) model to measure the employees’ job satisfaction levels. The

five items from the JS scale were anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. The JS scale asked participants to indicate their level of job satisfaction with statements including “I consider my job rather unpleasant,” or “I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.” The first order factor structure of the JS scale was documented in Yücel (2012). Cronbach’s alpha coefficient across data sets used in the Yücel (2012) validation study was .859.

Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer’s (1990) TCM of organizational commitment consisted of three 4-item subscales. The three subscales were anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients across data sets used in the Yücel (2012) validation study ranged from 0.711 to 0.893.

Affective commitment subscale. Yücel (2012) used a modified version of the affective commitment subscale from the Meyer and Allen’s TCM (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The AC scale consisted of four items. The AC scale asked respondents how emotionally attached they were with statements such as “I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.” Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for AC was .893.

Continuance commitment subscale. Yücel (2012) used a modified version the continuance commitment (CC) subscale from Meyer and Allen’s TCM (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993). The CC scale asked respondents their perceived costs of leaving with statements such as “Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of

necessity as much as desire.” Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for CC was .711.

Normative commitment subscale. Yücel (2012) used a modified version the normative commitment (NC) subscale from Meyer and Allen’s TCM (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993). The NC scale asked respondents their perceived obligation towards the organization with statements such as “Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.” Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for NC was .779.

Turnover Intention

The turnover intention (TI) scale adopted in this study included three items by Khatri et al. (2001). The TI scale was anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with statements related to turnover intentions such as “I intend to leave my organization.” Yücel (2012) used three items to measure participants’ intention to quit their job. The first order factor structure of the TI scale was documented in Yücel (2012) and Surlenty et al. (2014). Internal consistency reliability was computed, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for TI was .846 (Yücel, 2012) and 0.941(Surlenty et al., 2014). CCR and AVE indices for turnover intention were .962 and .895, respectively. A complete list of items used in this study can be found in Appendix A.

Latent Marker Variable

As a secondary approach to detect common method variance (CMV), a four-item measure from the Blue Attitude scale, was included in the survey to model a latent

marker variable (Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal, & Atinc, 2014). The CMV scale was anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. In various forms, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they liked the color blue. A sample item of the measure was “I prefer blue to other colors.” Reliability coefficients for the measure ranged from .70 to .85.

Survey Design

Using Qualtrics[®], the first question was designed to screen target respondents based on the generational cohort of millennial employees. The requirement for employment in the U.S. was added as a second screening question to ensure targeted respondents were employed in this country. The third screening question was to ensure millennials were not self-employed. A bot check (BOT) was then added as the third screening question to eliminate “bots,” short for “robots,” from participation (Rouse, 2015). BOTs attempt to complete surveys repeatedly to receive additional compensation. For anonymity, participants were required to read and confirm they understood and agreed to an informed consent before the survey was administered. In addition, participants were informed there were no right or wrong answers (Chambers et al., 2016). If the criteria were not met, participants were not allowed to take the survey. The screening criteria incorporated a branch logic feature which allowed participants to be sent down different paths. A message was delivered to the participants indicating the requirement was not met.

Topic salience was ascertained by presenting potential participants with the survey topic, estimating the time requirement of approximately 15 minutes or less, stating the survey was anonymous, and providing information on the benefits of participation in

the survey; all were captured on the informed consent form (Fan & Yan, 2010). To check the respondent's engagement, an instructional manipulation check (IMC) was placed between the dependent variables and independent variables (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009).

The possibility of non-response was controlled by adding the forced-response feature for each question with The University of Texas at Tyler's banner placed at the top of the survey screen to indicate official sponsorship (Fan & Yan, 2010). Although meta-analysis indicated the presence of progress bars within a survey has no statistically significant impact on early terminations, a progress bar was added to the bottom of each page to indicate how much the survey had been completed and how much remained (Villar, Callegaro, & Yang, 2013).

Control Variables

The literature on QWL indicated that diverse variables were used as controls in prior studies. The consideration of potential control variables used in this study was based on associations with exiting literature (Almalki et al., 2012; Daud et al., 2015; Mosadeghrad, 2013; Zhao et al., 2013). Therefore, several demographic variables and one latent marker variable were used.

Demographics

Demographic information such as ethnicity, gender, marital status, education level, industry, management level, organization tenure, and employment status were included in the survey. In addition to prior QWL research, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and USBLS (2018) provided support for the demographics and levels of the study. Research has demonstrated that females were more dissatisfied with compensation and benefits,

supervisory behavior, and professional development opportunities than their male coworkers (Almalki et al., 2012). Hence, female employees experienced lower QWL and high turnover intentions. Additionally, employees with less education were less satisfied, less committed, and more likely to quit (Mosadeghrad, 2013). Regarding employment status, full-time employees were more likely to remain at companies than part-time and temporary staff (Mosadeghrad, 2013). Organizational tenure was used as a control because literature indicated that commitment tends to increase with tenure (Reichers, 1985).

Questions related to demographics were strategically positioned. To prevent a priming effect that could potentially influence respondents' answers to questions that followed, demographic questions were placed at the end of the survey (Frick, Backtiger, & Reips, 1999; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Such positioning may increase the chances respondents would complete the information.

Common Method Variance

One source of measurement error is method biases. Measurement error threatens the validity of the inferences and results about the relationships between measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Potential sources of common method biases arise from having a common source or rater, item characteristics effects, a measurement context effects, or item context effects. To control for common method bias, procedural and statistical remedies were implemented. Procedural remedies were addressed by designing the layout and placement of questions, as it was intentional to position the dependent variables before the three independent variables. To prevent participants from changing their original answers, the option to go backwards once

responses had been submitted in the survey were removed. The back button and ability to move forward without providing a response to the visible question were not available in the online survey design. This remedy was implemented in an attempt to reduce the common method bias of consistency motif.

Data Collection Procedures

Before the survey was deployed for data collection, an application requesting permission to conduct research involving human beings was submitted to the IRB at The University of Texas at Tyler. Upon the approval of the application, the survey was deployed through Qualtrics® allowing a method to create surveys, store responses, create reports, and share results. Participants were solicited using the MTurk online platform and asked to participate in and complete a 15-minute survey. Buhrmester et al. (2011) noted that MTurk “functions as a one-stop shop for getting work done, bringing together the people and tools that enable task creation, labor recruitment, compensation, and data collection” (p. 3).

MTurk respondents were provided a link to the survey on the Qualtrics® survey tool which afforded greater functionality and quality controls. MTurk was used to solicit survey participants because it allowed for participants’ responses to be collected. Participants received a minimal financial incentive of \$.10 for completing the survey. Low compensation rates and payment levels did not appear to affect data quality; however, it negatively impacted the data collection speed. Therefore, when the data collection speed was reduced, the financial incentive was increased from \$.10 to \$.15. The results supported research regarding data collection using MTurk participants conducted by Buhrmester et al. (2011).

The human intelligence tasks (HITs) were initially set during the late night (11 p.m.) and early morning (1 a.m.) hours. On day four, the HITs were adjusted to run a second early morning session (6 a.m. to 8 a.m.) All HITs were performed from February 20, 2019, through March 2, 2019.

Sample Size

A general rule-of-thumb or common measure was used for determining the required minimum sample size of at least 10 responses per item within the survey (Henson & Roberts, 2006). The survey contained 32 items, and the minimum sample size was at least $n = 320$ (32 items times 10 responses per item). The study exceeded the minimum sample size requirements with 339 participants.

Data Verification

This section reports the data verification process, including analysis of construct validity and reliability. It concludes with a statistical analysis.

Data Cleaning and Procedure

Data were first examined for completeness after closure of the data collection. Responses that did not pass screening questions were removed. Surveys without consent were eliminated. Responses from participants who did not pass the BOT and IMC instructional manipulation checks were deleted (Oppenheimer et al., 2009; Rouse, 2015). In addition to ensuring all values were within range, survey time and straight-lining were analyzed. Any non-random, incomplete responses were removed in entirety from the data set. Responses from participants who took less than 0.5 minutes or more than 60 minutes were removed. Similarly, respondents who straight-lined all responses to all the items comprising the dependent or independent variables were eliminated. Although

Cole, McCormick, and Gonyea (2012) indicated it was possible straight-lined responses may be valid in some instances, it seemed unlikely in this study as two of the five items (i.e., those for job satisfaction) were negatively worded. All negatively worded items were contained in one scale and were not reverse coded in the survey.

Of the 2,820 participants who attempted survey, 1030 passed the screening process and completed the survey during a 10-day period from February 20, 2019, to March 2, 2019. The data then were evaluated for BOTs, eliminating 138 responses that were assumed to be answered by robots since responses related to the American flag were inaccurate. As a result, 892 participant responses remained. Another 25 participants who did not consent to the survey were removed. Instructional manipulation checks (IMCs) removed an additional 139 participant responses. Incomplete surveys from 9 participants were removed. Five participants completed surveys in either less than one minute or more than 60 minutes and were eliminated. Straight-line responses were found in 213 responses and eliminated. A total of 501 completed surveys remained after the initial data-cleaning process.

More stringent data cleaning was performed when preliminary analysis showed expected negative correlations between the independent variables and intervening variables were positively related to turnover. Thus, 162 additional responses were deleted due to inconsistent responses within the job satisfaction scale and when outliers were displayed regarding the turnover intention scale. As a result, the final usable responses of 339 were retained for data analysis.

Sample Representativeness

After the data were cleaned, population demographics were aggregated and compared to the U.S. demographic data reported by the USBLS (2018) to assess sample representativeness. MTurk is dominated by workers who reside in the U.S. and India (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Among MTurk workers in the U. S., researchers have suggested Whites and Asians are overrepresented, whereas Blacks and Hispanics are underrepresented (Roulin, 2015).

Missing Data

To reduce issues associated with missing data, the Qualtrics® survey was designed to employ forced-answer responses. A total of nine (2.65%) incomplete responses were identified and removed using list-wise deletion. Therefore, missing data were not found within the responses.

Construct Validity

To examine construct validity and reliability, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted since well established and validated scales were used. CFA verified the pattern and structure coefficients for all the study's measures loaded on the appropriate factor. According to Kline (2016) and Thompson (2004), factor loadings should be at least .5; however, factor loadings over .7 have stronger results. When cross-loading occurred, items were eliminated one at a time and re-analyzed until all items loaded on the correct factor. The number of factors identified in the prior literature was considered to determine the number of factors to extract (e.g., Huang et al., 2007; Yücel, 2012).

Data Analysis

SEM, using SPSS software, was used to analyze the data and to test the hypotheses. Data were analyzed to determine the need to eliminate any cases, with no limit on the number of indicators extracted. When possible, at least three items per factor were retained.

Following Schumacker and Lomax's (2016) study, the data were fit to a measurement model prior to testing the conceptual and alternative models. In assessing the measurement model, all reflective factors were allowed to correlate (i.e., five-factor correlated model). The measurement models were assessed by measuring Chi-square, degrees of freedom, root measure square error approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), and standardized residual covariances (SRC). Furthermore, the Harman's single-factor test was used as a preliminary examination of CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003). A latent marker variable was also used as a secondary examination of CMV (Simmering et al., 2014).

In addition to testing the conceptual model, four alternative structural models were tested to determine best global fit. The structural models were assessed by measuring Chi-square, degrees of freedom, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, AIC, BIC, residual correlations, R^2 , and R^2_m . In the first alternative model, Model 1, direct paths from each dimension of QWL to turnover intention were removed. In the second alternative model, Model 2, direct paths from each dimension of QWL to turnover intention and the path from job satisfaction to organizational commitment were removed. In the third alternative model, Model 3, direct paths from each dimension of QWL to organizational

commitment were removed. The final alternative model, Model 4, consisted of removal of job satisfaction and organizational commitment factors. Model 4 represented direct paths from the dimensions of QWL to turnover intention only.

The reported statistics included means, standard deviations, variances, standard errors, kurtosis, and skewness. Upon completion of the data analyses and hypotheses testing, the results were reported. Additionally, the study results included CFA results and retained items and scale scores.

Limitations

Although efforts were taken to obtain accurate data, potential limitations may still exist, including use of a cross-sectional design, use of MTurk participants to collect data, use of self-reported data, respondent fatigue, and selected measurement instruments. The cross-sectional analysis design allowed formation of assumptions and testing of the hypotheses using research methods (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Creswell, 2014). The use of cross-sectional data limited any inference of causality between predictor and outcome variables (Bono & McNamara, 2011).

Data collected from MTurk raised the issue of lower score reliability compared to traditional sampling techniques (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Moreover, while a “ballot-stuffing” feature was employed within Qualtrics®, there was no guarantee that a “worker” could not take the survey multiple times on various devices, thereby introducing concerns associated with duplicate data.

Several method biases regarding the use of self-reported data potentially affected the validity of the collected data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Covariance between the independent and dependent variables may have been inflated since the same respondents

provided data for both variables. To mitigate the limitation associated with common method bias, the procedural remedies of ensuring participant anonymity and placement of dependent variables before independent variables in the survey were employed (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Furthermore, the Harman's single-factor test and latent marker variable were administered.

Respondent fatigue was also a limitation. Some respondents of online surveys do not always read and follow instructions provided in the surveys. When this happens, noise increases, and the validity of the data is decreased (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009; Smith, Roster, Golden, & Albaum, 2016). A total of 389 responses (14%) were removed from the data collected due to incompleteness, time, straight-lining, and inconsistent responses. Respondent fatigue may be a contributing factor to the removal of these responses (Lavrakas, 2008).

Instruments were limited by their reliability and validity. Other measurement instruments could have produced different reliability and validity results (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Participant responses were restricted to the options provided in the survey questionnaire, limiting the ability of participants to express their viewpoints. Another potential limitation was that the QWL instrument was developed and validated in an Asian culture (Chen & Farh, 2000; Huang et al., 2007). This study analyzed data collected from participants in a Western context. The issue of culture compatibility of the scale could have been problematic.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the design and method used in the study. It provided an overview of the research purpose and hypotheses, followed by a detailed discussion on population and sample, measurement instrumentation used to analyze the data, survey design, the approaches to data collection and analyses, and limitations of the study.

Chapter Four

Results

This chapter reports the results of the study. Participant demographic results are presented. The process for conducting a confirmatory factor analysis and a discussion detailing the overall measurement model are provided. Results from hypotheses testing with hierarchical structural equation model (SEM) technique is reported.

Data Analysis

The purpose of the study was to empirically assess the effects of the dimensions of QWL on turnover intention and to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed between the dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The online survey platform Qualtrics® was used to collect data. Study participants were recruited with the assistance of MTurk and asked to complete the anonymous survey. Statistical remedies were addressed by initially using Harman's single-factor test to determine whether a single factor accounted for the covariance among the items. Common method bias was then confirmed using the latent marker variable technique, and the percent of variance shared was determined.

After cleaning the data, demographics were aggregated and compared to national data. Across the valid respondents, genders were equally represented at 50%. Whites represented 55%, and Asians represented 27% of the respondents. Other races accounted for 18% of the survey respondents: Blacks (9%), Latino (5.6%), American Indian (3%), and Pacific Islander (<1%). Approximately 63% of the millennial employees were single, and 90% possessed some level of college education, with 68% having acquired at least a

bachelor’s degree. Demographic results indicated that 47.5% of millennials were employed in the technology industry (TI).

The data obtained in the study were compared to data published by the USBLS (2018), which is weighted against the total U.S. population as provided by the U.S. Census Bureau. Gender was almost evenly represented. Asian respondents were overrepresented in the study, while all other races were underrepresented. The underrepresentation of Blacks and Hispanics among MTurk workers supported Roulin’s (2015) study. The number of White respondents was nearly 25% less than expected when compared to USBLS (2018) reports. Due to the relatively small size of the survey participants, USBLS was unable to produce sufficiently reliable estimates for each race and industry. Results of the sample demographics and U.S. demographic data relevant to gender and ethnicity are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Control Variables (n = 339)

Characteristics	Study Results		USBLS (2018)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i> (in K)	%
Gender				
Female		49.85	73,063	46.91
Male		50.15	82,698	53.09
Race				
American Indian/Alaska Nat		2.95		
Asian		26.84	9,832	6.31
Black or African American		8.85	19,091	12.26
Hispanic/Latino/Spanish		5.6	26,939	17.29
Pacific Islander		0.29		
White		55.46	121,461	77.98
Marital Status				
Divorced		3.24		
Married		33.92		
Single		62.83		
Widowed		0		

(continued)

Table 2. *Control Variables* (continued)

Characteristics	Study Results		USBLS (2018)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i> (in K)	%
Education Level				
AdvDegree (Masters/PhD/MD)	48	14.16		
BA (BA Degree)	184	54.28		
College (No Degree)	83	24.48		
High School Grad	24	7.08		
Non-High School Grad	0	0		
Industry				
Healthcare	47	13.86		
Higher Education	25	7.37		
Oil & Gas	15	4.42		
Public Services	91	26.84		
Technology	161	47.49		
Tenure				
Less than 1 year	31	9.14		
1-3 years	140	41.3		
3-5 years	102	30.09		
5-10 years	53	15.63		
10-20 years	13	3.83		
More than 20 years	0	0		
Manager				
Yes	181	53.39		
No	158	46.61		
Work Status				
Full-time	299	88.2		
Part-time	40	11.8		

Note. *n* = Sample size. Data published by the USBLS (2018) is weighted against the total population of the U.S. as provided by the U.S. Census Bureau. Due to the relatively small size of the survey participants, USBLS (2018) was unable to produce sufficiently reliable estimates for each race and industry.

Data Verification: Factor Analysis

The study consisted of reflective and formative factors. In a reflective factor, or more conventional latent variable, the indicators are caused by the latent variable (Kenny, 2016). Formative factors, or composites, are just the opposite. Formative factors refer to an index of a weighted sum of variables where the indicators cause the construct. Both job characteristics and organizational commitments were the formative variables in this

study. A measurement model created in IBM® SPSS® Amos® 25.0 (SPSS) analyzed all items to ascertain loading to the correct theoretical latent constructs (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Criteria to determine the global goodness of fit for each instrument model included (a) comparative fit index (CFI) $\geq .92$, (b) standardized root mean square (SRMR) $\leq .08$, and (c) root measure square error approximation (RMSEA) $\leq .07$ (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, the criteria used were based off the fit cut-offs described by Hair et al. (2010) for a sample size larger than $n = 250$ with 12 or more but less than 30 indicators. The absolute value of standardized residual correlations $|\text{SRC}| > 2.58$, Akaike information criterion (AIC), and Bayesian information criteria (BIC) were also reviewed in consideration of global fit.

The data were fit to a measurement model prior to testing the conceptual and alternative models, confirming each individual item loaded on the respective theoretical constructs for local fit (Graham, Guthrie, & Thompson, 2003; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). Though Kline (2016) recommended convergent validity is assessed based on factor loadings above .7, a minimum factor loading of .5 is acceptable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Discriminate validity was also assessed for the re-specified correlated models by comparing the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) to the correlations for each individual factor. Discriminate validity was demonstrated if the square root of AVE was greater than the correlations for each factor (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Three unique models were evaluated to assess the measurement model. The saturated model, Model 1, was the seven-factor conceptual model. Model 1 indicated a poor fit with a CFI significantly less than .92. This was expected as constraints in SPSS

tend to cause specification and identification issues when modeling formative factors (Temme, Diamantopoulos, & Pfyegfeidel, 2014). Model 2 excluded job characteristics and organizational commitment factors, allowing only reflective factors to correlate. Review of the standardized regression weights (factor loadings) showed two negatively worded items, JS2 and JS1, from the job satisfaction scale had values <.50. In Model 3, JS2 and JS1 were removed one at a time and re-analyzed. In Model 4, the data were re-assessed to determine whether one item from the supervisory behavior scale (SB3) and one item from the compensation and benefits scale (CB1) required elimination. Though factor loadings were above .5, items were considered for removal due to discriminant validity issues between the two constructs. Upon evaluation of the results, the items were retained as removal would not have improved discriminant validity. The factor loadings in Model 3 met the minimum threshold with most being more stringent (Kline, 2016; Thompson, 2004). The structure coefficients determined each item had the highest correlation with its respective factor (see Table 3; Graham, Guthrie, & Thompson, 2003).

Table 3

Pattern and Structure Coefficients for the Five-Factor Correlated Model (n= 339)

Construct Variable	TOI		Job Sat		WLB		SupvBeh		CompBen	
	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
TOI										
TI1	.794	.794		-.191		-.091		-.090		-.136
TI2	.770	.770		-.185		-.089		-.087		-.132
TI3	.780	.780		-.188		-.090		-.088		-.134
JobSat										
JS3		-.175	.730	.730		.409		.467		.562
JS4		-.211	.876	.876		.491		.561		.674
JS5		-.204	.849	.849		.476		.544		.654
WLB										
WB1		-.067		.327	.853	.853		.362		.389
WB2		-.077		.377	.673	.673		.418		.449
WB3		-.081		.397	.708	.708		.439		.472

(continued)

Table 3. *Pattern and Structure Coefficients for the Five-Factor Correlated Model (n= 339)* (continued)

Construct Variable	TOI		Job Sat		WLB		SupvBeh		CompBen	
	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
SupvBeh										
SB1		-.086		.485		.470		.757		.757
SB2		-.090		.509		.493		.796		.796
SB3		-.085		.479		.464		.749		.749
Compben										
CB1		-.145		.651		.564		.713		.846
CB2		-.139		.623		.540		.682		.809
CB3		-.139		.626		.542		.685		.813

Note. *n* = Sample Size. Pattern and structure coefficients for the five-factor correlated model consisting of reflective factors only. P = pattern. S = structure. TOI = turnover intention. Job Sat = job satisfaction. WLB = work-life balance. SupvBeh = supervisory behavior. CompBen = compensation and benefits.

The guidelines for determining model fit were based on rules of thumb. According to Marsh, Hau, and Wen (2004), strictly adhering to the recommended cutoff values can lead to Type 1 errors, the incorrect rejection of an acceptable model. After removal of the aforesaid indicators, results of the measurement model showed fit indices were within acceptable ranges ($\chi^2 = 159.922$; $df = 79$; CFI = .967; RMSEA = .055, SRMR = .0387; AIC = 241.922; and BIC = 398.788; see Table 4). When compared to the previous Model 3 results, $\Delta\chi^2 = 27.061$, $\Delta df = 24$, and CFI = .963. Table 4 shows $\Delta\chi^2$ or likelihood ratio, Δdf , and *p*-values when measurement models were compared.

Table 4

Delta Chi-square, Delta Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Comparison of Measurement Models (n = 339)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	Comparison
1	699.609	208	234.685	99	<.001	M1/M2
2	464.924	109	305.002	30	<.001	M2/M3
3	159.922	79	27.061	24	.302	M3/M4
4	132.861	55	332.063	54	<.001	M2/M4

Note. *n* = Sample size. χ^2 = Chi-square. *df* = Degrees of freedom. *p* = *p*-value

CR, AVE, and the square root of AVE were evaluated. Results showed a work-life balance (WLB) AVE of .431. Researchers argue that the AVE is often to strict, and

reliability can be established through composite reliability (>.70) alone (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). Adequate reliability and convergent validity were supported due to all diagonal correlations being significantly different from zero ($p < .001$) with CR ranging from .70 to .86 and AVE ranging from .43 to .68 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; see Table 5).

Table 5

Implied Correlations, Average Variance Extracted, and Composite Reliability (n = 339)

Variable	CR	AVE	WLB	SupvBeh	CompBen	TOI	JobSat
WLB	0.693	0.431	0.657				
SupvBeh	0.811	0.589	0.621	0.768			
CompBen	0.843	0.642	0.694	0.868	0.802		
TOI	0.825	0.611	-0.114	-0.113	-0.173	0.782	
JobSat	0.861	0.676	0.561	0.64	0.784	-0.245	0.822

Note. n = Sample Size. AVE = average variance extracted. CR = composite reliability. WLB = work life balance. SupvBeh = supervisory behavior. TOI = turnover intention. JobSat = job satisfaction. Square root of the AVE along the diagonal.

Descriptive Statistics

The Data Analysis Toolpak within Microsoft Excel[®] was used to calculate the descriptive summary measures. The descriptive statistics of each construct were reported for the sample ($n = 339$). Tables 6 through 9 display the descriptive statistics for the QWL construct, job satisfaction variable, organizational commitment construct, and turnover intention variable.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the QWL Construct (n = 339)

Statistic	WB1	WB2	WB3	JC1	JC2	JC3	SB1	SB2	SB3	CB1	CB2	CB3
\bar{x}	4.07	4.06	4.21	4.25	4.24	4.10	4.08	4.18	4.29	4.01	3.89	4.07
<i>SE</i>	.07	.07	.07	.07	.07	.08	.07	.07	.07	.08	.08	.08
<i>SD</i>	1.35	1.32	1.22	1.26	1.25	1.48	1.26	1.25	1.32	1.41	1.44	1.49

(continued)

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics of the QWL Construct (n = 339) (continued)*

Statistic	WB1	WB2	WB3	JC1	JC2	JC3	SB1	SB2	SB3	CB1	CB2	CB3
Variance	1.84	1.73	1.49	1.58	1.56	2.20	1.58	1.56	1.74	1.98	2.07	2.21
Kurtosis	-.51	-.20	.14	-.20	-.06	-.61	-.17	.11	.10	-.53	-.56	-.57
Skewness	-.65	-.67	-.71	-.66	-.67	-.63	-.68	-.72	-.85	-.57	-.61	-.59
Min	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6

Note. *n* = Sample Size. \bar{x} = Mean. *SE* = Standard Error. *SD* = Standard Deviation. *n* = Sample Size. WB = Work Balance Construct. JC = Job Satisfaction Construct. SB = Supervisory Behavior Construct. CB = Compensation and Benefits Construct.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of the Job Satisfaction Construct (n = 339)

Statistic	JS1	JS2	JS3	JS4	JS5
\bar{x}	2.86	3.06	3.48	3.29	3.44
<i>SE</i>	.06	.07	.06	.06	.06
<i>SD</i>	1.18	1.20	1.03	1.16	1.19
Variance	1.38	1.44	1.06	1.36	1.42
Kurtosis	-1.17	-.98	-.28	-.87	-.68
Skewness	.01	-.17	-.62	-.30	-.54
Min	1	1	1	1	1
Max	5	5	5	5	5

Note. *n* = Sample Size. \bar{x} = Mean. *SE* = Standard Error. *SD* = Standard Deviation. *n* = Sample Size. JS = Job Satisfaction.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of the Organizational Commitment Construct (n = 339)

Statistic	AC1	AC2	AC3	AC4	CC1	CC2	CC3	CC4	NC1	NC2	NC3	NC4
\bar{x}	3.08	2.99	3.29	3.33	3.72	3.41	3.56	3.40	3.20	3.17	3.03	3.17
<i>SE</i>	.06	.06	.06	.07	.05	.06	.06	.06	.06	.06	.06	.07
<i>SD</i>	1.16	1.17	1.19	1.23	.94	1.07	1.11	1.16	1.19	1.18	1.17	1.28
Variance	1.34	1.38	1.41	1.51	.89	1.14	1.23	1.34	1.42	1.39	1.37	1.63
Kurtosis	-.84	-.95	-.68	-.72	.63	-.50	-.30	-.62	-.90	-.85	-.89	-1.00
Skewness	-.35	-.16	-.44	-.55	-.92	-.43	-.66	-.49	-.33	-.26	-.17	-.37
Min	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Max	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

Note. *n* = Sample Size. \bar{x} = Mean. *SE* = Standard Error. *Md* = Median. *Mo* = Mode. *SD* = Standard Deviation. *n* = Sample Size. AC = Affective Commitment. CC = Continuance Commitment. NC = Normative Commitment.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of the Turnover Intention Construct (n= 339)

Statistic	TI1	TI2	TI3
\bar{x}	3.05	3.15	3.28
<i>SE</i>	.06	.07	.07
<i>SD</i>	1.11	1.20	1.26
Variance	1.22	1.45	1.58
Kurtosis	-.94	-.83	-.84
Skewness	-.26	-.16	-.42
Min	1	1	1
Max	5	5	5

Note. *n* = Sample Size. \bar{x} = Mean. *SE* = Standard Error. *Md* = Median. *Mo* = Mode. *SD* = Standard Deviation. TI = Turnover Intention.

Validity and Reliability

As illustrated in Figure 3, the standardized regression weights suggested an acceptable measurement model. Correlations between factors were lower than the square root of AVE for job satisfaction and turnover intention. The square root of AVE for WLB and supervisory behavior was less than its correlations with compensation and benefits. Similarly, the square root of AVE for compensation and benefits was less than its correlation with supervisor behavior. Factor correlations and evidence of reliability are shown in Table 5 and confirmed the positive associations between WLB, supervisory behavior, compensation and benefits, and job satisfaction. The negative correlations between WLB, supervisory behavior, compensation and benefits, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were also confirmed.

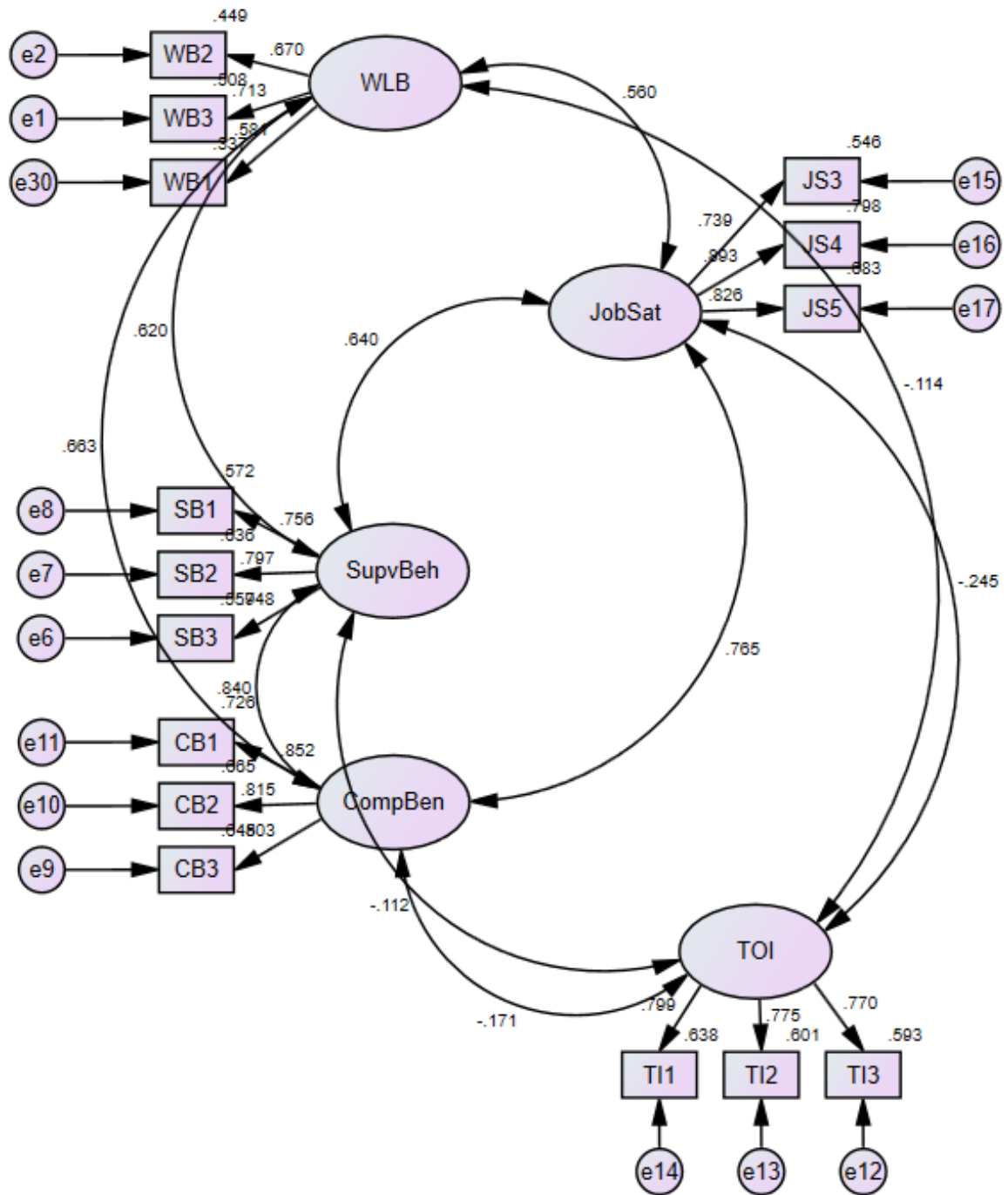


Figure 3. Re-specified measurement model with standardized estimates and r^2 reported.

If absolute factor correlations are not excessively high (i.e., $\geq .90$), discriminate validity may be supported (Kline, 2016). Therefore, it was permissible to proceed with the data analysis process of the re-specified measurement model. Cut-off criteria for indices identified in Table 10 indicated the model fit was excellent (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Gaskin & Lim, 2016).

Table 10

Five-Factor Correlated Re-specified Model Fit Measures (n = 339)

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	171.657	--	--
DF	80	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.146	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	.963	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	.043	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	.058	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	.125	>0.05	Excellent

Note. n = Sample Size. Five-Factor Correlated Model Fit Measures (Gaskin & Lim, 2016).

Harman's single-factor test was used as a preliminary examination of common method variance (CMV; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Harman's single-factor model had 8 standardized residual covariances (SRCs) that were $> |2.58|$, while the re-specified correlated factor model had zero SRCs $> |2.58|$. These findings suggested CMV may be a problem.

To further confirm whether common method bias (CMB) existed, a common latent factor (CLF) using the Blue marker variable items was tested within the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) marker technique using SPSS. Constrained and unconstrained models were constructed, analyzed, and compared (see Figures 4 and 5). Results confirmed CMB was present. The unstandardized parameter estimate for CLF was .597. The shared variance among all items in the model was 35.64%.

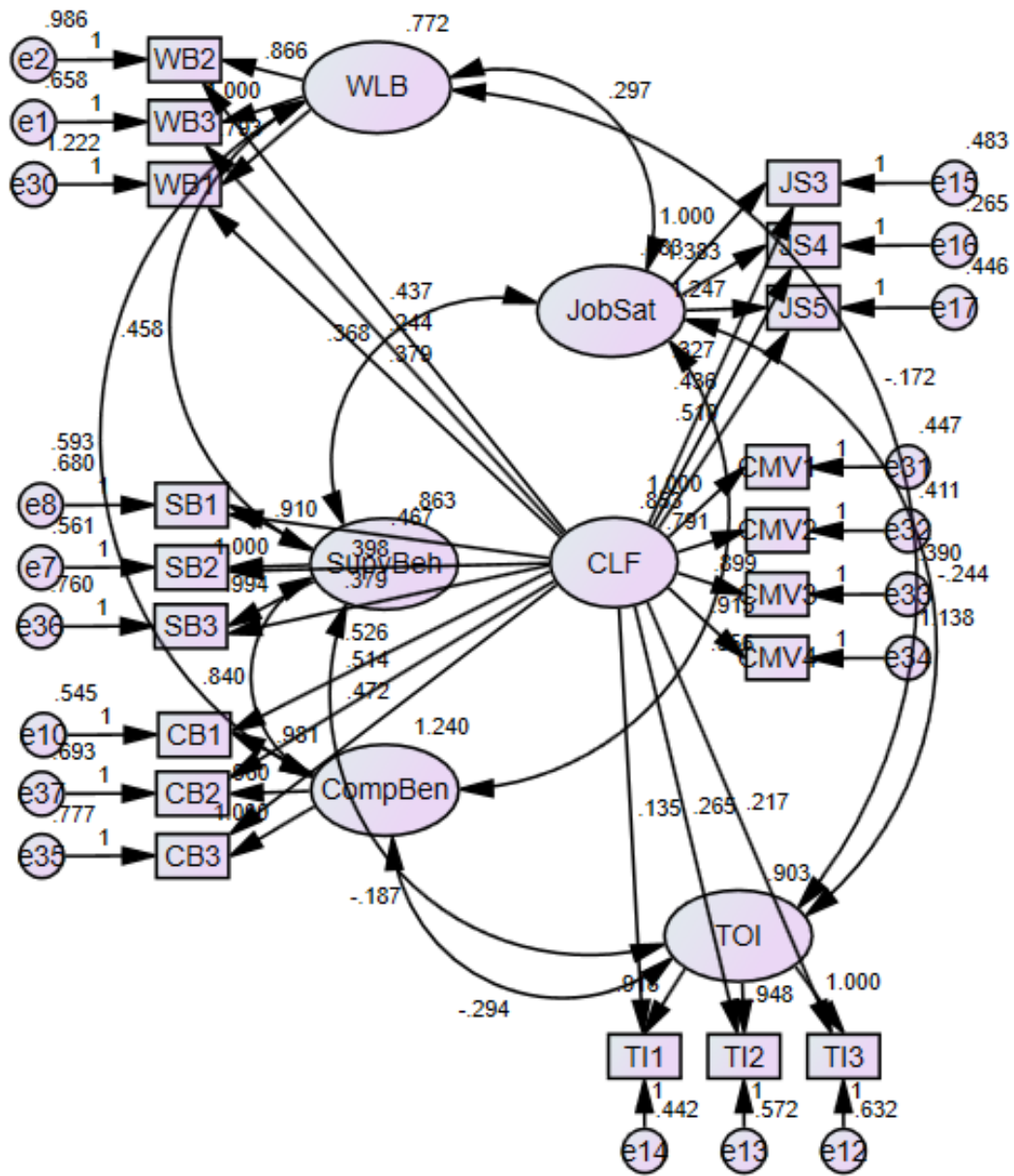


Figure 4. Common method bias (unconstrained) model with unstandardized estimates and r^2 reported.

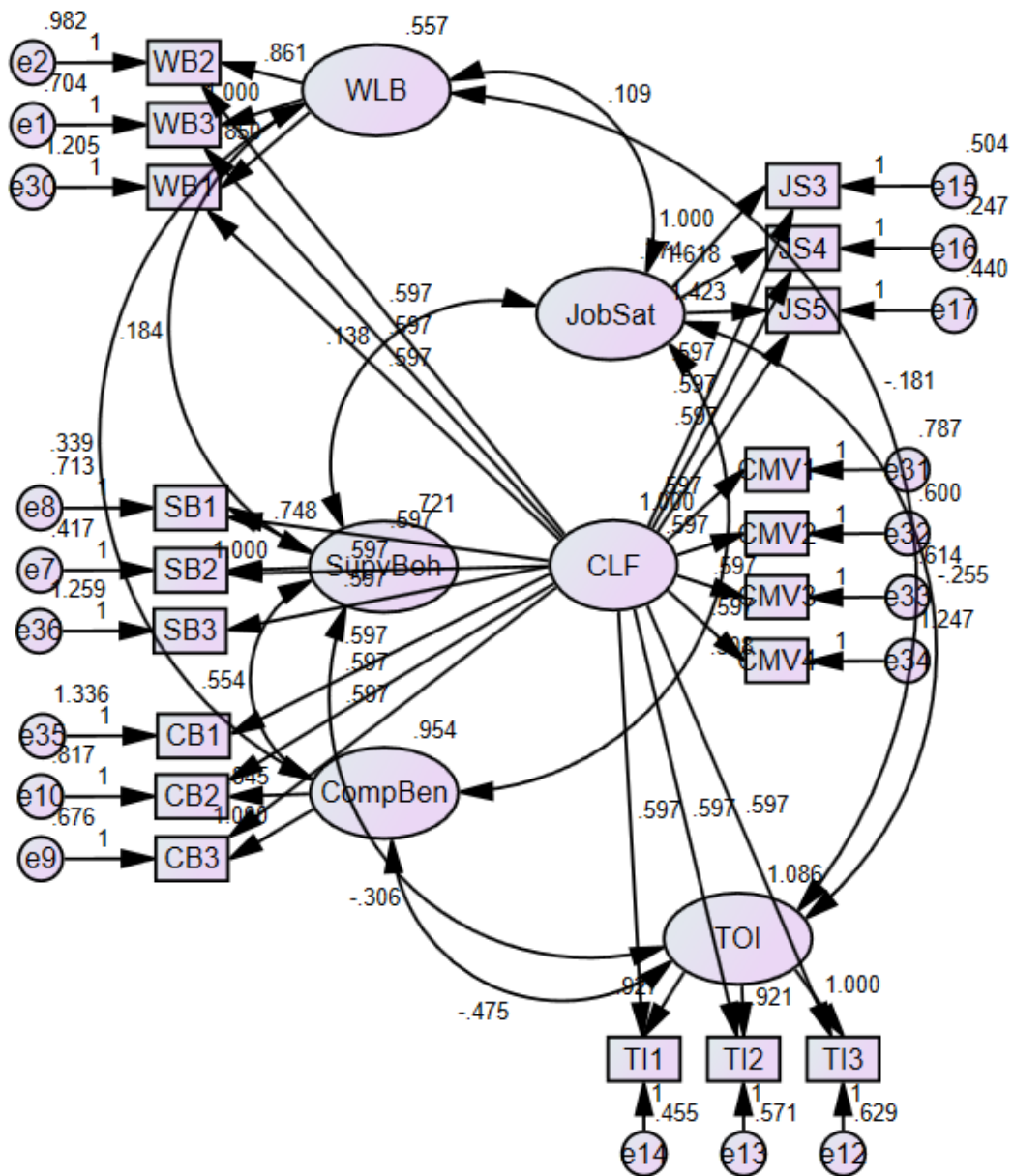


Figure 5. Common method bias (constrained) model with unstandardized estimates and r^2 reported.

For all models, goodness-of-fit statistics of χ^2 , degrees of freedom, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, AIC, BIC, and SRCs were reported. Results of the five-factor correlated model, re-specified model, Harman single-factor model, and CMV models (constrained and unconstrained) are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Fit Indices for Measurement Models (n = 339)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	# SRC > 2.58
1 7-factor correlated model	699.609	208	.084 (.077, .090)	.0843	.875	835.609	1095.777	18
2 5-factor correlated (no formative factors)	464.924	109	.098 (0.89, .108)	.0893	.875	552.924	721.268	9
3 5-factor correlated (JS1, JS2, SB3 & CB removed)	132.861	55	.065 (.051, .079)	.0394	.960	204.861	342.597	0
4 5-factor correlated re-specified (JS1 & JS2 removed)	171.657	80	.058 (.046, .070)	.0398	.963	241.922	398.788	0
5 Harman's single-factor (JS1 & JS2 removed)	815.203	90	.154 (.145, .164)	.1123	.707	875.203	989.983	8
6 CMV model (unconstrained)	262.713	127	.056 (.047, .066)	.0444	.956	388.713	629.751	2
7 CMV model (constrained)	860.599	147	.067 (.058, .077)	.1466	.683	365.456	522.322	58

Note. *n* = Sample Size. SRC = standardized residual covariances. The estimation for the re-specified and single factor models converged, and the solutions for all models were admissible.

Path Analysis

Once a good fitting measurement model was attained, summative scale scores were created for the formative factors using SPSS. Summative scale scores are constructed as the sum or mean of a set of items. The basic assumption of summative scale scores is that aggregating the items will yield a variable approximating a linear relationship with the construct. Such scores resolved the SPSS constraints that occurred while initially correlating the measurement model.

Using reflective factors from the CFA as a framework, the formative factors were re-introduced back into the 7-factor model using summative scores before proceeding to path analysis. The conceptual model and four alternative models were assessed to determine which model had the best fit. The pattern and structure coefficients for the conceptual model are provided in Table 12. The conceptual model, which included all factors, was used to create structural Model 1 (see Figure 6). Results of Model 1 showed good model fit ($\chi^2 = 218.43$, $df = 100$, $CFI = .960$, $RMSEA = .059$, $SRMR = .0386$). After analyzing Model 1, model trimming determined the most parsimonious model based on goodness of fit tests (Kline, 2016).

Table 12

Pattern and Structure Coefficients for the Seven-Factor (Best Fitting) Structural Model (n = 339)

Construct Variable	TOI		OrgComm		JobSat		WLB		JobChar		SupvBeh		CompBen	
	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S	P	S
TOI														
TI1	0.794	0.794		0.094		-0.191		-0.067		-0.005		-0.090		-0.136
TI2	0.770	0.770		0.096		-0.185		-0.077		-0.005		-0.087		-0.132
TI3	0.780	0.780		0.083		-0.188		-0.081		-0.005		-0.088		-0.134
OrgCom														
SumOC		0.009	*	*		0.651		0.516		0.545		0.601		0.660
JobSat														
JS3		-0.175		0.475	0.730	0.730		0.409		0.478		0.467		0.562
JS4		-0.211		0.570	0.876	0.876		0.491		0.574		0.561		0.674
JS5		-0.204		0.553	0.849	0.849		0.476		0.557		0.544		0.654
WLB														
WB1		-0.067		0.301		0.327	0.583	0.583		0.306		0.362		0.389
WB2		-0.077		0.347		0.377	0.673	0.673		0.353		0.418		0.449
WB3		-0.081		0.365		0.397	0.708	0.708		0.371		0.439		0.472
JobChar														
SumJC		-0.006		0.545		0.655		0.524	*	*		0.522		0.643
SupvBeh														
SB1		-0.090		0.455		0.485		0.470		0.395	0.757	0.757		0.638
SB2		-0.087		0.478		0.509		0.493		0.415	0.796	0.796		0.670
SB3		-0.088		0.479		0.479		0.464		0.391	0.749	0.749		0.612
Compben														
CB1		-0.145		0.559		0.327		0.564		0.544		0.713	0.846	0.846
CB2		-0.139		0.534		0.623		0.540		0.520		0.682	0.809	0.809
CB3		-0.139		0.537		0.651		0.542		0.523		0.685	0.813	0.813

Note. n = Sample Size. *Factor loadings do not apply to formative constructs. Summative scores were used. P = pattern. S = structure.

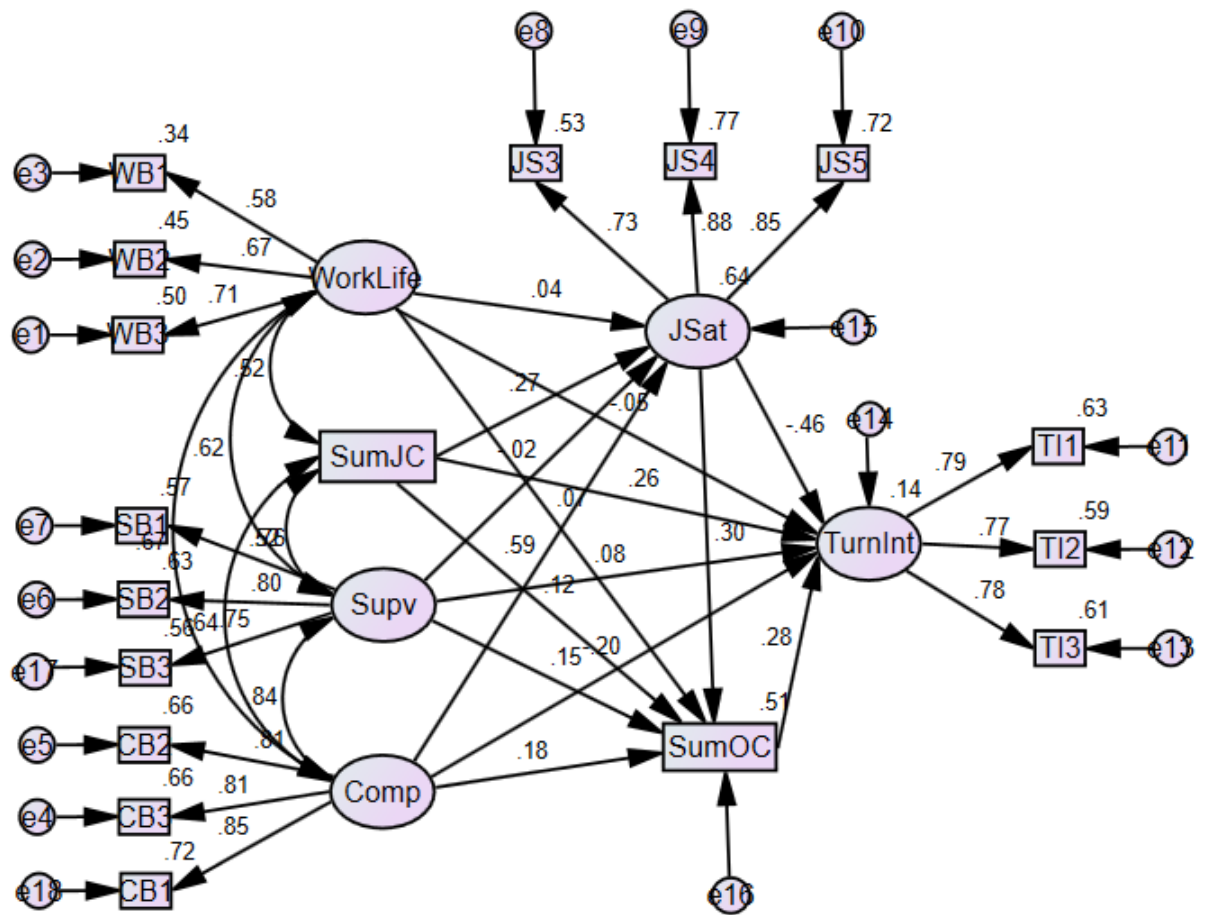


Figure 6. Saturated structural (best-fitting) model, Model 1, with standardized estimates and r^2 reported.

In Model 2, the direct paths from the dimensions of QWL to turnover intention were removed. This model depicted only the indirect effects of QWL on turnover intentions through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Likewise, results of Model 2 showed good model fit ($\chi^2 = 227.969$, $df = 104$, $CFI = .958$, $RMSEA = .059$, $SRMR = .0409$).

Model 3 consisted of direct paths from the dimensions of QWL to turnover intention. All potentially indirect influences were removed. Again, this model had a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 138.817$, $df = 56$, $CFI = .957$, $RMSEA = .066$, $SRMR = .0377$).

The next alternative structural model analyzed was Model 4. In Model 4, the direct paths from the dimension of QWL to organizational commitment were removed. This model was constructed and analyzed to determine whether job satisfaction indirectly affected the relationship between the dimensions of QWL and turnover intention, without the direct influence of organization commitment. Results indicated that although Model 4 had a good fit ($\chi^2 = 261.478$, $df = 108$, $CFI = .948$, $RMSEA = .065$, $SRMR = .0467$), results from previously tested models were better.

Finally, Model 5 was analyzed. In this model, the job satisfaction construct was removed to determine if organizational commitment had complete indirect effects on the relationship between the dimensions of QWL and turnover intentions. Comparatively, fit indices for Model 5 ($\chi^2 = 157.862$, $df = 68$, $CFI = .958$, $RMSEA = .063$, $SRMR = .0557$) were better than Model 4 but not as good as Models 1, 2, and 3. Fit indices for all models are detailed in Table 13.

Table 13

Fit Indices for Structural Models (n = 339)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA (90% <i>CI</i>)	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	#SRC > 2.58	$R^2(TOI)$	R^2m
1. WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> JobSat -> TOI and WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> OrgComm -> TOI and JobSat -> OrgComm and WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> TOI	218.430	100	.059 (.049, .070)	.0386	.960	324.430	527.208	0	.142	.846
2. WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> JobSat -> TOI and WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> OrgComm -> TOI and JobSat -> OrgComm	227.969	104	.059 (.049, .070)	.0409	.958	325.969	513.443	0	.100	.837
3. WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> TOI	138.817	56	.066 (.052, .080)	.0377	.957	208.817	342.727	0	.052	.052
4. WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> JobSat -> TOI and WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> JobSat -> OrgComm -> TOI	261.478	108	.065 (.055, .075)	.0467	.948	371.478	523.648	1	.099	.099
5. WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> OrgComm -> TOI and WLB + JobChar + SupvBeh + CompBen -> TOI	157.862	68	.063 (.050, .075)	.0557	.958	231.862	373.424	1	.000	.473

Note. *n* = Sample Size. $R^2 = R^2$ of turnover intention. SRC = standardized residual covariances. The estimation for all models converged and the solutions for all models were admissible.

Across all models, Model 1, the fully saturated structural (conceptual) model, had the best global fit. Initially it appeared Model 2 had a statistically better global fit than Model 1. However, the changes in Chi-square and degrees of freedom ($\Delta\chi^2[-4] = -9.539$, $p < .001$) were in the oppositely desired direction. Model 1 had a statistically significantly better model fit than Model 2. Conversely, Model 1 did not have a statistically significantly better model fit than Model 3 ($\Delta\chi^2[44] = 79.613$, $p < .001$). The effect size of the Model 1 explained nearly 85% of the variance, but Model 3 explained only 5% of the variance of the full model, Model 1 was still determined to have the best global fit. Model 4 and Model 5 were not included in the comparison since the overall fit indices were not as favorable. Both models had one $SRC > |2.58|$ and were therefore excluded as best-fitting models.

The RMSEA and CFI for Model 1 were substantively better than Models 3, 4, and 5. Model 1 explained more variance in turnover intention than all other models and had zero standardized residual covariances ($SRC > |2.58|$). Therefore, Model 1 was considered the best fitting model. Table 14 shows the $\Delta\chi^2$ or likelihood ratio, Δdf , and p -values when Models 1, 2, and 3 were compared. Model fit measures for Model 1 are provided in Table 15.

Table 14

Delta Chi-square, Delta Degrees of Freedom, and Significance Comparison of Structural Models (n = 339)

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p -value	Comparison
1	218.430	100	9.539	4	8.19063E-11	M1/M2
2	227.969	104	89.152	48	.000284992	M2/M3
3	138.817	56	79.613	44	.000808123	M1/M3
4	261.478	108	---	--	---	---
5	157.862	68	---	--	---	---

Note. n = Sample Size.

Table 15

Model Fit Measures – Model 1 (n = 339)

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	218.43	--	--
DF	100	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.184	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.96	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.041	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.059	<0.06	Excellent
PClose	0.077	>0.05	Excellent

Note. *n* = Sample Size. Model 1. Model Fit Measures (Gaskin & Lim, 2016).

Interpretation is based on cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analyses (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The covariance data matrices of the raw data were positive definite. Maximum likelihood estimation technique assumed multivariate normality, which was not met for the raw data (Mardia = 50.094, $p < .001$; Kline, 2016). To correct for possible multivariate normality failure, bootstrapping with 2,000 resamples was performed. Bootstrapped estimates were reported along with 95% bias corrected confidence intervals (see Tables 16 and 17). The presence of multivariate outliers was assessed via the squared Mahalanobis distance or observations farthest from the centroid (Huck, 2012; Kline, 2016). D^2 values distinctly different from other D^2 values were potential outliers (Byrne, 2010). Special attention was given to high D^2 values with low p -values ($p < .001$), which was another indicator of a potential outlier (Kline, 2016).

Table 16

Bootstrap Estimates of Direct Effects of Model 1 (n = 339)

Direct Effects	Point estimate ^a	SE	95% CI	
			LB	UP
Work life balance on job satisfaction	.035	.083	-.114	.175
Job characteristics on job satisfaction	.063	.062	.034	.091
Supervisory behavior on job satisfaction	-1.014	.123	-.205	.155
Compensation and benefits on job satisfaction	.365	.137	.199	.547
Work life balance on organizational commitment	.185	.078	-.186	.594
Job characteristics on organizational commitment	.079	.059	.001	.159
Supervisory behavior on organizational commitment	.334	.120	-.165	.877
Compensation and benefits on organizational commitment	.313	.153	-.220	.841
Job satisfaction on organizational commitment	.854	.083	.379	1.348
Job satisfaction on turnover intention	-.533	.158	-.830	-.210
Organizational commitment on turnover intention	.113	.036	.042	.184
Work life balance on turnover intention	-.054	.120	-.285	.184
Job characteristics on turnover intention	.070	.023	.024	.115
Supervisory behavior on turnover intention	.071	.157	-.227	.388
Compensation and benefits on turnover intention	-.146	.163	-.464	.183

Note. *n* = Sample Size. ^aUnstandardized estimate. *CI* = confidence interval. LB = lower bound. UP = upper bound.

Table 17

Bootstrap Estimates of Indirect Effects of Model 1 (n = 339)

Indirect Effects	Point estimate ^a	SE	95% CI	
			LB	UP
Job characteristics on organizational commitment through job satisfaction	.001	.020	.020	.100
Supervisory behavior on organizational commitment through job satisfaction	.877	.084	-.202	.135
Compensation and benefits on organizational commitment through job satisfaction	.001	.122	.136	.624
Work life balance on organizational commitment through job satisfaction	.554	.065	-.096	.167
Job characteristics on turnover intention through organizational commitment	.105	.013	-.047	.003
Supervisory behavior on turnover intention through organizational commitment	.347	.057	-.051	.177
Compensation and benefits on turnover intention through organizational commitment	.042	.075	-.301	-.002
Work life balance on turnover intention through organizational commitment	.881	.043	-.077	.096
Job satisfaction on turnover intention through organizational commitment	.002	.044	.031	.215

Note. *n* = Sample Size. ^aUnstandardized estimate. *CI* = confidence interval. LB = lower bound. UP = upper bound.

As further evidence for the partial indirect effect, the implied correlations between the dimensions of QWL (WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits) and turnover intention in the measurement model were considered. Table 14, Table 18, and Figure 3 present these correlations.

Table 18

Decomposition of Implied Correlations of Model 1 (n = 339)

Correlation	Direct	Indirect	Total	Spurious	Implied
Work life balance on turnover intention	-.053	.005	-.048	.120	.072
Job characteristics on turnover intention	.256	-.067	.189	-.128	.061
Supervisory behavior on turnover intention	.081	.050	.131	-.064	.067
Compensation and benefits on turnover intention	-.201	-.170	-.371	.434	.063
Job satisfaction on turnover intention	-.457	.083	-.374	.437	.063
Organizational commitment on turnover intention	.278	.000	.278	-.218	.060

Note. n = Sample Size.

Since the fit indices for Model 3 were acceptable, this model was further evaluated to determine if was the best fitting model. An illustration of structural Model 3 is presented in Figure 7. Model fit measures for structural Model 3 are presented in Table 19.

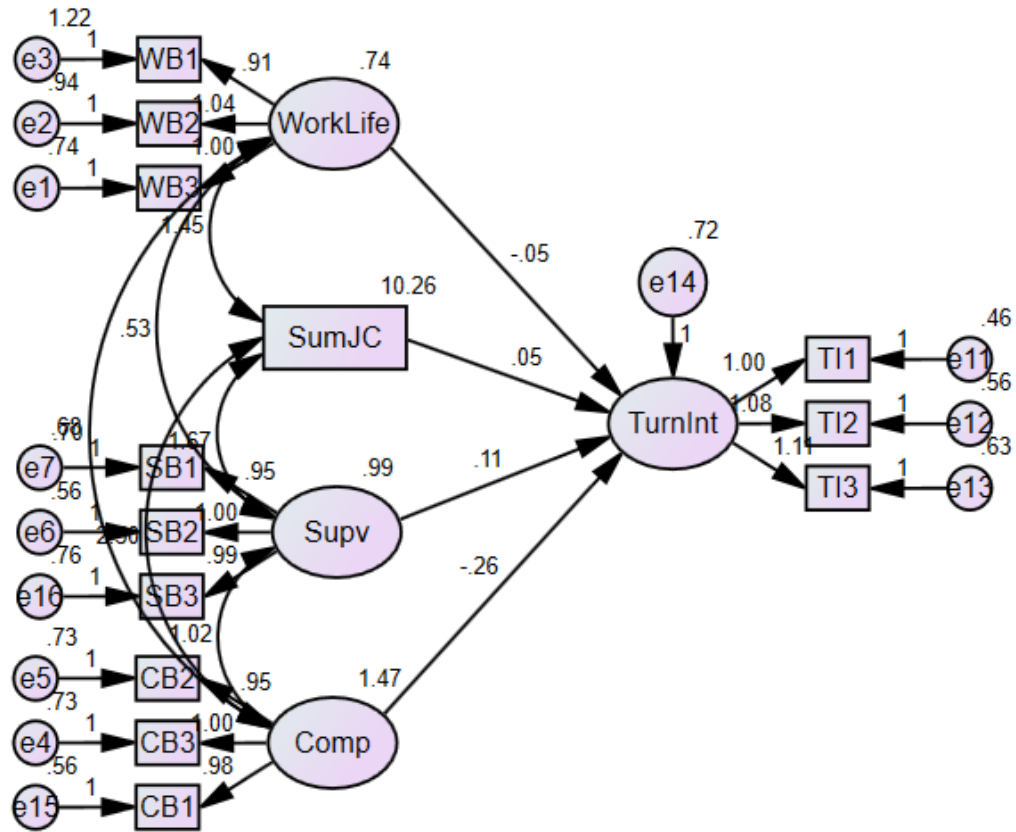


Figure 7. Structural Model 3, manager's model, with standardized estimates and r^2 reported.

Table 19

Model Fit Measures – Model 3 ($n = 339$)

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	138.817	--	--
DF	56	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.479	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.957	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.041	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.066	<0.06	Acceptable
PClose	0.028	>0.05	Acceptable

Note. n = Sample Size. Model 3. Model Fit Measures (Gaskin & Lim, 2016). Interpretation is based on cutoff criteria for fit indices in covariance structure analyses (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Hypotheses Test

Model 1 provided partial support for Hypothesis 1. WLB, job characteristics, and compensation and benefits were positively related to job satisfaction. However, supervisory behavior was negatively related to job satisfaction. From a statistical significance standpoint, only job characteristics and compensation and benefits had positive and significant effects on job satisfaction. Model 1 did not provide support for Hypothesis 2. None of the relationships were statistically significant. Results for Model 1, as related to Hypothesis 3, indicated that WLB and compensation and benefits had direct and negative relationships on turnover intention. Job characteristics and supervisory behavior were slightly but positively related to turnover intention. The relationships between the dimensions of QWL and turnover intention were not statistically significant. Model 1 provided full support for Hypothesis 4. Job satisfaction had a direct and positively significant effect on organizational commitment. Model 1 provided partial support for Hypothesis 5. Job characteristics and compensation and benefits had statistically significant negative effects on turnover intention through job satisfaction. Neither WLB nor supervisory behavior had statistically significant negative correlations with turnover intentions through job satisfaction. Model 1 did not provide support for Hypothesis 6. The dimensions of QWL had a statistically significant negative indirect effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment. All hypotheses findings are briefly summarized in Table 20.

Table 20

Results of Predicted Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description	Supported	Unsupported
1	Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.	Partially supported; JC and CB had positive and significant effects on JS.	WLB had a positive and insignificant effect on JS, and SB had a negative and insignificant effect on JS.
2	Dimensions of QWL have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.	***	Unsupported; Positive relationships exist between the dimensions of QWL and OC but were insignificant.
3	Dimensions of QWL have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention of millennial employees working in the U.S.	***	Unsupported; Relationships between WLB and TOI and CB and TOI were negative but insignificant. Relationships between JC and TOI and SB and TOI were positive and insignificant.
4	Job satisfaction has a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.	Fully supported; JS had a positive and statistically significant relationship with OC.	N/A

(continued)

Table 20 Results of Predicted Hypotheses (continued)

Hypothesis	Description	Supported	Unsupported
5	Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S	***	Unsupported; JC and CB had positive and significant indirect relationships with TOI through JS. WLB and SB had positive and insignificant relationships with TOI through JS.
6	Dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S.	***	Unsupported; WLB and SB had positive and insignificant indirect relationships with TOI through OC. JC and CB had positive and significant indirect relationships with TOI through OC.

Note. *** = Hypothesis was not supported. WLB = work/life balance. JC = job characteristics. SB = supervisory behavior. CB = compensation and benefits. JS = job satisfaction. OC = organizational commitment. TOI = turnover intention.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reported the results of the study. It began by presenting a description of the data cleaning process. Control variables were presented, and sample control variables were compared with USBLS (2018) data. Descriptive statistics of the variables were reported, and construct validity was assessed with confirmatory factor analysis, attaining a measurement model. Common method bias was assessed, and the resulting shared variance was determined. Path analyses were performed with the saturated conceptual model. The best fully structural model was identified using the Kline (2016) model trimming process.

Chapter Five

Discussion

This chapter is segmented into five sections. Section one interprets the results in relation to the literature. In section two, implications for human resource development (HRD) research and practice are addressed. Section three discusses limitations of the study. Section four provides recommendations for future research. The final section concludes with a summary.

Hypothesis 1

H1 proposed that the dimensions of QWL would have a direct and positive effect on job satisfaction among millennial employees in the U.S. Results showed that H1 was partially supported. Specifically, H1b and H1d were supported. The relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction was positive and significant. Similarly, the relationship between compensation and benefits and job satisfaction was positive and significant. It is possible that job characteristics and job satisfaction (.27) are more closely related because millennial employees are more satisfied when job characteristics (e.g., variety of tasks, autonomy, task identity, task significance, and job feedback) are enhanced (Sims, Szilagy, & Keller, 1976). Additionally, the weaker path between compensation and benefits and job satisfaction (.07) supports the belief that millennial employees care more about job characteristics than compensation and benefits (Surienty et al., 2014).

An earlier study of manufacturing employees comprised of multiple generational cohorts found that supervisory behavior in the form of supervisor support was a weaker source of job satisfaction in companies with higher levels of teamwork (Griffin,

Patterson, & West, 2001). Like the results of H1, these results were unexpected.

Although supervisory support was expected to have a positive and significant impact on job satisfaction, the implementation of teams affected the perception of leadership.

Results of H1 also showed work-life balance (WLB; .04) and supervisory behavior (-.02) had statistically insignificant effects on job satisfaction of millennial employees. This appears to be a counter intuitive finding that have not been examined in the literature. It is likely that WLB is a hygiene factor such that improving WLB may not improve employees' JS yet worsening of WLB may reduce JS. It may also be a finding specific to the gen cohort under study. More focused study is needed in the future.

Such insignificant relationships may mean WLB and supervisory behavior had no effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees. Perhaps other dimensions of QWL that were not examined are more related to job satisfaction. It is also possible dimensions of QWL are important to other generational cohorts are not as important to millennials in the U.S. These results are inconsistent with findings from a previous study of operators in a garment manufacturing organization, where job characteristics was found to have positive and insignificant influence on job satisfaction. However, WLB, supervisory behavior, and compensation and benefits all had positive and significant influences on job satisfaction (Rubel & Kee, 2014).

Hypothesis 2

H2 predicted the dimensions of QWL would have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S. Analysis found that H2 (H2a – H2d) was not supported. Findings related to H2 indicated a positive relationship between the dimensions of QWL and organizational commitment. Despite

this positive correlation, the effects were not significant. The results contradicted previous studies by Daud (2010), Huang et al. (2007), and Kamel (2013) in which QWL had a direct and positive significant relationship with organizational commitment in a sample of non-millennial employees.

Thus, it appears dimensions of QWL had little to no direct effect on organizational commitment for millennial employees. The standardized regression weights between dimensions of QWL and organizational commitment were reported as: WLB (.74), job characteristics (.12), supervisory behavior (.15), and compensation and benefits (.18). It is possible organizational commitment of millennial employees only comes by way of an intervening variable such as job satisfaction. Perhaps, the inconsistent findings may be a result of the cultural differences relevant to Taiwanese employees were used in the prior study (Huang et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 3

H3 envisaged the dimensions of QWL would have a direct and negative effect on turnover intention of millennial employees working in the U.S. Results did not support H3 (H3a – H3d). Previous research has been inconsistent regarding the relationship between QWL and turnover intention. For example, Huang et al. (2007) and Celik and Oz (2011) found QWL had a direct and negative significant relationship on turnover intention. Surlenty et al. (2014) reported that work-life balance and supervisory behavior had negative effects on turnover intention. However, job characteristics and compensation and benefits were not found to have significantly negative effects on turnover intention.

Results also indicated that none of the dimensions of QWL were negatively and significantly related to turnover intention. This could be due to data quality issues relative to MTurk participants since several responses were eliminated due to failures of the instructional manipulation checks in the survey questionnaire. Though not significant, turnover intention of millennial employees in the U.S. was negatively related to WLB (-.05) and compensation and benefits (-.20). However, job characteristics (.26) and supervisory behavior (.08) were both positive and insignificant. Such findings were contrary to H3 but clearly indicated WLB and compensation and benefits had some influence on turnover intention. The influence of job characteristics on turnover was positive, possibly due availability of external job alternatives which affect millennial's turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4

H4 contemplated that job satisfaction would have a direct and positive effect on organizational commitment of millennials working in the U.S. The results confirmed that H4 was fully supported. Despite the varying opinions on the direction of the relationship between the two constructs, literature indicates a strong association between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Agarwal & Sajjid, 2017; Sharma & Bajpai, 2010). Consistent with prior research, results concluded a positive and statistically significant correlation (.30) between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, millennial employees who are happy are more committed to organizations.

Hypothesis 5

H5 predicted the dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction of millennial employees working in the U.S.

Analysis showed that H5 (H5a – H5d) was not supported. Both QWL and job satisfaction have been significant predictors of turnover intention. However, results showed that the dimensions of QWL did not have negative and significant indirect effects on turnover intention through job satisfaction. Specifically, bootstrap estimates of the indirect effects of job characteristics (.001) and compensation and benefits (.001) showed positive and significant indirect relationships with turnover intention through job satisfaction. On the other hand, bootstrap estimates of the indirect effects of WLB balance (.55) and supervisory behavior (.88) showed positive and insignificant relationships with turnover intention through job satisfaction. Such findings opposed previous studies (Huang et al., 2007; Surienty et al., 2014).

Results from the analysis of H5 can be a direct effect of an intervening variable not examined in the study. The presence of partial indirect effects supports theories about other intervening variables (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). Job embeddedness or connection with the job may explain variance associated with WLB, job characteristics, supervisory behavior, job satisfaction, and turnover intention of millennial employees that is not explained within the best fitting structural model (see Figure 6).

Hypothesis 6

H6 predicted the dimensions of QWL have an indirect and negative effect on turnover intention through organizational commitment of millennial employees working in the U.S. Results of the analysis showed H6 (H6a – H6d) was not supported. Contrary to H6, results showed positive indirect effects of dimensions of QWL on turnover intention through organizational commitment. Bootstrap estimates of the indirect effects of WLB (.88), job characteristics (.10), and supervisory behavior (.35) on turnover

intention showed positive and insignificant relationships. Bootstrap estimates of the indirect effects of compensation and benefits (.04) showed positive and significant relationships. Such results opposed findings by Kamel (2013) and Yusoff et al. (2015), where commitment mediated the relationship between QWL and turnover intention among academic faculty members at a university. As with H5, the presence of partial indirect effects was discovered in the analysis of H6. Therefore, it is possible another intervening variable, such as organizational culture, was omitted from the model (Zhao et al., 2010).

Implications

This section discusses the implications of the study. The implications are organized into two categories, implications for HRD research and business practice.

Implications for HRD Research

The study makes several contributions to the literature. First, the calls for more research on millennial employees in the U.S. were partially answered (Campione, 2015; Smith & Nichols, 2015). Using a cross-sectional approach, the direct and indirect effects of the dimensions of QWL on turnover intention were examined. Results showed that two QWL factors, job characteristics and compensation and benefits, had significant effects on job satisfaction.

A second contribution was that the study confirmed job satisfaction had significant and positive effects on organizational commitment for millennial employees. The lack of research pertaining to influence of QWL on the intervening variables enhanced the body of literature related to this generational cohort. Moreover, the study showed that other variables such as job embeddedness, job stress, and organizational

culture need to be studied as the model is complete. This was made evident in the results of the indirect effects (see Table 17).

Third, the study confirmed that an important predictor of turnover intention was job satisfaction for millennial employees. Results showed negative and significant relationships between job satisfaction and turnover intention of millennial employees. The findings imply organizational leader and managers should strive to improve workplace characteristics valued by millennials. Furthermore, organizational leaders should develop policies and procedures to handle this increasingly mobile workforce.

Finally, the study shed light on research approaches to using MTurk participants for data collection purposes. Millennial employees were not as attentive when providing responses to the survey questionnaire. As a result, 301 responses were removed from the study during the data cleaning phase. Therefore, alternative platforms may be considered for data collection.

Implications for HRD Practice

There is a need to focus on QWL factors that significantly influence job satisfaction. Results indicated job characteristics and compensation and benefits had positive and statistically significant relationships with job satisfaction for millennial employees. Thus, organizations may use the results of this study in the recruiting, selection, hiring, training and development, evaluation, and compensation of managers and leaders who must be cognizant of the factors that influence millennials' perceptions of work and their organizations.

HRD practitioners should ensure that leadership development programs focus on enhancing skills that aid in the improvement of job satisfaction of millennial employees.

Moreover, HRD practitioners may evaluate and revise compensation packages to provide better compensation and rewards packages, promotional opportunities, career advancement and growth, and healthcare benefits. Focusing on job characteristics and compensation and benefits enhances motivation, performance, and job satisfaction. Furthermore, these enhance the development of professionalism of employees leading to decreased turnover intentions and reductions in actual turnover (Huang et al., 2007).

Based on the results of this study, managers should be hired for their skills associated with job characteristics and compensation and benefits as these aspects have been identified as influential in millennial job satisfaction. Equally important, HRD professionals should develop programs to enhance the development of managers and hold them accountable for creating environments in which their employees thrive. It may be beneficial for organizational leaders and managers to provide opportunities for employees to make suggestions and recommendations regarding work tasks, equipment to use, and improvements to existing procedures.

Managers may use the results of this study to expand their understanding of millennial employees, including motivators and detractors of behavior, attitudes, and performance. Managers should also engage in self-assessments of their skills and abilities in enhancing millennial job satisfaction and create action plans to improve their own performance. In reference to job characteristics, employees desired jobs which allowed for autonomy, challenge, creativity, and meaning. Hence, managers should challenge employees and encourage innovation and creativity. Instead of assigning minuscule tasks to millennial employees, leaders should communicate the vision and allow employees to develop the strategies. Such autonomy influences job satisfaction.

The results confirmed job satisfaction and turnover intention were negatively related. Thus, when job satisfaction is enhanced, turnover intention is reduced.

Given compensation and benefits are important factors to millennial employees, human resource representatives need to collaborate with organizational leaders and managers to ensure employees are properly compensated upon hire and throughout their tenure. Programs should be evaluated periodically so organizations are competitive with market salaries, benefits, and rewards. Additionally, human resource representatives should establish clear career promotion pathways and succession plans (Wan & Chan, 2013). These plans can include training sessions to improve employee capabilities and upgrade skills to better serve internal and external customers. Providing opportunities for growth increases the chances of employee commitment to the organization (Daud et al., 2015).

Limitations

Several noteworthy limitations were associated with the study. First, there was a risk the obtained sample was not entirely representative of the desired population (Roulin, 2015). In other words, collected responses from MTurk workers might not accurately reflect the population of millennial employees working for organizations within the U.S. When compared to USBLS (2018) data, Asians were overrepresented by a factor of four. All other races were underrepresented.

A second limitation was related to the measurement instrument. Items JS1 and JS2 were deleted from the job satisfaction factor in the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). These were the only two negatively worded items in the survey. Upon further review of the survey data, many participants were inconsistent in their responses to items

within the job satisfaction scale. These inconsistent responses resulted in deletion of 162 samples.

Third, there were constraints within the IBM® SPSS® Amos® 25.0 (SPSS) software package. Such constraints can cause specification and identification issues when modeling formative factors (Temme et al., 2014). As a result, the job characteristics and organizational commitment factors were eliminated from CFA and reintroduced in the model during the path analysis phase of the research.

Fourth, when the re-specified measurement model was assessed for goodness-of-fit, fit indices indicated the model had excellent global fit. In contrast, model validity measures for the re-specified model showed the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for WLB and supervisory behavior was less than its correlations with compensation and benefits. Similarly, the square root of the AVE for compensation and benefits was less than its correlation with supervisor behavior.

Suggestions for Future Research

Several recommendations for future research are suggested. First, future researchers could field test the study within U.S. organizations to assess whether similar findings can be observed. Studying employees within U.S. organizations may provide additional insight regarding other factors that trigger turnover intentions of millennial employees. This recommendation is based on the partial indirect effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which suggests intervening variables have been omitted from the QWL-turn over intention (TOI) model (Zhao et al., 2010). It appears the conceptual framework may be incomplete. Other variables to consider would include job embeddedness, organizational culture, and professional development

opportunities (Elamparuthi, 2014; Lopez-Cabarcos, de Pinho, & Vasquez-Rodriguez, 2015; Zhao et al., 2013).

Second, this study used maximum likelihood estimation techniques with IBM® SPSS® Amos® 25.0. Future research should replicate the study using the partial least squares (PLS) approach. PLS is a second-generation structural modeling software which allows examination of constructs without construct specification modifications (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2017; Rubel & Kee, 2014).

Third, the study used a cross-sectional design which collected data at a single point in time (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Future research may consider using a longitudinal design where data are collected at multiple points in time, allowing insight into the time order of variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In terms of reliability, replication, and validity, there is little difference in the two design techniques. However, time and cost are usually evaluated and can be the reason organizations use cross-sectional designs over longitudinal designs.

Fourth, future research may consider using other measurement instruments for QWL and organizational commitment. Swamy et al. (2015) suggested other dimensions of QWL affect employees' turnover intention, and those dimensions were absent from study. An alternative instrument may address the perceived discriminant validity issue between supervisory behavior and compensation and benefits. Additionally, the full three-component model (TCM) of organizational commitment should be utilized. Comparison of the results could inform researchers about the influence of diverse scales on turnover intention through job satisfaction.

Finally, the study indicated other factors can potentially influence turnover intention of millennial employees in the U.S. Influence on turnover intention can possibly change with time and when economic changes occur. Future research should examine intervening effects of personal and demographic factors. Personal factors could include performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and motivation for leadership. Demographic factors could include gender, marital status, and educational level.

Conclusion

The study investigated the relationships among the dimensions of QWL, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among millennial employees in the United States. It sought to determine whether statistically significant relationships existed among these variables. Six main hypotheses were discussed and compared to prior research conducted by Huang et al. (2007), Surlenty et al. (2014), and Yücel (2012), all of which supported the study.

Initially, the direct effects of the dimensions of QWL on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions of millennial employees working in the U. S. were discussed in H1, H2, and H3. Next, the direct effect of job satisfaction on organizational commitment was discussed in H4. Then, the indirect effects of the dimensions of QWL on turnover intentions through the intervening variables, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, were discussed in H5 and H6.

Significant QWL Factors for Millennials

Job characteristics and compensation and benefits had positive and statistically significant effects on job satisfaction. All dimensions of QWL were positive but had insignificant effects on organizational commitment. Direct effects of QWL on turnover

intention were also insignificant. As predicted, job satisfaction had a positive and significant effect on organizational commitment. The intervening variables of job satisfaction and organizational commitment influenced the effect of QWL on turnover intention. However, the effects were either insignificant or positively related, contrary to expectation.

Model 1 did not appear to be reflective of millennial employees in the U.S. Therefore, more studies need to be conducted to determine what factors have statistically significant effects on turnover intention of millennials. Specifically, studies should examine the hygiene factors of the two-factor model since those factors had more of an effect on job satisfaction of millennial employees.

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Appendix A: Measurement Instrumentation

Quality of Work Life Scale (Chen & Farh, 2000) – 4 Dimensions; 12 Items

Huang et al. (2007) used the QWL scale, consisting of 12-items and four subscales (WLB, JC, SB, CB), developed by Chen and Farh (2000). The four subscales are used to measure the dimensions of QWL. Each subscale consists of three items anchored on a 6-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 6 indicated *strongly agree*. Each subscale asks participants to indicate their perceptions of their quality of work life as related to WLB, JC, SB, and CB with each statement.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = agree, and 6 = strongly agree.

A. Work/Life Balance Subscale

1. My current job does not interrupt my family life. (WLB1)
2. The overtime of my current job is reasonable. (WLB2)
3. The workload of my current job is reasonable. (WLB3)

B. Job Characteristics Subscale

1. My job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work. (JC1)
2. My job is challenging. (JC2)
3. My job is creative and meaningful. (JC3)

C. Supervisory Behavior Subscale

1. My supervisor instructs me how to improve my job. (SB1)
2. My supervisor provides me with assistance to solve my job problems. (SB2)
3. My supervisor acknowledges me when I perform well in my job. (SB3)

D. Compensation and Benefits Subscale

1. I am fairly rewarded compared to similar jobs in my organization. (CB1)
2. I am fairly rewarded compared to similar jobs outside my organization. (CB2)
3. My organization cares about employee welfare. (CB3)

Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) – 5 items

Yücel (2012) used five items from Brayfield and Rothe (1951) model of overall job satisfaction to measure the employees' job satisfaction level. The five items from the JS scale are anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. The JS scale asks participants to indicate their level of job satisfaction with each statement.

Appendix A: Continued

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = moderately agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

1. I consider my job rather unpleasant. (JS1)
2. Each day of work seems like it will never end. (JS2)
3. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job. (JS3)
4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work. (JS4)
5. I find real enjoyment in my work. (JS5)

Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)
– 3 Dimensions; 12 Items

Yücel (2012) used a modified version the affective commitment (AC) subscale from the Meyer and Allen Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) to measure affective commitment. The AC scale consists of four items anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. The AC scale asks respondents how emotionally attached they are to their organization with each statement.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = moderately agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

A. Affective Commitment Subscale (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. (AC1)
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. (AC2)
3. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (AC3)
4. I feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (AC4)

B. Continuance Commitment Subscale (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)^[11]_[SEP]

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. (CC1)
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. (CC2)
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. (CC3)
4. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. (CC4)

Appendix A: Continued

C. Normative Commitment Subscale (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

1. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now. (NC1)
2. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it. (NC2)
3. I owe a great deal to my organization. (NC3)
4. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now. (NC4)

Turnover Intention Scale (Khatri, Fern, & Budhwar, 2001)

Yücel (2012) used three items to measure the participants' intention to quit their job. The items were adopted from Khatri et al. (2001). The TI scale is anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. The participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree/disagree with statements related to turnover intentions with each statement.

Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = moderately agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

1. I intend to leave the organization. (TI1)
2. I intend to make a genuine effort to find another job over the next few months. (TI2)
3. I often think about quitting. (TI3)

Latent Variable Marker

The "Blue Attitude" scale was included in the survey to model a latent variable marker (Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal, & Atine, 2014, p. 487). The Blue Attitude scale was anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 indicated *strongly disagree* and 5 indicated *strongly agree*. The participants were asked to indicate how they feel about the color blue.

Scale: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = neither agree or disagree, 4 = moderately agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

1. I prefer blue to other colors. (CMV1)
2. I like the color blue. (CMV2)
3. I like blue clothes. (CMV3)
4. I hope my next car is blue. (CMV4)

Appendix B: Permission to Use Instruments

I. Quality of Work Life Scale

Huang, T., Lawler, J., & Lei, C. (2007). The effects of quality of work life on commitment and turnover intention. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 35, 735-750. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2007.35.6.735

Dear Julie

Yes, of course, as copyright holders of this article, we are happy to grant permission for the use of this scale. I'm sure the authors will appreciate your communication with them as well.

Kind regards
Alex



Alexandra Cheyne · Managing Editor
Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal
e. editor@sbp-journal.com w. www.sbp-journal.com



Think before you print.

From: Julie Lewis <JLewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Date: Sunday, February 10, 2019 at 11:57 PM
To: "editor@sbp-journal.com" <editor@sbp-journal.com>, "tch@mgmt.ncu.edu.tw" <tch@mgmt.ncu.edu.tw>
Subject: Permission to Use the Quality of Work Life (QWL) Scale

Hello,

I am a doctoral student at The University of Texas at Tyler and am requesting permission to use the QWL scale consisting of 12-items and four sub-scales (WLB, JC, SB, CB). The items are anchored on a 6-point Likert-type scale, and the referenced article is noted below:

Huang, T., Lawler, J., & Lei, C. (2007). The effects of quality of work life on commitment and turnover intention. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 35, 735-750. doi: 10.2224/sbp.2007.35.6.735

My study seeks to evaluate the effects of QWL on turnover intention with mediating effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment of Millennial employees in the United States. Please let me know if permission is granted by responding to this email.

Thanks in advance,

Julie Lewis, MS, MBA, PhD Candidate

Appendix B: Continued

II. Job Satisfaction Scale

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35, 307-311. doi.org/10.1037/h0055617

Yücel, I. (2012). Examining the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7, 44–58. doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v7n20p44

2/11/2019

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Appendix B: Continued

An index of job satisfaction.

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Journal Article
Database: PsycARTICLES

[Brayfield, Arthur H. \(/search/results?term=Brayfield,%20Arthur%20H.&latSearchType=a\)](#) [Rothe, Harold F. \(/search/results?term=Rothe,%20Harold%20F.&latSearchType=a\)](#)

Citation

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35(5), 307-311. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0055617> (/doi/10.1037/h0055617)

Abstract

An attitude scale to give an index of job satisfaction was constructed by a combination of Thurstone and Likert scaling methods. A corrected odd-even reliability coefficient of .87 was computed from scores obtained from a sample of 231 female office employees. Validity was investigated by comparing job satisfaction scores of two groups: (1) 40 students who had personnel jobs, and (2) 51 persons who did not. The mean for the personnel group was 76.9, and for the Non-Personnel group was 65.4. Correlation with the Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank was $r = .92$. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2016 APA, all rights reserved)

Journal of Applied Psychology

Editor Gilad Chen, PhD

[Journal TOC \(/PsycARTICLES/journal/apl/35/5\)](#)

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750 First Street NE, Washington, DC 20002-4242
Telephone: 202-336-5650; 800-374-2722
TDD/TTY: 202-336-6123

III. Organizational Commitment Scale

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), 1-18. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x

Yücel, I. (2012). Examining the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7, 44–58. doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v7n20p44

Appendix B: Continued

RE: Permission to use the Three-Component Model of Employee Commitment Scale



Julie Lewis <JLewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu>
9:02 PM

To: Julie Lewis

From: Julie Lewis

Sent: Thursday, February 09, 2017 7:00 PM

To: Natalie Jean Allen

Subject: Re: Permission to use the Three-Component Model of Employee Commitment Scale

Thank you very much.

From: Natalie Jean Allen <nallen@uwo.ca>

Date: Thursday, February 9, 2017 at 11:58 AM

To: Julie Lewis <JLewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu>

Subject: Re: Permission to use the Three-Component Model of Employee Commitment Scale

Hello Julie

Thank you for your interest in using the Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey in your research. You can get information about the measure, a Users' Guide, and the measure itself at:

<http://employeecommittment.com/>

For academic / research purposes, please choose the Academic Package. (There is no charge for this package.) I wish you well with your research!

Best,

Natalie Allen

From: Julie Lewis <JLewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu>

Sent: Thursday, February 9, 2017 12:31 PM

To: Natalie Jean Allen; John Peter Meyer

Subject: Permission to use the Three-Component Model of Employee Commitment Scale

Dr. Allen and Dr. Meyer,

I am a doctoral student at The University of Texas at Tyler and am requesting permission to use the TCM (7-point Likert scale). My study seeks to evaluate the impacts of job satisfaction (rewards and supervision) on organizational commitment in the oil and gas services industry. Please let me know if permission is granted.

Thanks in advance,

Julie Lewis, MS, MBA

512-373-2588

IV. Turnover Intention Scale

Khatri, N., Fern, C. T., & Budhwar, P. (2001). Explaining employee turnover in an Asian context. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 11(1), 54-74

doi: 10.1111/j.1748-8583.2001.tb00032.x

Yücel, I. (2012). Examining the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7, 44-58. doi: 10.5539/ijbm.v7n20p44

Appendix B: Continued

From: Julie Lewis
Sent: Monday, February 11, 2019 4:53 PM
To: Khatri, Naresh
Subject: RE: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

Dr. Khatri,

Thanks so much for the prompt response.

Julie Lewis, MS, MBA, PhD Candidate
(512) 373-2588

From: [Khatri, Naresh](#)
Sent: Monday, February 11, 2019 4:49 PM
To: [Julie Lewis](#)
Subject: RE: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

Julie, feel free to use the turnover scale as long as you cite it in your research. All the best.

From: Julie Lewis <JLewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Sent: Monday, February 11, 2019 4:47 PM
To: Khatri, Naresh <khatrin@health.missouri.edu>
Subject: Permission to Use Turnover Intention Scale

Dr. Khatri,

I am a doctoral student at The University of Texas at Tyler and am requesting permission to use the turnover intention scale consisting of 3-items. The items are anchored on a 5-point Likert-type scale, and the referenced article is noted below:

Khatri, N., Fern, C. T., & Budhwar, P. (2001). Explaining employee turnover in an Asian context. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 11(1), 54-74 doi: 10.1111/j.1748-8583.2001.tb00032.x

My study seeks to evaluate the effects of QWL on turnover intention with mediating effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment of Millennial employees in the United States. Please let me know if permission is granted by responding to this email.

Thanks in advance,

Julie Lewis, MS, MBA, PhD Candidate
(512) 373-2588

Appendix C: IRB Approval



INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

uttyler.edu/research ■ Fax: 903-565-5858

February 11, 2019

Dear Ms. Lewis,

Your request to conduct the study: *Effects of the Dimensions of Quality of Work Life (QWL) on Turnover Intention through Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment of Millennial Employees in the U.S.*, IRB # Spring2019-61 has been approved by The University of Texas at Tyler Institutional Review Board as a study exempt from further IRB review. This approval includes a waiver of signed, written informed consent. In addition, please ensure that any research assistants are knowledgeable about research ethics and confidentiality, and any co-investigators have completed human protection training within the past three years, and have forwarded their certificates to the IRB office (G. Duke).

Please review the UT Tyler IRB Principal Investigator Responsibilities, and acknowledge your understanding of these responsibilities and the following through return of this email to the IRB Chair within one week after receipt of this approval letter:

- Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB of any proposed changes to this research activity
- **Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB and academic department administration will be done of any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others**
- Suspension or termination of approval may be done if there is evidence of any serious or continuing noncompliance with Federal Regulations or any aberrations in original proposal.
- Any change in proposal procedures must be promptly reported to the IRB prior to implementing any changes except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject.
- Exempt with signed waiver of consent

Best of luck in your research, and do not hesitate to contact me if you need any further assistance.

Sincerely,

Gloria Duke, PhD, RN
Chair, UT Tyler IRB

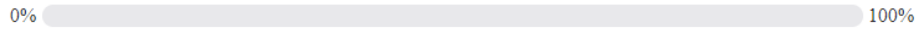
Appendix D: Survey Instrument

https://uttyler.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3qHkWr6JWteho15



To which generational cohort do you belong?

- 1945 or earlier (Silent & Greatest)
- 1946 - 1964 (Baby Boomer)
- 1965 - 1980 (Gen X)
- 1981 - 1996 (Millennial or Gen Y)
- 1997 - Present (Post-Millennial or Gen Z)

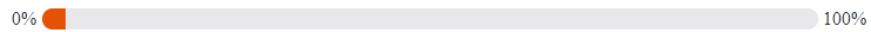


Appendix D: Continued



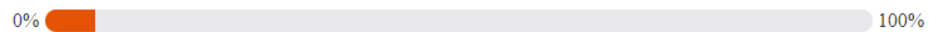
In which country are you employed?

- United States
- France
- Japan
- Brazil
- Australia
- South Africa
- Other



Are you self-employed?

- Yes
- No



Appendix D: Continued



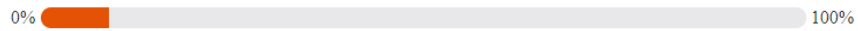
What is the third word in this question: "How many stars are in the American Flag?"

50

13



STARS



Appendix D: Continued



THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT TYLER

Informed Consent (Online, Anonymous) to Participate in Research

Institutional Review Board #TBD

Approval Date: TBD

You have been invited to participate in this study about employee perceptions of quality of work life, job satisfaction, and commitment related to their organizations. The purpose of this study is to measure your perception of dimensions of quality of work life (QWL), job satisfaction, and your commitment to the organization which employs you. Your participation is completely voluntary, and if you begin participation and choose to not complete it, you are free to not continue without any adverse consequences. To protect your confidentiality, your response will be anonymous. No identifying information such as your name or email address will be collected.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

Confirm that you are at least 18 years of age. Confirm that you voluntarily agree to complete an online multiple choice survey. Be willing to take approximately 15 minutes to answer all questions honestly as there are no right or wrong answers. Selecting the button that best corresponds to your response after reading each question or statement. Scroll down the page to answer all questions if needed and select NEXT to continue after each page. Complete the survey in one sitting.

We know of no known risks to this study, other than becoming a little tired of answering the questions, or you may even become a little stressed or distressed when answering some of the questions. If this happens, you are free to take a break and return to the survey to finish it, or, you can discontinue participation without any problems. Potential benefits to this study are:

1. Contribution to the HRD body of literature by providing empirical results relevant to U.S. Millennial employees to HRD professionals.
2. Contribution to practice as organizational leaders may be better equipped to manage the work environments for its employees.

Appendix D: Continued

I know my responses to the questions are anonymous. If I need to ask questions about this study, I can contact the principle researcher, Julie Lewis at jlewis56@patriots.uttyler.edu, or, if I have any questions about my rights as a research participant, I will contact Dr. Gloria Duke, Chair of the IRB, at (903) 566-7023, gduke@uttyler.edu, or the University's Office of Sponsored Research:

The University of Texas at Tyler
c/o Office of Sponsored Research
3900 University Blvd
Tyler, TX 75799

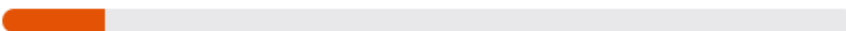
I understand that I may contact Dr. Duke with questions about research-related injuries.

I have read and understood what has been explained to me. I give my permission to take part in this study as it is explained to me. I give the study researcher permission to register me in this study. I have received a signed copy of this consent form.

I will click "Yes" in the box below and proceed to the survey. If I choose to not participate, I will click "No" in the box.

- Yes
- No



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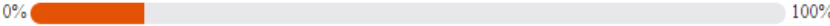
Appendix D: Continued



The following three questions are about whether you intend to leave your organization. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	strongly disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately agree	strongly agree
I intend to leave the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I intend to make a genuine effort to find another job over the next few months.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often think about quitting.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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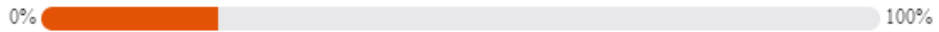
Appendix D: Continued



The following four statements are about how emotionally attached you are to your organization. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5
	strongly disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately agree	strongly agree
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



The following four statements are about your perceived cost of leaving your organization. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5
	strongly disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately agree	strongly agree
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



The following four statements are about your perceived obligation to your organization. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5
	strongly disagree	slightly disagree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately agree	strongly agree
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I owe a great deal to my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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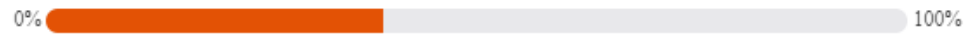


Appendix D: Continued



*Please click on the little blue circle at the bottom of the screen.
Do not click on the scale items that are labeled from 1 to 9.*

Very Rarely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very Frequently



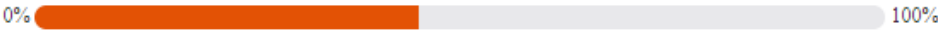
Appendix D: Continued



The following five statements are about how satisfied you are with your job. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5
	strongly disagree	slightly disagree	Undecided	slightly agree	strongly agree
I consider my job rather unpleasant.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Each day of work seems like it will never end.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find real enjoyment in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



Please select the button to the right of each item that reflects how you feel about the color blue.

	1	2	3	4	5
	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	neither agree nor disagree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
I prefer blue to other colors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like the color blue.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I like blue clothes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hope my next car is blue.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



The following six statements are about the degree to which your job or work environment allows balance between work and personal life, and is challenging and meaningful. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each question. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My current job does not interrupt my family life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The overtime of my current job is reasonable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The workload of my current job is reasonable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is challenging.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job is creative and meaningful.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



The following six statements are about the degree to which your work environment provides supervisory support, and you are fairly rewarded. Please read each statement carefully and indicate how much you agree with each question. Please be honest as there are no right or wrong answers. Often the best approach is to select the first response that comes to mind.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree little	Agree	Strongly agree
My supervisor instructs me how to improve my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor provides me with assistance to solve my job problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor acknowledges me when I perform well in my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am fairly rewarded compared to similar jobs in my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am fairly rewarded compared to similar jobs outside my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization cares about employee welfare.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Appendix D: Continued



In which industry are you employed?

- Healthcare
- Oil & Gas
- Higher Education
- Public Service
- Technology



Appendix D: Continued



Please answer the following general questions about yourself. Remember, none of this information is tied to your identity.

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

Which best describes your race/ethnicity?

- White
- Black or African American
- American Indian or Alaskan
- Asian
- Pacific Islander
- Hispanic or Latino or Spanish

What is your marital status?

- Single
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed

What is your highest level of education?

- Less than high school
- High school graduate
- Some college
- BA, BS degree
- MS, MBA, PhD, MD

Appendix D: Continued

How long have you worked at the company?

- Less than 1 year
 - 1 - 3 years
 - 3 - 5 years
 - 5 - 10 years
 - 10 - 20 years
 - More than 20 years
-

Do you manage or supervise people?

- Yes
 - No
-

Are you a full-time or part-time employee?

- Full-time
 - Part-time
-

Caruso, A. (2015); Business Insider (2013)



Appendix D: Continued



Your response has been recorded. Thank you for your time and participation. Please copy and paste the following code into the MTurk HIT to receive payment R_1pxMoqIMwoaMMA2



Appendix E: Data Cleaning Syntax

```
####Change to your working directory
setwd ("C:/Users/Julie Kay/Desktop/Documents/HRD 6695 - Dissertation/QWL Clean &
      FA")
####setwd ("C:/Users/jlewis32/Downloads/QWL Pilot")

####Install necessary packages (first time only)
####install.packages("psych")
####install.packages("car")

####Load libraries
library(foreign, pos=4)
library(psych)
library(car)

####Read in dataset (one version with coded values and the other as choice text)
dso1 <-
  read.table("QWLCSV.csv",
            header=TRUE, sep=";", na.strings="NA", dec=".", strip.white=TRUE)
dso2 <-
  read.table("QWLCT.csv",
            header=TRUE, sep=";", na.strings="NA", dec=".", strip.white=TRUE)

####Look at dataset and column ids
head (dso2)

names(dso2)

####Create dataset with coded values
ds<-dso1

####Overwrite demographics and screening questions with data from choice text file
ds[,c(18,19,20,61:68)]<-dso2[,c(18,19,20,61:68)]

ds[,c("Cohort","Country","EMP","Industry","Gender","Race","Marriage","Edu","Tenure",
      "Supv","Time")]<-
dso2[,c("Cohort","Country","EMP","Industry","Gender","Race","Marriage","Edu","Tenu
      re","Supv","Time")]

####Change names of columns
names(ds)[c(6,64,65,67,68)]<-
  c("Time","MaritalStatus","EduLevel","Mgr","WorkStatus")
names(ds)[c(23:37,40:60)]<-substring(names(ds)[c(23:37,40:60)],1)
```

Appendix E: Continued

```
names(ds)

###See total responses
nrow(ds)

###Hand edit dataset to create no consent
#ds<-edit(ds)

###Initialize delete variable
ds$Delete<-"Keep"

###Flag responses that did not pass screening questions
table(ds$Cohort,ds$Country,ds$EMP,useNA="ifany")

levels(ds$Cohort)

levels(ds$Country)

levels(ds$EMP)

ds$Delete[(ds$Cohort=="")|(ds$Cohort=="Silent")|(ds$Cohort=="Boomer")|(ds$Cohort=
  ="GenX")|(ds$Cohort=="GenZ")|(ds$Country!="US")|(ds$EMP!="No")]<-
  "Screen"
table(ds$Delete)

###Flag responses from BOTs
table(ds$Delete,ds$BotCheck,useNA="ifany")
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep") & (ds$BotCheck!=4)]<-"BOT"
table(ds$Delete)

###Flag responses that did not consent
table(ds$Delete,ds$Consent,useNA="ifany")
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep") & (is.na(ds$Consent)| (ds$Consent!=1))]<-"Consent"
table(ds$Delete)

###Flag responses that did not pass IMC1
table(ds$Delete,ds$IMC1_1,useNA="ifany")
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep") & !is.na(ds$IMC1_1)]<-"IMC1"
table(ds$Delete)

###Flag responses that did not pass IMC2
```


Appendix E: Continued

```
table(ds$Delete,ds$IMC2,useNA="ifany")
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep") & is.na(ds$IMC2)]<-"IMC2"
table(ds$Delete)

####Flag incompleters
table(ds$Delete,ds$Finished)
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep")&(ds$Finished==0)]<-"Incomplete"
table(ds$Delete)

####Change time from seconds to minutes
ds$Time<-ds$Time/60
hist(ds$Time)
describe(ds$Time)
#table(ds$Time)

####Flag duration <0.5 minutes > 60 minutes
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep")&((ds$Time<0.5) | (ds$Time>60))]<-"Time"
table(ds$Delete)

####Create variable that shows standard deviation of how people responded to TI items
ds$TIsd<- apply(subset(ds,select=TI1:TI3),1,sd)

####Create variable that shows standard deviation of how people responded to OC items
ds$OCsd<- apply(subset(ds,select=AC1:NC4),1,sd)

####Create variable that shows standard deviation of how people responded to JS items
ds$JSsd<- apply(subset(ds,select=JS1:JS5),1,sd)

####Create variable that shows standard deviation of how people responded to QWL items
ds$QWLsd<- apply(subset(ds,select=WB1:CB3),1,sd)

####Flag straight lined responses
ds$Delete[(ds$Delete=="Keep") &
          ((ds$TIsd==0)|(ds$OCsd==0)|(ds$JSsd==0)|(ds$QWLsd==0))]<-"Straightline"
table(ds$Delete)

####Write dataset out that can be used to assist determining MTurk payment
write.csv(ds,"QWLOrig.csv",row.names=FALSE)

####Omit unusable responses
ds<-subset(ds,Delete=="Keep")
nrow(ds)

####Omit IP Addresses
```

Appendix E: Continued

```
ds<-subset(ds,select=-c(IPAddress))
head(ds)

###Recode any negatively worded items
ds$JS1r<-recode(ds$JS1,'1=5; 2=4; 3=3; 4=2; 5=1')
ds$JS2r<-recode(ds$JS2,'1=5; 2=4; 3=3; 4=2; 5=1')

names (ds)

describe(subset(ds,select=c(WB1:CB3,JS1r,JS2r,JS1:JS5,AC1:NC4,TI1:TI3)))

table(ds$Industry)
table(ds$Industry)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$Gender)
table(ds$Gender)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$Race)
table(ds$Race)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$MaritalStatus)
table(ds$MaritalStatus)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$EduLevel)
table(ds$EduLevel)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$Tenure)
table(ds$Tenure)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$Mgr)
table(ds$Mgr)/nrow(ds)

table(ds$WorkStatus)
table(ds$WorkStatus)/nrow(ds)

write.csv(ds,"QWLclean.csv",row.names=FALSE)
```