

MOTIVATING GENERATIONS IN THE WORKPLACE: A LOOK AT HOPE AND
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

By

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To my mom for teaching me work ethic and my dad for being my spiritual leader

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	4
LIST OF TABLES.....	9
LIST OF FIGURES.....	10
ABSTRACT	11
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	13
Background of Generation Studies	15
Generations in the Workplace.....	16
Generational Differences	17
Statement of the Problem	18
Purpose and Objectives.....	22
Significance of the Problem	22
Definition of Terms.....	24
Limitations of the Study.....	25
Assumptions of the Study	25
Chapter Summary.....	25
2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	27
Generational Theory	27
Motivation Theory	30
Theoretical Framework	32
Hope.....	35
Organizational Commitment.....	37
Conceptual Framework.....	40
Generations in the Workplace	41
Motivating Generations.....	43
Hope.....	45
Organizational Commitment.....	46
Conceptual Model.....	47
3 RESEARCH METHODS	49
Research Design	49
Population and Sample.....	50
Data Collection	51
Instrumentation	53
Data Analysis.....	56

Summary	57
4 RESULTS	58
Demographics.....	60
Sex	60
Marital Status	60
Generational Cohort	60
Race/Ethnicity	61
Education	61
Yearly Household Income	62
Objective 1	63
Veterans.....	63
Baby Boomers.....	63
Generation X	64
Millennials.....	64
Objective 2.....	65
Objective 3.....	67
Objective 4.....	69
Objective 5.....	70
Summary	73
5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	74
Objectives.....	74
Methodology	75
Summary of Findings.....	75
Demographics	75
Objective 1: Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts.....	76
Objective 2: Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort	76
Objective 3: Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort	77
Objective 4: Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment	77
Objective 5: Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics.....	77
Conclusions	78
Objective 1: Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts.....	78
Objective 2: Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort	79
Objective 3: Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort	79
Objective 4: Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment	79

Objective 5: Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics.....	80
Discussion and Implications.....	80
National Research Agenda	89
Recommendations	90
Recommendations for Practice	90
Recommendations for Research	91
Summary	91

APPENDIX

A INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL.....	92
B SURVEY COMPLETION REQUESTS.....	94
Initial Contact Email	95
First Follow-Up Email.....	96
Second Follow-Up Email.....	97
Third Follow-Up Email.....	98
Fourth Follow-Up Email	99
Fifth Follow-Up Email.....	100
Final Contact Email.....	101
C INSTRUMENTATION	102
Motivation Sources Inventory.....	102
State Hope Scale.....	104
Organizational Commitment Scale	105
LIST OF REFERENCES	107
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH.....	116

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>page</u>
1-1 Generational Cohorts in the 2010 labor force	14
4-1 Participants by sex.....	60
4-2 Participants by marital status	60
4-3 Participants by generational cohort.....	61
4-4 Participants by race/ethnicity	61
4-5 Participants by education	62
4-6 Participants by yearly household income	62
4-7 MSI scores for Veterans.....	63
4-8 MSI scores for Baby Boomers	63
4-9 MSI scores for Generation X.....	64
4-10 MSI scores for Millennials	64
4-11 Hope scale scores by generational cohort	66
4-12 One-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and hope	67
4-13 Organizational commitment scores by generational cohort.....	68
4-14 One-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and organizational commitment	69
4-15 Relationship between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment ...	70
4-16 Backward Regression Analysis of Agency (Hope)	71
4-17 Backward Regression Analysis of Pathway (Hope)	71
4-18 Backward Regression Analysis of Normative Commitment	72
4-19 Backward Regression Analysis of Continuance Commitment.....	73

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>page</u>
2-1 Conceptual model of the relationship between generational sources of motivation, hope and organizational commitment.....	48

Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
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MOTIVATING GENERATIONS IN THE WORKPLACE: A LOOK AT HOPE AND
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By

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Today's workplace has received much attention from the media and in social science research regarding generational differences. Today's workplace is comprised of four generations: Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials. This research sought to examine if any differences existed between generations regarding workplace motivation, hope and organizational commitment. The theoretical frameworks used in this study were Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept-Based Work Motivation model, Snyder's et al. (1991) hope theory, and Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment.

A convenience sample was taken of an institution in the southeast region of the United States (n=130). A web-based survey was utilized and the research design was descriptive. The study found that the primary source of workplace motivation for each generation was self-concept internal and the secondary source of workplace motivation for each generation was goal internalization, with the exception of Millennials. Millennials secondary source of workplace motivation was self-concept external. Each generation was found to have high hope and scored close to ideal on the organizational

commitment scale. Statistical analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between generations regarding workplace motivation, hope, and organizational commitment. However, correlational analysis revealed that normative commitment and continuance commitment were positively related to goal internalization. The results indicate that the media has falsely stereotyped generations in this workplace and that generational differences may be context bound.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The United States has been facing a major shift in demographics. Current research shows the workforce has been both aging (process of growing older) and shrinking (reducing in size) (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Due to the 2008 economic crisis, older workers merely cannot afford to retire and many are expected to enter second careers in the workforce (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). According to the Pew Research Center's Social & Demographic Trends in 2009, half of all working adults in the United States between the ages of 50 and 64 say they will delay retirement and another 16% reported they never expect to stop working (Tapscott, 2009). In addition to the lingering of older workers, the youngest workers, those born between 1977 and 1997 are rapidly entering the workforce (Tapscott, 2009). According to Tapscott (2009), in 2009 younger workers represented only 22% of all workers, but are expected to represent 47% of all workers by 2014 (Tapscott, 2009). According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010), in 2010 Millennials (the youngest workers) represented 23.4% of employed workers, Generation X represented 32.7%, Baby Boomers represented 39.4%, and Veterans represented 4.5%. Table 1-1 reports the generational cohorts that were employed, unemployed, and not in labor force in 2010.

Considering these trends, age diversity has become the most recent problem facing organizations today (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Eisner, 2005). Despite workforce diversity in the past pertaining to gender, race and ethnicity, age diversity distinguishes today's workforce (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). As a result of age diversity, employees are likely to engage in workplace conflict caused by differing values,

Table 1-1. Generational Cohorts in the 2010 labor force

Generational Cohort	Employed		Unemployed		Not in labor force	Population
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Total
Veteran	6,268	4.5	449	3.0	31,988	38,705
Baby Boomer	54,827	39.4	4,429	30.0	20,926	80,182
Generation X	45,474	32.7	4,205	28.0	10,213	59,892
Millennial	32,494	23.4	5,741	39.0	20,814	59,049
Total	139,063		14,824		83,941	237,828

Note. Numbers in thousands. Adapted from the Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010). Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population by age, sex, and race [Household data annual averages]. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat3.pdf>

perspectives and reactions (Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Dwyer, 2009). The response to age trends and concerns in the workplace by researchers, managers and other practitioners is heavily focused on understanding generational differences.

Background of Generation Studies

The notion of generations has been commonly used in everyday language to differentiate age groups in society. However, generational research can be traced back four thousand years ago (Braungart and Braungart, 1984; Lauer, 1973). The focus of generational research began by the influence of the nineteenth century French positivists and the German romantic-historical movement of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Carpini, 1989). The French positivists believed that generations were connected by the biological process of aging and the process of generational replacement every century. On the other hand, the German romantic-historical movement made the distinction between an “age cohort” and a “generation” (Carpini, 1989).

Carpini (1989) explains that an age cohort is a group of people who fall into the same age group in a specific time period. For example, an age cohort is all individuals between the ages of eighteen and twenty-eight in the year 1982. This example implies nothing specific about this age group other than age similarity. Conversely, a generation, as Mannheim (1972) elucidated, “implies some shared experiences, some common bond that is ‘imprinted’ on a particular age cohort within a population” (pg. 303). According to Mannheim (1972), an age cohort should be viewed as a “potential generation,” because it may or may not develop into an “actual generation,” this transformation depends on whether a common bond is formed. Therefore, one should not assume that people of similar ages belong to the same generation, but if people of

similar ages share cultural, social or economic experiences or any defining movements in history, then perhaps they are a part of the same generation.

Since the nineteenth century, generational research has mostly evolved around the views of the German romantic-historical movement. In 1923, Karl Mannheim wrote, "The Problem of Generations," which has become the most widespread interpretation believed among researchers because of its systemic nature and due to it being a fully developed treatment of generations from a sociological perspective (Pilcher, 1994). Since 1923, researchers have continued to study generations in the context of the workforce and covering a multitude of areas including: personalities, core values, defining cultural, economic and social events, as well as leadership preferences, and generational gaps in the workplace (Kogan, 2001; Ansoorian, Good & Samuelson, 2003; Hammill, 2005; Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Dulin, 2008).

Generations in the Workplace

Generations are receiving much attention, due in part to America's workforce today being more unique than any other time in history (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). For the first time ever today's workplace is comprised of four generations (Arsenault, 2004; Glass, 2007; Macky, Gardner & Forsyth, 2008; Dwyer, 2009). Most research has been consistent on the four generations found in the workplace today: Veterans (core values: hard work, dedication, respect for authority), Baby Boomers (core values: optimism, personal gratification and growth), Generation X (core values: diversity, technoliteracy, fun and informality), and Millennials (also referred to as Gen Y; core values: optimism, civic duty, confidence, achievement), (Dwyer, 2009; Zemke et al., 2000; Arsenault, 2003). However, only a general consensus is known in defining the birth years of each generation. According to Dwyer (2009) the following define the birth

years: Veterans (1915-1945), Baby Boomers (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1980) and Millennials (1980-present) (Dwyer, 2009).

The age range of employees has progressively widened as Baby Boomers are resistant to exit the workforce (Dencker, Aparna & Martocchio, 2007) and Millennials enter the workforce. Veterans and Millennials comprise the smallest percentage of workers, while Baby Boomers and Generation X comprise the largest percentage of workers (Glass, 2007; Howe & Strauss, 2000). According to a poll in 2004 by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), human resource professionals reported that on average their workplace consisted of approximately 10 percent Veterans, 44% Baby Boomers, 34% Generation X and 12% Millennials (Burke, 2004). Predominantly, Veterans are phasing out of the workforce and Millennials are making a vastly increasing appearance (Glass, 2007; Dwyer, 2009). With changes in age demographics as well as gender, ethnic, religious, and racial diversity (Murphy, Gibson & Greenwood, 2010) the workplace is experiencing a severe transformation (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Therefore, many researchers would agree that research in this area will be just as important today as it was in past years.

Generational Differences

Many scholars have acknowledged the existence of generational differences in the workplace (Zemke, 2001; Ansoorian, Good, & Samuelson, 2003; Dulin, 2008; Dwyer, 2009, Salahuddin, 2010). Thus, there has been an emergent awareness that misinterpretations and bitterness among the older and younger generations has been on the rise and problematic (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Differences in values, ambitions, views, mind-sets, goals, experiences, expectations and demographics are many of the problems that managers are facing in the workplace (Zemke et al., 2000;

Kogan, 2001). Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) stated that “conflicting voices and views fill today’s workplace due to the most age and value diverse workforce this country has known since our great-great-grandparents vacated field and farm for factory and office” (p.10).

Many potential effects of generational differences in the workplace have been identified. According to Smola and Sutton (2002) and Hammill (2005), ignoring generational differences will cause miscommunication, high employee turnover, and challenges when attracting employees and increasing motivation and commitment. Furthermore, Dulin (2008) stated that organizations with an understanding of generational differences will have a competitive edge, increased recruitment and retention, thereby creating a steadfast organization. Arsenault (2004) stated that failure to understand generational differences prevents organizations from capitalizing on the strengths of generational cohorts.

Statement of the Problem

According to Tulgan (2004), in the midst of a powerful demographic shift, managers are being pressured to increase productivity and product quality. Therefore, a problem manifests as to where managers should focus their attention, on diversity issues or on technical processes. Managers who neglect to supervise their employees will spend more time reconciling employee conflicts, correcting employee errors, recovering lost resources and resolving vendor and customer complaints (Tulgan, 2004). However, when managers learn to focus their attention on employees, they will generate higher productivity, quality, moral and retention (Tulgan, 2004). Therefore, as Eisner (2005) warned, managers should be weary of oversimplifying workplace

differences, and should view generational differences as one important aspect of diversity that requires attention.

In addition to the pressures of productivity, managers have already faced challenges with multiple generations in the workforce. For example, since the arrival of Generation X in the workplace, Baby Boomers have been unable to master their management (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Furthermore, with the addition of Millennials in the workplace, managing generations will merely become more complex; especially when all four generations are managing each other. In fact, 85% of respondents to a poll by the SHRM in April 2011 (n=263) stated that employees in their organizations were reporting to managers of younger generations (SHRM, 2011). In the same study, the SHRM found that one problem with older generations reporting to younger generations was that older generations disliked the management style of younger generations (SHRM, 2004). With these challenges in workplace dynamics, managers and leaders must be able to embrace the differences and similarities among generations by understanding critical life experiences and resulting beliefs, behaviors, and attitudes that shape each generation (Hill, 2002).

Furthermore, managers and leaders should understand motivational differences among generations, because Tulgan (2004), makes it apparent that managing a workplace with a one-size-fits all approach will no longer work and traditional management tactics will need to be replaced. Hatfield (2002) also claims that one reward system in a workplace of four generations is unlikely to satisfy everyone. Therefore, rewards and encouragement must be structured to align with the values and beliefs among each generation (Hatfield, 2002). Work must be enriched (satisfying) for

all generations to be motivated (Herzberg, 1968). According to Herzberg (1968) when employees are motivated, performance levels and job satisfaction will increase, which results in lower absenteeism and turnover. Therefore, determining what the sources of work motivation are for each generation will further explain what managers can do to keep an engaged workplace. The meta-theory of work motivation (Leonard, Beauvais & Scholl, 1999) provides tangible ways for managers in workplace settings to adjust tasks and responsibilities to align more fully with an employee's source of work motivation. In order to embrace the age diversity in the workplace and maintain productivity, understanding sources of work motivation among varying generations must be known (Barbuto & Miller, 2008).

Consequently, the problem under investigation was to determine the sources of work motivation for the four generations in the workplace. Motivating employees to do what those with formal power want them to do has been said by Maccoby (1988) to be a longstanding problem of management and leadership. Understanding employee's work motivation sources, such as interests, values, and beliefs, will be one way that organizations will be able to successfully compete and survive (Maccoby, 1988). Along with identifying sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment were two additional constructs under investigation. With knowledge of the existing levels of hope and organizational commitment among generations, managers can use motivation tactics to increase levels of both constructs. When levels of hope are high, employees can take on long term goals that are more complex in nature (Snyder, 1995). Employees with higher levels of hope are also more motivated to accomplish goals, because they can visualize and describe their goals (Snyder, 1995). Managers can also

use motivation tactics to influence organizational commitment. When an employee is highly committed to an organization, they are embedded in the mission and vision of the organization, often working harder and better at their jobs when compared to employees with weaker levels of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). For managers to fully utilize the talents of their workers, they must first identify and adapt to the era-shaped needs of employees who will not become fully engaged until their most urgent needs are met (Dulin, 2008). Understanding the sources of work motivation, along with levels of hope and organizational commitment among generations, will provide managers with knowledge for meeting the needs of their employees.

Limited educational research on generations in the 1990s shows a gap in the discussion of generations and suggests that the discussion of generations has been period bound and lacking perspective (Smith, 2001). Therefore, further research on generations will provide depth and perspective in understanding the multiple generations co-existing in the workplace, particularly with regards to differences. Although past research has acknowledged that generational differences exist, most of this research has been qualitative and focused on differing values, attitudes, and behaviors (Murphy, Gibson, & Greenwood, 2010). Looking beyond the behaviors of employees to understanding what drives them, will provide managers and leaders with advantages on effectively motivating and influencing employees (Lipkin & Perrymore, 2009). Without specific knowledge of generational differences managers will be unable to embrace these differences and utilize existing talent. According to Arsenault (2004), the principal reason for generational misunderstandings is the limited empirical research to validate generational differences (Arsenault, 2004). The lack of knowledge regarding

the implications of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment in the workplace established the need for this research.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to ascertain if differences exist between generations with regards to sources of work motivation and to determine the impact of work motivation on hope and organizational commitment. Dominant and secondary sources of work motivation were identified for Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Millennials. The following were the objectives for this study:

- To identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts
- Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort
- Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort
- To describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment
- To predict hope and organizational commitment based on motivation with selected demographics

Significance of the Problem

Human resource policies and employee development plans are affected in two major ways with the existence of multiple generations in the workplace, retention and motivation (Glass, 2007). Each generation reacts differently to these plans and partly due to differing expectations (Glass, 2007). Understanding the needs, desires, and expectations of each generation will give human resource professionals and managers an advantage in evaluating existing programs and designing new programs. Management must find ways to utilize the strengths of all generations and make decisions with each cohort in mind (Glass, 2007).

According to Meister and Willyerd (2010), human resource professionals and managers are not the only people concerned with generational differences; Veterans and Baby Boomers are concerned about working for a manager in a workplace of four generations. Both Veterans and Boomers want to work for a manager who understands how to deal with age diversity in the workplace (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Employers who adapt to a multigenerational workforce the fastest, by understanding each generation, will be equipped to attract the highest quality of talent in a competitive workforce (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Emphasizing and centering research on understanding generational differences and recognizing the types of conflicts that could potentially arise allows managers to have a better understanding of generational preferences in a workplace setting. When a manager has an awareness of generational differences, they are more prepared to regulate the differences in order to enhance team and organizational success (Glass, 2007).

In addition, this study was an effort to further the body of knowledge regarding generational differences in the workplace for the benefit of researchers, leaders, managers, management consultants and human resource professionals. This study will provide stakeholders with generation specific knowledge that will aid when designing incentive programs, workplace policies and benefits, communicating with employees, managing for diversity, strategizing recruitment efforts, conducting job matching and design, as well as designing training programs and conducting future research.

Furthermore, this study sought to address the National Research Agenda for Agricultural Education and Communication (Osborne, n.d). This agenda provided

research priority areas and key outcomes for 2011. This research specifically addressed priority area 3.

Priority 3: Sufficient scientific and professional workforce that addresses the challenges of the 21st century.

- Key Outcome: A sufficient supply of well-prepared agricultural scientists and professionals will drive sustainable growth, scientific discovery, and innovation in public, private, and academic settings.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this research, the following terms were operationally defined.

1. Generation: a group, also referred to as a cohort that shares birth years, age location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages, divided by five to seven years into the first wave, core group, and last wave (Kupperschmidt, 2000).
2. Veteran: people born between the years of 1915 and 1945. Core values: dedication, hard work and respect for authority (Dwyer, 2009)
3. Baby Boomer: people born between the years of 1946 and 1964. Core values: optimism, personal gratification and growth (Dwyer, 2009)
4. Generation Xers: people born between the years of 1965 and 1979. Core values: diversity, technoliteracy, fun and informality (Dwyer, 2009)
5. Millennial: people born from 1980 to present. Core values: optimism, civic duty, confidence and achievement (Dwyer, 2009)
6. Work Motivation: energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration (Pinder, 1998). In this study work motivation was defined as the subject's results on the Motivational Sources Inventory (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998).
7. Hope: a unidimensional construct involving an overall perception that goals can be met (Snyder & et al, 1991). It is the process of thinking about one's goals, along with the motivation to move toward and the ways to achieve one's goals (Snyder, 1995). In this study hope was defined by a subject's results on the State Hope Scale (Snyder & et al., 1996).
8. Organizational Commitment: the strength of an employee's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

In this study organizational commitment was defined by the subject's results to the Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1997).

Limitations of the Study

As with any study, there were certain limitations that existed within the generalizability of this study. This study sampled employees at a mid-sized, multi-branch institution in the southeast region of the United States. Therefore, the findings of this study are limited in generalizability to other organizations, due to the purposive sampling method. The second limitation was encountered due to the use of a purposive sampling technique, which limits the ability to account for sampling error. In addition, controlling for social desirability was an important limitation for this study. Stereotypes associated with generational cohorts could influence the way a study participant responded to survey questions.

Assumptions of the Study

There was one basic assumption for the purpose of this study. The assumption was that the study participants were truthful about their age and were placed in the appropriate generational cohort.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to address the lack of understanding regarding the existence of generational differences with respect to work motivation. In addition, hope and organizational commitment were analyzed to determine if sources of work motivation impacted the level of either construct. With a workforce comprised of four generations, managers, human resource professionals and consultants who are cognizant of the different behaviors, attitudes, and needs of each generation stand in a better position to meet those needs. According to Bohlander and Snell (2010), "people

are more important in today's organizations than ever before... competitive advantage belongs to companies that know how to attract, select, deploy, and develop talent" (pg.4). The findings of this research will be useful for managers, leaders, human resources professionals and consultants who strive to create a workplace where employees can reach their ultimate potential and feel valued.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to ascertain if differences exist between generations with regards to sources of work motivation and to determine the relationship between work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. The objectives of this study were to: 1) identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts, 2) determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort, 3) determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort, 4) describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment, and 5) predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics.

This chapter presents a review of the salient literature and research relevant to this study. The review of literature was concerned with generational cohorts and generational differences in the workplace, as well as theories of generations, work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. The literature review begins with a comprehensive outline of the theoretical framework used to conduct this research and develops into a conceptual framework. Through an understanding of both the theoretical foundation, as well as previous research, the gap in the current knowledge base and the need for future research will become more perceptible.

Generational Theory

The underlying principle of studying a workforce by generation affiliation can be illustrated best by considering Howe and Strauss's (1991) generational theory. This was based on social identity theory, which states that people tend to find their identity by placing themselves in a social category (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Through this process,

individuals adopt characteristics and behaviors that reflect the group in which they categorized themselves. Therefore, according to Howe & Strauss (1991), a generation can be seen as a subset of the social identity theory where a group of people seeks self-identification through their generational cohort. Furthermore, a generational cohort is comprised of people who share life experiences, such as historical or social experiences. These experiences have a propensity to distinguish one generation from another (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998).

Accordingly, Howe and Strauss (1991) stated that each generation has its own biography that tells the story of how the generation's personality was shaped and subsequently, how its personality shapes other generations. In addition, a generation also has a peer personality, defined by Howe and Strauss (1991) as a "generational persona recognized and determined by (1) common age location; (2) common beliefs and behaviors; and (3) perceived membership in a common generation" (p. 64). A peer personality helps distinguish one generation from the next based on those three areas. According to Coomes and DeBard (2004), the third area should be viewed with highest importance, because in order for a generation to form, the members of the generation must see themselves as being distinct from other generations.

At the core of generational theory lies the strong link between age and societal events, which lead to the concept Howe and Strauss (1991) refer to as a "cohort group." A cohort group is a group of people born within a specific span of years. Thus, Howe and Strauss (1991) defined a generation as a "special cohort group whose length approximately matches that of a basic phase of life, or about twenty-two years over the last three centuries" (pg. 34). Based on age locations in history, generations live vastly

diverse lifestyles that continue to move forward in time as generations grow older. For that reason, Howe and Strauss (1991) visualized age location along a generational diagonal that allows a connection between an event, an age and the behavior of a certain generation over a period of time.

Additionally, generational theory posits that generations shape history as much as history shapes generations. Therefore, a second principal of generational theory reasons that as social moments affect people in different phases of life, these moments define their generation. However, different phases of life can also trigger social moments, and this circumstance allows generations to shape and define history (Howe & Strauss, 1991).

Furthermore, generational theory includes what Howe and Strauss (1991) referred to as dominant and recessive generations. Generations become dominant when they must respond to crises during their progression to adulthood (ages 22-43). In contrast, other generations become recessive when they do not experience crises as they mature into adulthood. Howe and Strauss (1991) gave the example of the GI generation (born 1901-1924) being a dominant generation in response to the Great Depression and World War II. However, the Veteran generation has been coined as recessive due to growing up during a period of postwar peace and prosperity.

The final concept of generation theory describes the four diagonal life cycles that generations pass through in a fixed order, as long as society rebounds from any given crisis with reasonable success. The four stages include: idealist, reactive, civic and adaptive. According to Howe and Strauss (1991), the passage of four generations from idealist through adaptive completes one full generation cycle, occurring over the course

of ninety years. The four life cycles were described as follows by Howe and Strauss (1991), where spiritual awakening refers to a society focused on changing world values and behavior, and secular crises refer to a society focused on reordering outer world institutions and public behavior:

- “A dominant, inner-fixated Idealist Generation grows up as increasingly indulged youths after a secular crisis; comes to age inspiring a spiritual awakening; fragments into a narcissistic rising adults; cultivates principle as moralistic midlifers; and emerges as visionary elders guiding the next secular crisis” (p. 74)
- “A recessive Reactive Generation grows up as underprotected and criticized youths during a spiritual awakening; matures into risk-taking, alienated rising adults; mellows into pragmatic midlife leaders during a secular crisis; and maintains respect (but less influence) as reclusive elders” (p. 74)
- “A dominant, outer-fixated Civic Generation grows up as increasingly protected youths after a spiritual awakening; comes of age overcoming a secular crisis; unities into a heroic and achieving cadre of rising adults; sustains that image while building institutions as powerful midlifers; and emerges as busy elders attacked by the next spiritual awakening” (p. 74)
- “A recessive Adaptive Generation grows up as overprotected and suffocated youths during a secular crisis; matures into risk-averse, conformist rising adults; produces indecisive midlife arbitrator-leaders during a spiritual awakening; and maintains influence (but less respect) as sensitive elders” (p. 74)

Motivation Theory

Maslow's (1943) Theory of Human Motivation posits that human needs arrange themselves in hierarchies of dominance, where each need builds off the satisfaction of the prior dominant need. Five areas of basic human needs are identified in hierarchical order by the Theory of Human Motivation: psychological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization. People are motivated to achieve certain levels of desire within each need or maintain certain conditions of each need. However, when each need has been met, motivation to actively seek resources to satisfy hunger ceases (Maslow, 1943). In addition, psychological threats develop when

any thwarting interferes with basic human needs, where emergency reactions generally result (Maslow, 1943). Certain conditions must exist before need satisfaction occurs, such as freedom to speak, freedom to do what one wishes as long as others are not harmed, freedom to express one's self, freedom to investigate and seek information, and freedom to defend one's self. Justice, fairness, honesty and orderliness are examples of prerequisites for basic need satisfactions (Maslow, 1943).

Fredrick Herzberg expanded Maslow's Theory of Human Motivation to be more practical and applicable to the meaning of work life (Haasen & Shea, 1997). The premise behind Herzberg's theory was to determine what workers really wanted from their jobs (Herzberg, 1959). Herzberg's (1959) Theory of Motivation and Hygiene Factors has been referred to as a two-factor theory (Haasen & Shea, 1997) that helps identify factors that impact workers' attitude toward their jobs. Herzberg identified the two independent sets of factors as job satisfiers (motivators) and job dissatisfiers (hygiene factors). The satisfiers consist of five components: achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. The dissatisfiers are working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, pay, and company policy (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). The satisfiers have been found to produce long-term impacts, while the dissatisfiers have produced short-term impacts (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

Vroom (1964) developed the Theory of Work Motivation by coalescing theories of other researchers (Ramlall, 2004). Vroom's theory assumes that individual behavior is derived from conscious choices amid alternatives that are systematically related to psychological processes primarily resulting from beliefs and attitudes (Pinder, 1984).

Vroom placed emphasis on the level of motivation and the outcome of performance, defining performance as the degree to which an individual believes a certain level of performance will lead to a desired outcome (Vroom, 1964; Ramlall, 2004). Vroom identified three components that initiate and direct behavior: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Valence encompasses the emotional attachment, strength, and preference or value an individual holds towards outcomes (Vroom, 1964). Vroom (1964) described instrumentality as a probability that a certain outcome will lead to other outcomes. Additionally, expectancy is the belief an individual holds regarding the actuality that certain outcomes are possible (Vroom, 1964).

Theoretical Framework

As a result of early motivational theories focusing on basic human needs and studies thereafter becoming replete in literature, the foundation of this study was built on Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept–Based Work Motivation model. Leonard et al.'s (1999) model is a metatheory of work motivation that linked existing theories together for the purpose of developing a unifying framework for motivation in an organizational setting (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999). Many of the sources of motivation included in this model have been discussed in extant literature and generally accepted among researchers as valid. However, Leonard et al. (1999) discovered that the existing sources of motivation lacked the ability to account for a variety of employee behaviors. Consequently, Leonard et al. (1999) included self-concept as a valid source of explaining motivation and behavior in their theory.

Leonard et al. (1999) proposed that individuals have perceptions of traits, competencies, and values. Traits describe relatively permanent patterns of behavior or reaction tendencies. Competencies include the skills, abilities, talents, and knowledge

individuals believe of themselves. Values refer to concepts and beliefs an individual holds toward a desirable end state. Such values rise above situations, events and evaluations of behavior and are observable through one's speech or actions (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Leonard et al., 1999). Leonard et al. (1999) contextualized traits, competencies and values into three interrelated self-perceptions: the perceived self, the ideal self, and a set of social identities.

The perceived self expresses the set of perceptions individuals hold about their actual traits, competencies, and values. Through the interaction with the environment and the formation of attitudes, the perceived self is developed. However, the ideal self describes the traits, competencies and values an individual desires to possess. The ideal self is developed through the association with a reference group that provides positive or negative feedback. Positive feedback elicits one to internalize the traits, competencies, and values important to the reference group. Conversely, amidst negative feedback from the reference group, one may partially internalize the accepted traits, competencies and values or not internalize any. Continuing to social identities, individuals will place themselves into a social category where they perceive themselves to belong (Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Leonard et al., 1999). Social identities are developed through reference group participation and interactions (Leonard et al., 1999).

Furthermore, in an organizational setting once a social identity has been established, an employee acts based on behavioral options, sets and accepts goals, engages in projects, and typically exerts behavior for social feedback that aligns with the employee's self-concept. Over time, the self-concept develops into a source of

motivation as a result of an individual's motivation to sustain or enhance his/her internalized perception of self (Leonard et al., 1999).

Therefore, Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) offered five propositions for unifying sources of work motivation. Proposition one suggested that there are five basic sources of work motivation: intrinsic process, extrinsic/instrumental rewards, self-concept external, self-concept internal, and goal internalization. Proposition two suggested that motivational profiles can characterize individuals based on strengths of each source. Proposition three suggested that every individual has a dominant source of motivation that stands as a basis for decision making and behavior. Proposition four suggested that an individual's dominant source of motivation will overcome in the event two or more sources of motivation conflict. Proposition five suggested that motivation source profiles differ for individuals when situations or identity change (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999).

A comprehensive description of each motivation source was provided by Leonard et al. (1999) as projected in proposition one. The first source, intrinsic process motivation, is possessed by employees who are motivated to perform work or certain types of behavior for the pure fun of doing. Intrinsically motivated employees are unconcerned with feedback on performance and regularly deflect from job tasks leading to goal attainment, in order to pursue more enjoyable tasks. Second, employees dominant in instrumental motivation see goal attainment linked to higher levels of extrinsic rewards, such as pay or promotions. Employees motivated instrumentally will solve conflict by seeking alternatives leading to goal attainment. The third source, self-concept external, identifies employees that are motivated by meeting the expectations

of others, and, therefore, employees behave in ways that elicit social feedback consistent with their self-concept. Fourth, self-concept internal dominant employees are motivated to engage in behaviors that are consistent with their internal standards and that lead to higher competencies. Employees will overcome conflicting plans by remaining committed to the plan that results in feedback linked to internal values. Although self-concept internal employees will not take credit for success, they must believe success was a result of their involvement. The last source of motivation, goal internalization, is unlike all the other sources, due to the removal of self-interest (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Thus, attitudes and behaviors are based solely on an employee's personal value system (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). Social feedback provides employees with reassurance that they are progressing toward goal attainment (Leonard, Beauvais, & Scholl, 1999).

Hope

Although many scholars have defined hope as a unidimensional construct of the overall perception that goals can be met (Snyder et al., 1991), few have developed theories. Stotland (1969) described the foundation of hope as "an expectation greater than zero of achieving a goal" (p.2). Here, Stotland assumed that in order for hope to be present, some level of importance must be placed on goal achievement (Snyder, 1995). Similarly, Averill, Catlin, and Chon (1990) believed hope to be an emotion managed by a set of rules and meaningful when goals are important. Both theories lend challenges for measure, and for that reason, this study adopted hope theory, the most widely accepted theory posited by Snyder et al. (1991). Hope theory defines hope as a bidimensional construct including two postulations. The first postulation states that hope is driven by the acuity of successful agencies related to goals. Here, agency refers to an

individual feeling capable of successful determination in meeting goals in the past, present and future. Agency thinking encompasses the perceived ability to use a pathway in order to attain a desired goal. The desire of the goal is the motivational component of hope theory (Snyder, 2002).

The second postulation states that hope is influenced by the alleged accessibility to successful pathways related to goals. Pathway refers to an individual feeling capable of accomplishing successful plans and meeting goals (Snyder et al., 1991). Craig (1943) declared that individuals approach goal setting by generating possible routes, reasoning that individuals always think of ways to get from point A to point B. Furthermore, Snyder et al. (1991) offered a more comprehensive view of both postulations, when saying, “where this is a will there is a way” (pg. 571). In this adage, the will represents the agency and the way represents the pathway. However, Snyder et al. (1991) made it clear that the agency-pathway relationship cannot be viewed with such simplicity. Rather, the agency-pathway relationship must be viewed as a “reciprocal, additive, and positively related, although are not synonymous” relationship (pg. 571). Individuals develop agency-pathway thinking over the course of their childhood. Therefore, low levels of hope often result from individuals not being taught to think positively as children or from certain social events in childhood that combine to eradicate hopeful thoughts. Nevertheless, hope can be learned through the influence of other individuals (Snyder, 2002).

Moreover, Snyder et al. (1991) argued that emotions in a goal setting environment depend on an individual’s perception of hope. For example, an individual with high hope will analyze goals as positive challenges that can be accomplished. On the other hand,

an individual with low hope analyzes goals from a negative perspective sensing a low probability of goal attainment (Snyder et al., 1991). Hope theory assumes that over time and across environments, hope remains established. Therefore, individuals with high hope should accomplish a greater number of goals compared to low hope individuals and be capable of achieving more difficult goals covering diverse areas of their life, such as their working life and personal life. Furthermore, as goal difficulty increases, high hope individuals maintain their demeanor of agency and pathways, finding alternative paths to goal attainment. By contrast, low hope individuals are more likely to lose sight of their agency and pathways during goal impediments (Snyder et al., 1991). Both agency and pathway must be operative in order for an individual to maintain consistent movement towards a goal (Snyder et al., 1991).

In addition, hope has been theoretically and psychometrically identified as being both dispositional (traitlike) and situational (statelike) (Luthans & Jensen, 2002). The dispositional aspect of hope helps explain general coping skills of individuals and the situational aspect of hope explains a temporal state that relates to ongoing events in an individual's life (Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, et al., 1996). Furthermore, Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, et al., (1996), explain dispositional hope as remaining relatively stable across situations and times. Conversely, situational hope relates to proximal events and provides a glimpse of an individual's current goal-directed thinking.

Organizational Commitment

According to Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004), organizational commitment has been as difficult to define as the concept of motivation. Definitions of organizational commitment have been found to vary considerably, but most are described in terms of either behaviors or attitudes (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979).

Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979), in terms of definitions focused on commitment-related behaviors, described individuals as becoming bound by actions or displaying behaviors that exceed formal expectations (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979), argued that attitude-focused organizational commitment occurs when the identity (or goals) of the individual become congruent or integrated within the organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). Over the past two decades, two significant developments in organizational commitment have been recognized by Meyer et al. (2004). First, organizational commitment can take different forms, and secondly, organizational commitment can be directed toward various targets (Meyer et al., 2004).

Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three basic themes from the extant literature on organizational commitment: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization, and obligation to remain with the organization. In the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) articulated these three common themes as affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Further, Meyer and Allen (1991) identified organizational commitment as a psychological state that describes an employee's relationship with an organization and influences the employee's decision to keep working for an organization or to leave. All three components of organizational commitment can be experienced by one employee to varying degrees. Therefore, the three components are not types of commitment, but rather components that develop as a function of different antecedents that influence workplace behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The antecedents associated with the different forms of organizational commitment directed the development of the three-component model. Meyer and Allen (1991)

identified the antecedents of affective commitment as personal characteristics, organizational structure, and work experiences. Antecedents of continuance commitment have been identified as side bets or investments, with availability of alternatives playing a role. Lastly, normative commitment has been found to develop from individual pressures experienced before or after organizational membership. Pressures could include things such as family connections or when employees accept offers in advance, such as paid college tuition (Allen & Meyer, 1991).

Furthermore, Meyer and Allen (1991) described affective commitment as an employee's involvement, identification, and emotional attachment to an organization. Strong affective commitment means that employees will continue working for an organization because the employees desire to do so, mainly as a result of work experiences. When employees are aware of the costs associated with leaving an organization, Meyer and Allen (1991) refer to this as continuance commitment. Anything work related that increases the cost related to leaving an organization, such as accepting job tasks that require skills training, creates continuance commitment. Therefore, when employees have strong continuance commitment, they will stay with an organization because they feel the need to do so. Lastly, normative commitment refers to internal pressures that result when feeling obligated to remain at an organization. When employees have strong normative commitment, they feel as though they must remain with an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Obligated feelings may develop as a result of social experiences, such as the observation of role models (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Conceptual Framework

Many scholars (Dawn, 2004; Rowh, 2007; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Tulgan, 2004, Dwyer, 2008) have argued that acknowledging the presence of different generations in the workplace has become increasingly important. However, Dulin (2008) warned that stereotyping of generations should be avoided, because members of a generation are not going to think and act exactly alike. However, each generation has attitudes, ambitions, and world views that have emerged from living within a common set of historical and social events. Dwyer (2008) recognized that in the new world of work, older, middle-aged, and younger workers may share similar work responsibilities but differ greatly in regards to personal values, approaches to work duties, communication styles, language, and even perceptions of each other. Dwyer (2008) continued that with the presence of such differences, conflict in the workplace is highly likely. Therefore, in order for organizations to effectively manage and recruit multiple generations, they should be conscious of differences and unique characteristics of each cohort (Dwyer, 2008). Lisa Krouse, vice president of human resources at a Sarasota-based Insurance Group in Florida, stated, "The best way to manage for generational differences is to understand them." Krouse went on to say that each generational cohort is shaped by its own strengths, challenges, motivations and leadership expectations, and managers that understand these differences will be able to meet the needs of employees (Barnett, 2009).

Studies on generational differences have mainly evolved around the study of value differences (Christenson, 1977). According to Arsenault (2004), the misunderstanding among generational differences began with the flawed belief of early researchers that individuals change their values, attitudes and preferences as a result of age. However,

researchers have since proved a generation's attitudes and preferences are stable overtime (Schewe & Meredith, 1994; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991). More recently, Barbuto, Bryant, and Pennisi (2010) claimed that supplemental research on psychological traits, such as personalities, attitudes and motives, should be studied to gain a better understanding of generational differences as they apply in the organizational setting. Therefore, differences can be identified or disproved by researchers in order to advance the discussion of generations and provide practical implications for managers in a mixed generational setting (Barbuto, Bryant, Pennisi, 2010).

Generations in the Workplace

Due to differing definitions of birth years among research scholars for each generational cohort, a general consensus was used for the purpose of this research. The consensus was researched by analyzing the definitions of birth years and gathering the most frequently defined years. Therefore, Veterans were defined as those born from 1915-1945, Baby Boomers 1946-1964, Gen X 1965-1979, and Millennials 1980-present (Dwyer, 2008; Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2000; Aldisert, 1999). However, diminutive academic research exists to verify or disprove the popular profiling of each generation (Lyons, Duxbury, & Higgin, 2007). Therefore, the following profiles have been adopted from the most notable scholars on generational research (Dwyer, 2008; Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2000; Aldisert, 1999; Loomis, 2000; Howe & Strauss, 1991).

The Veteran generation, those born from 1915 to 1945, are also referred to as the Traditionalists, Matures, or the Silent Generation. They lived through the Great Depression and World War II. They tend to be dedicated, stable, hard working, patient, past oriented, have respect for rules, and believe duty comes before pleasure. Eisner (2005) described Veterans as loyal and self-sacrificing in their relationship with an

organization. They are also known to be conservative spenders, loyal to buying American and traditional products.

The generation born from 1946 to 1964 has been commonly known as Baby Boomers or Boomers, primarily because they were born during a time of consistently high birth rates, which has given them a large presence in the workplace. Defining events for this generation included the Civil Rights Movement, the Cold War, assassinations, Vietnam, and television. Unlike their parents, baby boomers did not endure economic hardships and often focused their time on themselves, becoming known by some as the “me” generation. Being raised during a time when parenting was viewed as enjoyable instead of a biological necessity, Boomers have grown to expect prosperity and satisfaction in life. Boomers value optimism, teamwork, personal growth, work and involvement. Although, Boomers believe they have changed the world unlike anyone else could, they dislike conflict and are very sensitive to feedback. Being described as idealistic, optimistic, and driven, Boomers are likely to remain loyal to an organization (Loomis, 2000). In addition, Boomers have been seen as diligent workers, valuing a high degree of power in the workplace (McCringle and Hooper, 2006).

Mostly referred to as Generation X, Gen X or Xers, some would call those born from 1965 to 1979 the baby bust generation. Defining events and trends that shaped this generation include the Wall Street Frenzy, the Challenger, the space shuttle explosion, the Fall of Berlin Wall, latchkey kids, single parents, Watergate, first personal computers, energy crisis, and the new feminism. Xers grew up in a time where family dynamics were changing such that both parents worked away from home, leaving Xers to defend for themselves, thus the phrase “latchkey kids” (Carver, Candela, Gutierrez,

2011). Xers value diversity, global thinking, work-life balance, informality, fun, and entrepreneurial spirit (Dencker et al., 2007). However, Xers have been found to invest in their own personal development over an organization's development. Therefore, some reason Xers are not likely to remain committed to one organization, because they are more independent and self-sufficient than older generations (Loomis, 2000). Xers are likely to leave one job in search for new challenges, higher salaries or improved benefits (Hays, 1999; Loomis, 2000). Xers like to manage their own problems but often seek feedback. Others have described Xers as cynical, pessimistic and individualistic (Kupperschmidt, 2000; Smola and Sutton, 2002).

Finally, the Millennial generation, individuals born from 1980 to present, are often referred to as the Baby boom echo, Nexters, and Generation Y, but most commonly as Millennials. They grew up influenced by an increase in diverse families, reality television, terrorist attacks (9/11, government scandals) and celebrity scandals (OJ, Clinton). This has become the most technology savvy generation yet. Millennials value confidence, civic duty, achievement, sociability, diversity, and street smarts. However, this generation needs supervision and structure to perform well at work. Millennials do not have much experience dealing with people issues or workplace conflict because they are so young. However, Millennials are rapidly entering the workforce beyond fast food, lawn mowing, and part-time Web page design jobs.

Motivating Generations

Few research studies have contributed to the body of knowledge on motivation and generations (Wong, Gardiner, Lang, & Coulon, 2008). Montana and Lenaghan (1999) compared generation groups and found that Gen X and Millennials were predominantly motivated by steady employment and promotional advancements. Wong,

Gardiner, Lang and Coulon (2008) also found Gen X and Millennials to be appreciably motivated by promotional advancement opportunities. However, Millennials were more significantly motivated by advancement opportunities than Baby Boomers or Xers. Baby Boomers and Xers were motivated by power and authority over coworkers, when compared to Millennials. Wong et al. (2008) reasoned that Millennials are more likely to be motivated by advancement opportunities, due to their recent entrance into the workplace, whereas Baby Boomers are entering retirement age, and therefore, are not as motivated by advancement opportunities. Interestingly, Wong et al. (2008) concluded that regardless of the statistically significant motivational differences, the “observed” differences are so minimal that a workplace would not be disturbed. However, Wong et al. (2008) recommended that managers prepare for higher levels of cynicism, negativity and less optimism in younger generations.

Barbuto and Miller (2008) conducted a study utilizing Leonard’s et al. (1999) motivational sources inventory to determine sources of work motivation among Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Millennials working in a nonprofit organization. Results indicated Baby Boomers scored higher in goal internalization than Generation X, signifying Boomers are more motivated when job tasks are connected to moral obligations or personal values. Additionally, Generation X scored higher on instrumental sources when compared to baby boomers, suggesting that Generation X is more likely to seek tangible rewards in the workplace, such as bonuses, increased salary or time off (Barbuto & Miller, 2008). Barbuto and Miller (2008) concluded that a relationship among self-concept external, self-concept internal and intrinsic process motivation sources were not found. However, future research should continue to study

generations utilizing content-based theories, as opposed to process-based theories, which only allow an explanation of the motivation inducement process. In addition, Andrews (2011) utilized Leonard's et al. (1999) motivational sources inventory in a study on undergraduate students in colleges of Agriculture holding ambassador positions and found that female ambassadors scored highest on intrinsic process motivation and male ambassadors scored highest in instrumental motivation. Majority of the ambassadors were Millennials between the ages of 18-24 with 3 identifying as 25+.

Hope

Even though hope has not been as broadly analyzed as other positive psychological constructs, or even applied in the workplace, Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans (2004) claimed some studies have provided positive support for workplace implications. Adams et al. (2002) found in an ongoing survey that organizations with employees having higher self-reported levels of hope tended to be more successful than organizations with employees who have lower levels of hope. Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Li (2005) studied a cross-sectional analysis of Chinese workers and found that supervisor performance ratings and merit salary increases were related to higher levels of hope. In addition, Peterson and Luthans (2003) found financial performance, employee retention and job satisfaction were linked with higher levels of hope in managers of fast food restaurants.

More recently, a study on production employees by Larson and Luthans (2006) found hope levels were associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Further, Youssef and Luthans (2007), in a study of 135 midwestern organizations, in which they used Snyder et al.'s (1996) State Hope Scale, found hope to be positively

related to job satisfaction and work happiness. In the same study, out of hope, optimism and resiliency, hope was found to be the only construct showing a unique variance in regards to job satisfaction, work happiness, and organizational commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). In addition, Luthans et al. (2008) also found that hope was positively related to performance, satisfaction, and commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Steinhaus and Perry (1996) claimed committed and satisfied employees are normally highly productive workers, because they identify with organizational goals and values, making them unlikely to perform at low levels. Samad (2011) conducted a study in a manufacturing organization in Malaysia and found that organizational commitment was positively related to job performance, where job satisfaction played a moderating role in the relationship. According to Robbins (2001), employees accrue high levels of organizational commitment through organization involvement, such as participating in projects or decision making. When employees have a strong identification with an organization, they will have great loyalty that transforms into hard work (Robbins, 2001). In addition, employees with high organizational commitment show the best task performance, such as proactive task involvement and achievement by striving to reach organizational goals (Steers, 1977).

Furthermore, Carver, Candela, and Gutierrez (2011) conducted a study with nursing faculty that supported the existence of generational differences with regard to organization commitment. These researchers concluded that each generation has a unique profile and suggested that further research should seek to determine the wants and needs of generations in order to increase organizational commitment. D'Amato and Herzfeldt (2008) conducted a study on managers in Europe and found that Gen Xers

were less committed than Baby boomers, validating popular opinion. Furthermore, Patalano (2008), in a large Internet services organization, found Gen Xers to have significantly higher scores on normative commitment and affective commitment when compared to Millennials. However, Millennials scored higher on continuance commitment than Gen X, leaving Patalano (2008) to conclude that significant differences in the levels of organizational commitment exist between generations.

Interestingly, Ozag (2006) found in the context of an organizational merger, that merger survivor's perceptions of hope, based on Snyder et al.'s (1991) State Hope Scale, were a strong predictive variable for normative commitment. However, a relationship was not found between hope and continuance commitment. According to Ozag (2006), many researchers (Brockner et al., 1997; Cascio, 1993; Schweigner & DeNisi, 1991) have alluded that hope may be an antecedent of organizational commitment. However, this relationship in entirety remains relatively unclear.

Conceptual Model

The previous literature has illustrated that a potential relationship between work motivation and hope, as well as work motivation and organizational commitment may exist. Therefore, the conceptual model (Figure 2-1) at the end of this chapter illustrates this relationship. In addition, this study analyzed factors that may influence a generation's source of work motivation, specifically gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, income, and education.

Chapter Summary

Theories presented in this chapter have given an overview of the literature with respect to generations and work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. In addition, theories foundational to this study were presented. The concept of work

motivation has been seen as a common thread among both hope theory and the three-component model of organizational commitment. In addition, literature has shown that hope may be an antecedent of organizational commitment, leading to an unexpected relationship. The lack of understanding regarding generational differences has caused organizations to overlook the significance of the issue, causing an inability to capitalize on generational strengths (Arsenault, 2004). Therefore, this research sought to uncover the relationship between work motivation, hope and organizational commitment as they apply to generational cohorts.

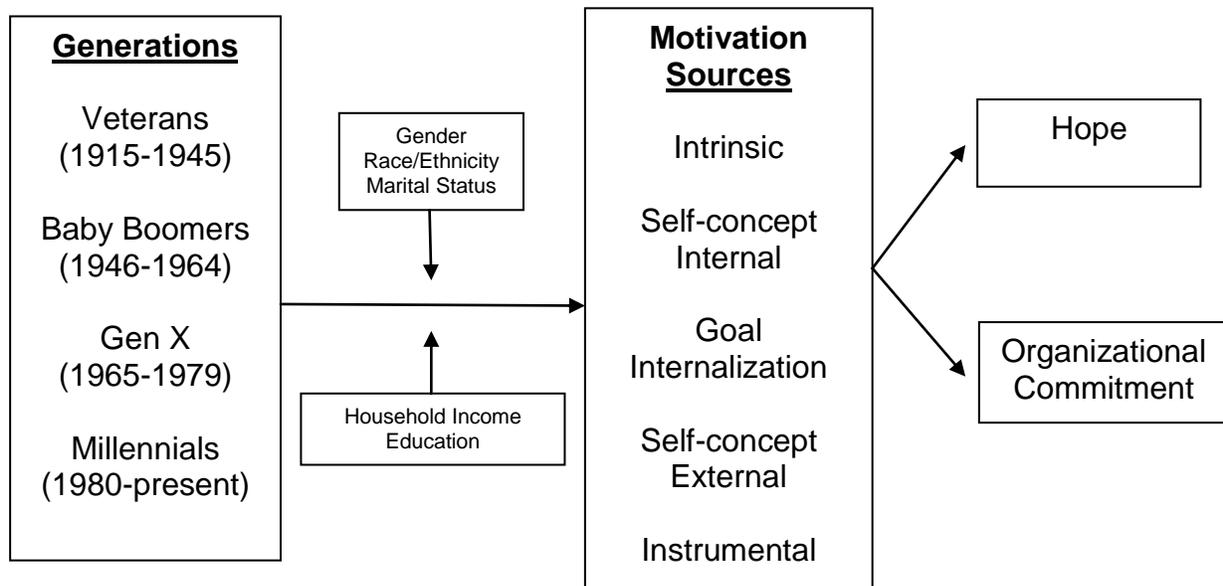


Figure 2-1. Conceptual model of the relationship between generational sources of motivation, hope and organizational commitment.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if generational cohorts are motivated differently and to examine the relationship between work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. This chapter describes the methodology utilized to accomplish the objectives of this study. The objectives for the study were to: 1) identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts, 2) determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort, 3) determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort, 4) describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment, and 5) predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics. Additionally, this chapter explained the research design, population and sample, instrumentation, and how data were collected and analyzed.

Research Design

The quantitative research design in this study utilized descriptive survey methodology. A descriptive design provides a synopsis of “existing phenomenon by using numbers to characterize individuals or groups” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010, p. 22). In addition, descriptive designs explain traits of study participants such as, attitudes or behaviors (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Errors associated with descriptive surveys include measurement error, sampling error, and non-response error. Several strategies helped eliminate the sources of error in this study. Measurement error occurs when a respondent’s answer is imprecise (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Therefore, measurement error was addressed by utilizing existing instruments. Validity and reliability for work motivation (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998), hope (Snyder & et al.,

1996), and organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1997) were previously confirmed by a panel of experts and empirically tested prior to conducting this research. Sampling error results from surveying only a portion of a population, rather than all members of a population (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). Therefore, sampling error exists in any sample survey and was addressed in this study by ensuring all branches of the institution in the southeast region of the United States participated. Furthermore, non-response error occurs when not every participant responds to the survey request (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). The researcher made every effort to reduce the non-response error, according to the social exchange theory (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). In addition, non-response error was addressed by contacting each financial branch to encourage participation and by offering a written report or workshop to present the findings and implications of this study.

Population and Sample

The population under investigation in this study were employees in a mid-sized, multi-branch institution based in the United States. For the purpose of this study, a purposive sample was taken of an institution comprised of 1 headquartered location and 10 other branches located in the southeast region of the United States, employing a total of 130 employees across all 11 offices. In purposive sampling, study participants are selected based on certain characteristics (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This institution was selected due to membership in an industry which has been underrepresented in generational research. The industry selected was unlike many other industries due to the unified purpose from the foundation of American needs and the high volume of family owned businesses and operations. Furthermore, as a result of purposive sampling, coverage error existed in this study; therefore, the generalizability

of the findings beyond the data sample was not appropriate (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009). However, because the primary purpose of this study sought to examine relationships, as opposed to generalizing a population, purposive sampling was deemed appropriate (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Data Collection

Prior to collecting the primary data for this study, a pilot test was conducted. The purpose of the pilot test was to establish reliability of the measurement instruments used in this study. However, all of the scales in this study had been used in management and leadership literature and previously determined to be valid and reliable.

The pilot study was conducted on September 21, 2011 and closed on September 28, 2011 for data analysis. The pilot was conducted with 20 graduate students studying agricultural education and communication at the University of Florida. The convenience sample consisted of 15 female (75%) and 5 male (25%) graduate students. Of all the respondents, 95% (n= 19) were White and 5% (n= 1) were of Hispanic or Latino origin. Majority of respondents were Millennials (n= 14), but there were 5 respondents from Generation X and 1 Baby Boomer. Results of the pilot study and further explanation of each scale are presented later in this chapter.

At the conclusion of the pilot, data collection procedures for the main study began. First, a proposal for approval to conduct this study was submitted to the University of Florida Institutional Review Board (IRB) for non-medical projects (IRB-02). Once approval was granted (Appendix A), a meeting was scheduled with the Chief Lending Officer at the institution to introduce the study, provide documentation of the process, and attain approval to continue with this study.

Following all necessary approval, data were collected using a web-based survey following Dillman's tailored design method (Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2009), beginning September 2011. All communication with research participants was sent through email from a contact person at the headquarter office to employees at each branch of the institution. This step was necessary to ensure privacy protection of the study participants, according to the policies of the institution. The first correspondence with participants prior to sending the questionnaire, according to Dillman (2009), should be a pre-notice letter. Therefore, an email (Appendix B) was sent to participants on September 22, 2011 informing them that a web-based survey instrument would be emailed to them and their participation would be appreciated. The second email contact was made October 4, 2011 containing the web-based questionnaire (Appendix C). On October 10, 2011, a third contact was made thanking the participants that had completed the survey and reminding the other participants that the survey was still available. A fourth contact was sent on October 18, 2011 informing participants of the proper way to follow the survey link due to reported difficulties. As a result of significant increases in participation following contacts, a fifth email reminder was sent October 26, 2011. A reminder contact was sent on November 2, 2011 informing of the survey deadline and encouraging participation. A seventh contact was made due to technical difficulties on November 8, 2011 and informed participants that the survey deadline would be extended as a result. The web-based questionnaire closed on November 30, 2011, and data analysis began.

According to Dillman (2006), nonresponse error should be addressed in survey-based research studies because nonresponse error exists within all types of survey

research. Therefore, a comparison of early respondents to late respondents was conducted to address nonresponse error as recommended by Dillman (2006). Following the recommendations of Lindner, Murphy, and Briers (2001), early respondents were defined as the first 50% of respondents and late respondents were defined as the last 50% of respondents. Early respondents were compared to late respondents in regards to key variables and no significant differences were found.

Instrumentation

Three existing questionnaires were used to collect the necessary data to accomplish the objectives of this study. The first questionnaire was Barbuto & Scholl's (1998) Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI). The MSI identifies an individual's dominant sources of work motivation and was employed to determine work motivation sources of generational cohorts. Five sources of work motivation were initially proposed by Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1999) and integrated into the MSI: Intrinsic Process, Instrumental, Self-Concept External, Self-Concept Internal, and Goal Internalization. The MSI consisted of 30 statements on a seven-point Likert-type scale, with 6 statements specifically measuring each of the five motivational sources. Study participants were asked to describe the things that best motivated them by rating their level of agreement to the 30 statements provided (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Mostly Disagree, 3= Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neutral, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6= Mostly Agree, 7= Strongly Agree). Example statements measuring each motivation source included: intrinsic process, "I only like to do things that are fun;" instrumental, "I would work harder if I knew that my effort would lead to higher pay;" self-concept external, "I work harder on a project if public recognition is attached to it;" self-concept internal, "I need to know that my skills and values are impacting organization's success;" and goal internalization,

“I have to believe in a cause before I will work hard at achieving its ends” (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998). In post-hoc analysis of the pilot study data (n= 20) the alpha estimate was -.407 for Intrinsic Process, .625 for Instrumental, .653 for Self-Concept External, .734 for Self-Concept Internal, and .653 for Goal Internalization. The pilot study had an alpha estimate of .695 for the instrument. In the post-hoc analysis of the main study (n= 59) the alpha estimate was .443 for Intrinsic Process, .595 for Instrumental, .682 for Self-Concept External, .704 for Self-Concept Internal, and .578 for Goal Internalization. The main study had an alpha estimate of .727 for the instrument.

The second questionnaire employed was Snyder et al.'s (1996) State Hope Scale (SHS). Prior to Snyder et al.'s (1996) theory of hope, conceptualizations of hope were drawn from the assumption that people are goal directed. However, Snyder et al. (1996) expanded earlier theories into a goal-setting framework, seeking to explain the ways goals are pursued. Therefore, Snyder et al. (1996) proposed two major components of hope: agencies (determination in meeting goals) and pathways (successful plans to meet goals). The SHS (1996) was utilized to describe the hope levels of generational cohorts. The SHS (1996) consisted of 8 statements rated on a four-point Likert-type scale, with 4 statements that measured pathways and 4 statements that measured agencies. Study participants were asked to select the number that best described them (1= Definitely False, 2= Mostly False, 3= Mostly True, 4= Definitely True). An example statement measuring agency was, “I energetically pursue my goals,” and an example statement measuring pathway was, “I can think of many ways to get out of a jam,” (Snyder et al., 1996). In post-hoc analysis of the pilot study data (n= 20) the alpha estimate for each scale was .762 for Agency and .807 for Pathway. The pilot study

alpha estimate was .843 for the instrument. In the post-hoc analysis of the main study (n= 59) the alpha estimate was .839 for Agency and .669 for Pathway. The main study had an alpha estimate of .819 for the instrument.

The final questionnaire employed was Allen & Meyer's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS). Meyer & Allen (1991) identified organizational commitment as being a multidimensional construct composed of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. All three approaches share the belief that Meyer & Allen (1991) explained as a "psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization" (pg. 67). The OCS consisted of 23 statements rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale, with 6 statements that measured normative commitment, 9 statements that measured continuance commitment, and 8 statements that measured affective commitment. Study participants were asked to select the number that best described them (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Mostly Disagree, 3= Somewhat Disagree, 4= Neutral, 5= Somewhat Agree, 6= Mostly Agree, 7= Strongly Agree). An example statement measuring normative commitment was, "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now." An example statement measuring continuance commitment was, "If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere." Finally, an example statement measuring affective commitment stated, "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own" (Allen & Meyer, 1997). In post-hoc analysis of the pilot study data (n= 20) the alpha estimate was .349 for Normative Commitment, .249 for Continuance Commitment, and -1.024 for Affective Commitment. The pilot study

alpha estimate was .381 for the instrument. In post-hoc analysis of the main study (n=59) the alpha estimate was .454 for Normative Commitment, .41 for Continuance Commitment, and -.418 for Affective Commitment. The main study had an alpha estimate of .4 for the instrument.

In addition, researcher-developed questions were used to determine generational cohort, gender, ethnicity, yearly household income, marital status, and educational experience. The final questionnaire included 67 items.

Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 20.0 (SPSS) to identify measures of statistical significance. Measures of central tendency, such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies were used to describe the following variables: generational cohort, gender, ethnicity, yearly household income, marital status, education, and work motivation sources. The independent variable was generational cohorts, and the dependent variable was motivation, with hope and organizational commitment being moderating variables. The State Hope Scale was analyzed by summing scores for each generation and analyzing the mean. Low hope scores were identified as 6-18, moderately low hope was 19-23, moderate hope was 24-30, moderately high hope was 31-35, and high hope was 36-48. Score ranges were defined based on the six-point Likert-type scale. The Organizational Commitment Scale was analyzed by summing the scores on each of the three scales (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment) and analyzing the mean for each generation. Score ranges for each scale were: affective commitment, 8-56, continuance commitment, 9-63, and normative commitment, 6-42. According to Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), the optimum

profile for organizational commitment should be a high affective commitment score (i.e., above the scale midpoint) and a low continuance commitment score (i.e., below the scale midpoint). To further analyze data, analysis of variance was executed between generational cohorts on the outcome variables. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were utilized to determine if a relationship existed between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment. Effect sizes were interpreted as small, medium or large at .10, .25, and .40, respectively (Cohen, 1992). A regression model was also utilized with work motivation and demographics as explanatory variables, and hope and organizational commitment as dependent variables. The regression model was used to explain or predict the amount of variance in regards to work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment with respect to each of the four generational cohorts described in this study.

Summary

The evaluation of generational cohorts, the independent variable in this study, at an institution in the southeast region of the United States provided a basis for understanding the relationship between work motivation, the dependent variable, and the moderating variables of hope and organizational commitment. This chapter identified the research design as utilizing descriptive survey methodology. The questionnaire included Barbuto & Scholl's (1998) Motivational Sources Inventory, Snyder et al.'s (1996) State Hope Scale, and Meyer & Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale. Each of these scales has established validity and reliability. Furthermore, data were collected following Dillman's (2009) recommendations and data analyses were conducted using analysis of variance and regression models.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences exist between generations with regards to sources of work motivation and to determine the relationship between work motivation, hope and organizational commitment at a mid-sized institution in the southeast region of the United States.

Chapter 1 explained the challenges that organizations are facing, or are predicted to face as a result of the widening age diversity in the 21st century workplace and established the importance of organizations being aware of how age diversity effects the workplace. In addition, the following objectives were established:

- Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts
- Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort
- Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort
- Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment, and
- Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics

Chapter 2 provided the theoretical and conceptual frameworks employed in this study. The beginning of Chapter 2 presented foundational literature that helped establish the theoretical framework utilized in this study, including: Maslow's (1943) Theory of Human Motivation, Herzberg's (1959) Theory of Motivation and Hygiene Factors, and Vroom's (1964) Theory of Work Motivation. Furthermore, the theoretical framework included Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept-Based Work Motivation model, Snyder's et al. (1991) hope theory, and Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment. A review of literature was also

conducted on Howe and Strauss's (1991) generational theory. The conceptual framework and model included current literature on generational differences, coupled with literature alluding to a relationship between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment.

Chapter 3 described the methodological approach used to conduct this study, including the research design, population, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures. Through this data procedure, the study was able to meet the established objectives.

Chapter 4 will present the findings of this study beginning with a description of the respondent demographics and following with the findings for each of the five objectives established in Chapter 1.

The population of this study was comprised of all employees at a mid-sized, multi-branch institution in the southeast region of the United States. Following the procedures described in Chapter 3, a purposive sample was taken of all the employees at this institution which covered 11 offices and employed a staff of 130 employees at the time of data collection. Responses were obtained from 59 of the 130 employees, for an overall response rate of 45%. This response rate was deemed appropriate based on previous studies with similar populations (Strickland, 2008; Windham, 2009) and because Kittleson (1997) stated that "one can expect between a 25 and 30% response rate from e-mail survey when no follow-up takes place. Follow-up reminders will approximately double the response rate for e-mail surveys" (p. 196, as cited in Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000).

Demographics

This study included six demographic questions covering the respondent's sex, marital status, generational cohort, race/ethnicity, education, and yearly household income.

Sex

When asked to report gender, participants responded as shown in Table 4-1. Of all respondents, 49.5% ($n= 29$) were male and 44.1% ($n= 26$) were female.

Table 4-1. Participants by sex

Sex	<i>n</i>	Percent
Female	26	44.1
Male	29	49.5
Total	55	

Note. $n=55$; Missing=4

Marital Status

Participants also reported their marital status. Of all respondents, 11.9% ($n= 7$) were single and never married, 64.4% ($n= 38$) were married, 1.7% ($n= 1$) were separated, 11.9% ($n= 7$) were divorced, and 3.4% ($n= 2$) were widowed. Table 4-2 displays the marital status of respondents.

Table 4-2. Participants by marital status

Marital Status	<i>n</i>	Percent
Single, never married	7	11.9
Married	38	64.4
Separated	1	1.7
Divorced	7	11.9
Widowed	2	3.4
Total	55	

Note. $n=55$; Missing=4

Generational Cohort

Participants were also asked to report the year they were born. This demographic variable allowed this study to identify which generational cohort each

respondent belonged. Of all respondents, 1.7% ($n= 1$) were born from 1915 to 1945, 61% ($n= 36$) were born from 1946 to 1964, 15.3% ($n= 9$) were born from 1965 to 1979, and 15.3% ($n= 9$) were born from 1980 to present. Table 4-3 displays the generational cohort of all respondents.

Table 4-3. Participants by generational cohort

Generational Cohort	<i>n</i>	Percent
Veteran (1915-1945)	1	1.7
Baby Boomer (1946-1964)	36	61
Generation X (1965-1979)	9	15.3
Millennial (1980-present)	9	15.3
Total	55	

Note. $n=55$; Missing=4

Race/Ethnicity

Of all respondents, 86.4% ($n= 51$) reported a race/ethnicity of White, 1.7% ($n= 1$) were Black or African American, 5.1% ($n= 3$) were Hispanic/Latino Origin, 1.7% ($n= 1$) identified as Other. None of the respondents reported a race/ethnicity of Asian, American Indian and Alaska Native, or Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander.

Table 4-4 displays the race/ethnicity of all respondents.

Table 4-4. Participants by race/ethnicity

Race/ethnicity	<i>n</i>	Percent
White	51	86.4
Black/African American	1	1.7
Hispanic/Latino Origin	3	5.1
Other	1	1.7
Total	56	

Note. $n=56$; Missing=3

Education

Respondents also reported their level of education. Of all respondents, 8.5% ($n= 5$) were high school graduates or had received a GED, 11.9% ($n= 7$) had some college but no degree, 5.1% ($n= 3$) had an Associates degree, 39% ($n= 23$) had a Bachelors

degree, and 27.1% ($n= 16$) had a graduate or professional degree. Table 4-5 displays the education of respondents.

Table 4-5. Participants by education

Education	<i>n</i>	Percent
High school graduate/GED	5	8.5
Some college, no degree	7	11.9
Associate degree	3	5.1
Bachelor degree	23	39
Graduate or professional degree	16	27.1
Total	54	

Note. $n=54$; Missing=5

Yearly Household Income

The last demographic variable collected was the yearly household income of participants. 5.1% ($n= 3$) earned \$20,000-\$39,000, 15.3% ($n= 9$) earned \$40,000-\$59,000, 16.9% ($n= 10$) earned \$60,000-\$79,000, 8.5% ($n= 5$) earned \$80,000-\$99,000, 6.8% ($n= 4$) earned \$100,000-\$119,000, 13.6% ($n= 8$) earned \$120,000-\$139,000, 8.5% ($n= 5$) earned \$140,000-\$159,000, 3.4% ($n= 2$) earned \$160,000-\$179,000, 1.7% ($n= 1$) earned \$180,000-\$199,000, and 8.5% ($n= 5$) earned more than \$200,000 a year.

Table 4-6 displays the yearly household income of all respondents.

Table 4-6. Participants by yearly household income

Income	<i>n</i>	Percent
\$20,000-\$39,000	3	5.1
\$40,000-\$59,000	9	15.3
\$60,000-\$79,000	10	16.9
\$80,000-\$99,000	5	8.5
\$100,000-\$119,000	4	6.8
\$120,000-\$139,000	8	13.6
\$140,000-\$159,000	5	8.5
\$160,000-\$179,000	2	3.4
\$180,000-\$199,000	1	1.7
More than \$200,000	5	8.5
Total	52	

Note. $n=52$; Missing=7

Objective 1

Objective: Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts.

Veterans

Veterans are those born between 1915 to 1945. Of all the respondents, 1.7% ($n=1$) were Veterans and scored highest in self-concept internal ($M=35$) with the second highest score being goal internalization ($M=28$). Table 4-7 displays all the scores on the MSI from highest to lowest for the Veteran.

Table 4-7. MSI scores for Veterans

Work Motivation Source	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>
Self-concept Internal	1	35
Goal Internalization	1	28
Instrumental	1	24
Self-concept External	1	24
Intrinsic Process	1	23

Baby Boomers

Baby Boomers were born between 1946 to 1964. Of all the respondents, 61% ($n=36$) were Baby Boomers. The highest motivation source of Baby Boomers was self-concept internal ($n=35$, $M=37.57$, $SD=3.40$). The second highest score among Baby Boomers was goal internalization ($n=35$, $M=26.54$, $SD=4.48$). Table 4-8 reports all MSI scores for Baby Boomers from highest to lowest.

Table 4-8. MSI scores for Baby Boomers

Work Motivation Source	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Self-concept Internal	35	37.57	3.40
Goal Internalization	35	26.54	4.48
Instrumental	35	24.09	5.33
Self-concept External	35	22.51	5.52
Intrinsic Process	35	21.94	3.87

Generation X

Generation X was born between 1965 to 1979. Of all respondents, 15.3% ($n= 9$) were a part of this generation. The highest motivation score among Generation X was self-concept internal ($n= 9$, $M= 38.22$, $SD= 3.15$). The second highest motivation score was goal internalization ($n= 9$, $M= 25.67$, $SD= 8.26$). Table 4-8 displays all MSI scores from highest to lowest.

Table 4-9. MSI scores for Generation X

Work Motivation Source	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Self-concept Internal	9	38.22	3.15
Goal Internalization	9	25.67	8.26
Instrumental	9	23.22	5.65
Self-concept External	9	22.78	7.29
Intrinsic Process	9	21.11	5.04

Millennials

Millennials are those born between 1980 to present. Of all respondents, 15.3% ($n= 9$) were Millennials. The highest motivation score of Millennials was self-concept internal ($n= 9$, $M= 38.11$, $SD= 2.67$). The second highest score of motivation was self-concept external ($n= 29.22$, $M= 29.22$, $SD= 3.67$). Table 4-9 displays all the MSI scores for Millennials from highest to lowest.

Table 4-10. MSI scores for Millennials

Work Motivation Source	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Self-concept Internal	9	38.11	2.67
Self-concept External	9	29.22	3.67
Goal Internalization	9	28.90	3.76
Intrinsic Process	9	27.11	4.83
Instrumental	9	25.89	4.20

Objective 2

Objective: Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort.

In order to determine the state of hope of each generation, participants completed the State Hope Scale. The State Hope Scale measures the ways goals are pursued.

Generation X scored the highest on the State Hope Scale with $M= 41.44$, followed by Baby Boomers $M= 37.33$, Millennials $M= 34.33$, and last Veterans $M= 34.00$. Table 4-10 displays the results from the State Hope Scale.

Table 4-11. Hope scale scores by generational cohort

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>			SD		
		Agency	Pathway	Total <i>M</i>	Agency	Pathway	Total SD
Veteran	1	19.00	15.00	34.00			
Baby Boomer	36	18.69	18.64	37.33	3.88	3.67	6.62
Generation X	9	20.78	20.67	41.44	.97	1.58	1.94
Millennial	9	16.33	18.00	34.33	5.10	4.85	9.73

Note: State Hope Scale scores range from 6 to 48.

The researcher used a one-way analysis of variance to determine if differences existed between generations and state of hope. To establish significance, the p-value was set at .05, *a priori*, at a 95% confidence interval. A statistically significant difference was not found between generational cohort and state of hope. The agency scale was $F= 2.06, p>.05$ and the pathway scale was $F= 1.31, p>.05$. Table 4-11 displays the one-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and hope.

Table 4-12. One-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and hope

	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Agency	2.06	.12
Pathway	1.31	.28
Total Hope	1.79	.16

Objective 3

Objective: Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort. To determine differences in levels of organization commitment, participants completed the Organizational Commitment Scale. The Organizational Commitment Scale describes the relationship an employee has with their organization. Of all the generations across each scale, Generation X scored the highest in continuance commitment ($M= 38.56, SD= 9.67$). Baby Boomers ($M= 37.22, SD= 5.74$) and the Veteran generation ($M= 35$) scored the highest on continuance commitment, while Millennials ($M= 33.33, SD= 5.64$) scored the highest on affective commitment. Table 4-12 displays the results from the Organizational Commitment Scale.

Table 4-13. Organizational commitment scores by generational cohort

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>			<i>SD</i>		
		Normative	Continuance	Affective	Normative	Continuance	Affective
Veteran	1	31.00	35.00	31.00			
Baby Boomer	36	27.33	37.22	34.78	5.12	5.74	3.46
Generation X	9	27.11	38.56	33.11	4.76	9.67	4.99
Millennial	9	23.33	31.78	33.33	5.27	7.10	5.64

Note: Normative commitment scores range from 6 to 42. Continuance commitment scores range from 9 to 63. Affective commitment scores range from 8 to 56.

To determine if differences existed between generations and organizational commitment, a one-way analysis of variance was utilized. To establish significance, the p-value was set at .05, *a priori*, at a 95% confidence interval. A statistically significant difference was not found between generational cohort and organizational commitment. The normative scale was $F= 1.76$, $p>.05$, the continuance scale was $F= 1.92$, $p>.05$, and the affective scale was $F= .78$, $p>.05$. Table 4-13 displays the one-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and hope.

Table 4-14. One-way analysis of variance between generational cohort and organizational commitment

	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Normative	1.76	.67
Continuance	1.92	.14
Affective	.78	.51

Objective 4

Objective: Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed in the sources of work motivation between generational cohorts and to determine if a relationship existed between work motivation, hope and organizational commitment. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was utilized to determine if a relationship existed between the variables. A Pearson product-moment correlation is a measure of strength and direction of relationships between two variables. Effect sizes were interpreted as small, medium or large at .10, .25, and .40, respectively (Cohen, 1992). Goal internalization and normative commitment ($r= .354$) and goal internalization and continuance commitment ($r= .275$) showed medium positive effects as seen in Table 4-14. Pathway and self-concept internal ($r= .242$) and

continuance commitment and instrumental motivation ($r = .248$) also showed medium positive effects, but were not deemed statistically significant.

Table 4-15. Relationship between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment

	Agency	Pathway	Normative	Continuance	Affective
Self-concept Internal	.208	.242	.156	.113	.236
Self-concept External	-.257	-.175	-.020	.215	.009
Goal Internalization	-.137	-.015	.354**	.275*	.005
Intrinsic Process	-.177	.037	-.025	-.138	.069
Instrumental	-.238	-.002	-.092	.248	.120

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, 2-tailed, *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level, 2-tailed

Objective 5

Objective: Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work

motivation with selected demographics. The previous objectives described the relationship between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment. Backward multiple regression was performed between all of the demographic variables (gender, race/ethnicity, year born, marital status, education, and yearly household income), work motivation (self-concept internal, self-concept external, goal internalization, intrinsic process, and instrumental), hope (agency and pathway), and organizational commitment (normative, continuance, and affective) in order to explain the influence of the demographic variables and the moderating variables, hope and organizational commitment on work motivation.

Agency. The work motivation sources, self-concept external and self-concept internal, along with education yielded the best model for predicting the agency score of the state hope scale. Regression analysis showed that the model significantly explained agency, $F(4,45) = 5.658, p < .05$. The R^2 coefficient for the model was .34, and the adjusted R^2 was .28. The unstandardized regression coefficients (B), intercept, and

standardized regression coefficients (β) for each variable are shown in Table 4-15.

Education ($t= 3.51, p= .001$), self-concept external ($t= -2.21, p= .03$), and self-concept internal ($t= 2.17, p= .04$) contributed significantly to predicting agency (hope). When combined, the three variables explained 28% of the variance in agency (hope).

Table 4-16. Backward Regression Analysis of Agency (Hope)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	6.54	5.84		1.12	.27
Education	1.43	.41	.47	3.51	.001
Self-concept External	-.203	.09	-.30	-2.21	.03
Self-concept Internal	.33	.15	.27	2.17	.04

Pathway. The work motivation sources, self-concept external and self-concept internal, and education yielded the best model for predicting the pathway score on the state hope scale. Regression analysis showed that the model significantly explained pathway $F(3,46) = 5.856, p < .05$. The R^2 coefficient for the model was .28, and the adjusted R^2 was .23. The unstandardized regression coefficients (*B*), intercept, and standardized regression coefficients (β) for each variable are shown in Table 4-15. Education ($t= 2.40, p= .02$), self-concept external ($t= -2.54, p= .01$), and self-concept internal ($t= 2.61, p= .01$) contributed significantly to predicting pathway (hope). When combined, the three variables explained 23% of the variance in pathway (hope).

Table 4-17. Backward Regression Analysis of Pathway (Hope)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	5.11	5.62		.91	.37
Education	.93	.4	.32	2.40	.02
Self-concept External	-.21	.08	-.34	-2.54	.01
Self-concept Internal	.38	.15	.33	2.61	.01

Affective Commitment. Regression analysis using work motivation and demographics did not yield a model that significantly explained affective commitment. None of the independent variables exhibited significant individual relationships with affective commitment.

Normative Commitment. Year born, and the work motivation sources, instrumental and goal internalization yielded the best model for predicting the normative commitment score on the organizational commitment scale. Regression analysis showed that the model significantly explained normative commitment $F(4,45) = 5.68, p = .001$. The R^2 coefficient for the model was .34, and the adjusted R^2 was .28. The unstandardized regression coefficients (B), intercept, and standardized regression coefficients (β) for each variable are shown in Table 4-17. Year born ($t = -2.00, p = .05$), instrumental ($t = -2.34, p = .02$), and goal internalization ($t = 3.37, p = .002$) contributed significantly to predicting normative commitment. When combined, the three variables explained 28% of the variance in normative commitment.

Table 4-18. Backward Regression Analysis of Normative Commitment

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	24.20	4.85		5.00	.00
Year Born	-1.64	.83	-.25	-2.00	.05
Instrumental	-.34	.15	-.31	-2.34	.02
Goal Internalization	.45	.13	.44	3.37	.002

Continuance Commitment. Year born yielded the best model for predicting the continuance commitment score on the organizational commitment scale. Regression analysis showed that the model significantly explained continuance commitment $F(6,43) = 2.96, p = .017$. The R^2 coefficient for the model was .29, and the adjusted R^2 was .19. The unstandardized regression coefficients (B), intercept, and standardized regression

coefficients (β) for each variable are shown in Table 4-17. Year born ($t = -2.00$, $p = .05$) contributed significantly to predicting continuance commitment. Year born explained 19% of the variance in continuance commitment.

Table 4-19. Backward Regression Analysis of Continuance Commitment

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	35.4	8.28		4.27	.00
Year Born	-2.42	1.22	-.30	-2.00	.05

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of this study. These findings were organized and presented according to the objectives guiding this study. The objectives were: (1) identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts, (2) determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohorts, (3) determine differences in the level of organizational commitment by generational cohorts, (4) describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope and organizational commitment, and (5) predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics. Chapter 5 will present a more detailed discussion of these findings. Conclusions, recommendations, and implications will also be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to ascertain if differences exist between generational cohorts with regards to sources of work motivation and to determine the impact of work motivation on hope and organizational commitment. The independent variable in this study was generational cohort, the dependent variable was work motivation, and the moderating variables were hope and organizational commitment. According to Twenge and Campbell (2008), popular literature such as the books: *When Generations Collide* (Lancaster & Stillman, 2003), *Generations at Work* (Zemke et al., 1999), and *Managing Generation X* (Tulgan, 2003) have painted a picture in the minds of many about what to expect from multiple generations in the workplace. From differences in values, attitudes, and leadership preferences, these books are based on case studies, interviews, anecdotal stories, and qualitative surveys. However, there is a severe lack of empirical, quantitative data to show that such differences really exist. Therefore, this study sought to determine generational differences in a mid-sized institution, part of an underrepresented industry in generational research.

Objectives

The following five objectives were established to guide this study:

- Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts,
- Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort,
- Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort,
- Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment, and
- Predict hope and organizational commitment based on motivation with selected demographics.

Methodology

The population under investigation in this study was employees in mid-sized, multi-branch institutions based in the United States. A purposive sample was taken of an institution comprised of 11 offices located in the southeast region of the United States, employing a staff of 130. Of the 130 employees, 59 were surveyed, accounting for a 45% response rate. This study utilized descriptive survey methodology for the purpose of data analysis. The researcher calculated mean scores, frequencies, one-way analysis of variance, and regression models.

Summary of Findings

Demographics

The demographics included in this study were: gender, race/ethnicity, generational cohort, marital status, yearly household income, and education. All demographics were self-reported by respondents.

Gender among employee's at the institution were relatively equal with females representing 44.1% ($n= 26$) and males representing 49.5% ($n= 29$). An overwhelming 86.4% ($n= 51$) of participants reported a race/ethnicity of White. Majority of employee's were Baby Boomers (61%, $n= 36$) born from 1946 to 1964, but each generational cohort was represented with 15.3% ($n= 9$) being Generation X, born from 1965 to 1979, 15.3% ($n= 9$) being Millennials, born from 1980 to present, and 1.7% ($n= 1$) being Veterans, born from 1915 to 1945. Although every marital status was represented, majority of employee's were married (64.4%, $n= 38$). There was a diverse range of yearly household incomes reported by employees with the top three being \$60,000-\$79,000 (16.9%, $n= 10$), \$40,000-\$59,000 (15.3%, $n= 9$), and \$120,000-\$139,000 (13.6%, $n= 8$).

There was also a diverse range of education, but results indicated that majority of employees had received either a bachelor degree (39%, $n= 23$) or a graduate/professional degree (27.1%, $n= 16$).

Objective 1: Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts

This objective sought to identify the work motivation sources of each generational cohort. The work motivation sources were established through the theoretical framework of Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept–Based Work Motivation model. This theory proposed five sources of work motivation including: intrinsic motivation, self-concept internal, self-concept external, instrumental motivation, and goal internalization. The dominant work motivation source for each generational cohort was self-concept internal (Veterans, $M= 35$, $n= 1$; Baby Boomers, $M= 37.57$, $n= 35$; Generation X, $M= 38.22$, $n= 9$; Millennials, $M= 38.11$, $n= 9$). The secondary work motivation source for Veterans ($M= 28$, $n= 1$), Baby Boomers ($M= 26.54$, $n= 35$), and Generation X ($M= 25.67$, $n= 9$) was goal internalization. The secondary work motivation source for Millennials was self-concept external ($M= 29.22$, $n= 9$).

Objective 2: Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort

This objective sought to determine if generational cohorts have different states of hope. Hope was defined as an employee's overall perception that goals can be met (Snyder & et al, 1991) and was measured by scores on the State Hope Scale (Snyder & et al., 1996). A one-way analysis of variance did not show any statistically significant differences between generational cohort and each scale on the state hope assessment (agency, $F= 2.06$, $p>.05$; pathway, $F= 1.31$, $p>.05$).

Objective 3: Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort

This objective sought to determine if generational cohorts were different with respect to organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was defined as an employee's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). In this study organizational commitment was defined by the subject's results to the Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1997). A one-way analysis of variance did not show any statistically significant differences between generational cohort and each scale on the organizational commitment scale (affective commitment, $F = .78, p > .05$; continuance commitment, $F = 1.92, p > .05$; normative commitment, $F = 1.76, p > .05$).

Objective 4: Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment

This objective sought to determine if a relationship existed between work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient revealed two statistically significant relationships. Goal internalization work motivation source and normative commitment ($r = .354$) and goal internalization work motivation source and continuance commitment ($r = .275$) showed medium positive effects.

Objective 5: Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics.

The purpose of this objective was to determine if work motivation with selected demographics could predict hope and organizational commitment. Backward multiple regression was performed to explain this objective. Regression analysis with agency (hope scale item) as the dependent variable yielded a statistically significant relationship

with education ($t= 3.51, p= .001$), self-concept external ($t= -2.21, p= .03$), and self-concept internal ($t= 2.17, p= .04$), accounting for 28% of the variance in agency. With pathway (hope scale item) as the dependent variable, regression analysis also yielded a statistically significant relationship with education ($t= 2.40, p= .02$), self-concept external ($t= -2.54, p= .01$), and self-concept internal ($t= 2.61, p= .01$), accounting for 23% of the variance in pathway. Regression analysis with affective commitment as the dependent variable did not yield a statistically significant relationships with work motivation sources or demographic variables. Regression analysis with normative commitment as the dependent variable yielded a statistically significant relationship with year born ($t= -2.00, p= .05$), instrumental work motivation ($t= -2.34, p= .02$), and goal internalization work motivation ($t= 3.37, p= .002$), accounting for 28% of the variance in normative commitment. Regression analysis with continuance commitment as the dependent variable yielded a statistically significant relationship with year born ($t= -2.00, p= .05$), accounting for 19% of the variance in continuance commitment.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of this study:

- At this institution, gender was evenly dispersed.
- An overwhelming majority of employees at this institution were white.
- Majority of employees at this institution were married.

Objective 1: Identify dominant and secondary sources of work motivation of generational cohorts

- In this financial institution, the Veteran was dominantly motivated based on self-concept internal followed by goal internalization and was least motivated by intrinsic process.

- In this institution, Baby Boomers were dominantly motivated based on self-concept internal followed by goal internalization and were least motivated by intrinsic process.
- In this institution, Generation X was dominantly motivated based on self-concept internal followed by goal internalization and were least motivated by intrinsic process.
- In this institution, Millennials were dominantly motivated based on self-concept internal followed by self-concept external and were least motivated by intrinsic process.

Objective 2: Determine differences in the state of hope by generational cohort

- In this institution, Generation X was the most hopeful generational cohort and Millennials were the least hopeful; however, all generations had high hope.
- In this institution there were no statistically significant differences between the state of hope of each generational cohort.

Objective 3: Determine differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort

- The Veteran at this institution had high normative commitment, low continuance commitment, and moderately high affective commitment.
- The Baby Boomers at this institution had high normative commitment, high continuance commitment, and high affective commitment.
- Generation X at this institution had high normative commitment, moderately high continuance commitment, and high affective commitment.
- Millennials at this institution had moderately high normative commitment, low continuance commitment, and high affective commitment.
- In this institution, there were no statistically significant differences between the levels of organizational commitment of each generation.

Objective 4: Describe the relationship between sources of work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment

- Normative commitment was positively related to the work motivation source, goal internalization. The higher a generation scored on the normative commitment scale, the higher they scored on goal internalization. Therefore, an employee that maintains membership in this institution because they feel obligated will be motivated when goals match their personal value system.

- Continuance commitment was positively related to the work motivation source, goal internalization. The higher a generation scored on the continuance commitment scale, the higher they scored on goal internalization. Therefore, an employee that feels like they have to maintain membership in the institution because there are no better alternatives is most likely to be motivated when goals match their personal value system.

Objective 5: Predict hope and organizational commitment based on work motivation with selected demographics.

- In this institution, the work motivation sources, self-concept external and self-concept internal, along with education were significant predictors of agency and pathway (hope scale items). These three variables accounted for 28% of the variance in agency and 23% of the variance in pathway.
- In this institution, none of the variables significantly predicted affective commitment.
- In this institution, the work motivation sources, instrumental and goal internalization, and year born were significant predictors of normative commitment. These three variables accounted for 28% of the variance in normative commitment.
- In this institution, year born was a significant predictor of continuance commitment. This variable accounted for 19% of the variance in continuance commitment.

Discussion and Implications

This research sought to determine generational differences in a mid-sized institution based in the United States using Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl's (1999) Self Concept-Based Work Motivation Model, Snyder's et al. (1991) hope theory, and Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment as the theoretical framework.

According to the findings of this study, generational differences with regards to work motivation, hope, and organizational commitment are not significant in this institution. Generational cohorts were very similar in regards to all three of the constructs that were explored. All four generations were dominantly motivated by self-concept internal work motivation, had high hope, and scored close to ideal on the

organizational commitment scale. Previous research on generations have also found similarities in regards to motivation, attitudes, and personalities (Macky, et al., 2008; Wong, et al., 2008; Levy et al., 2005; Hart et al., 2003; Montana & Lenaghan, 1999). Montana and Lenaghan (1999) found that Generation X and Millennials' ratings of their top six work motivators were identical and baby boomers only differed by one motivational factor. Wong's et al. (2008) findings were similar with Baby Boomers and Generation X selecting the same four motivational factors as being the most important: stable and secure future, high salary, opportunities to learn new things, and variety in work assignments.

According to Niemiec (2000), money and recognition are strong motivators for Baby Boomers. However, the Baby Boomers in this institution scored low on instrumental motivation (tangible, extrinsic rewards). Niemiec (2000) also stated that Generation X does not want recognition for work efforts, which was supported in this study. Generation X in this institution scored second lowest on self-concept external (approval and recognition). Interestingly, Barbuto and Miller (2008) found a significant difference between Baby Boomers and Generation X on instrumental motivation. According to Barbuto and Miller (2008), Generation X sought greater tangible benefits in the workplace, such as bonuses, increased salary, and time off. Other research has also indicated that Generation X is enticed by salary increases, personal fulfillment, and commitment to self rather than an organization (Dencker et al., 2007; Eisner, 2005; Jurkiewicz, 2000; Rodriguez et al., 2003). However, according to the findings in this institution, the dominant motivator for Generation X was self-concept internal, such as seeking task feedback that reinforces self-perceptions of traits, competencies, and

values. This finding is in opposition to other previous work which has emphasized Generation X's preference for financial gain, but can be related to the previous findings of Generation X's preference for personal fulfillment. This finding also aligns with Sellers (1994) statement that Generation X is unimpressed by fancy job titles, lacks interest to climb corporate ladders, but seeks tasks that allow them to learn and express their individual values. In addition, a study conducted on Millennials in leadership positions in Colleges of Agricultural and Life Sciences found that Millennials were primarily intrinsically motivated (enjoyable tasks) and motivated least by self-concept internal (tasks consistent with internal standards) (Andrews, 2011). However, the Millennials in this institution scored highest in self-concept internal and scored second lowest in intrinsic work motivation. Consistent with other research, Millennials in this institution care more about personal fulfillment than making money (Rawlins et al., 2008; Dries et al., 2008). Although Millennial's dominant source of work motivation was self-concept internal, same as the Veteran, Baby Boomers, and Generation X's, Millennial's secondary source of work motivation was self-concept external, whereas the other generations secondary source of work motivation was goal internalization. This finding indicated that Millennials in this institution were more concerned with social acceptance and need for affiliation than having a strong belief in tasks. Therefore, Millennials in this institution want tasks that lead to higher competency and want social approval from higher ups and coworkers.

Although Snyder's et al. (1991) hope theory has not been explored in generational research, researchers and popular literature have discussed psychological dimensions in generational cohorts (Twenge, 2000; Macky et al., 2008; Wong et al.,

2008). Wong et al. (2008) stated that employers should be prepared to handle increased levels of cynicism, negativity and less optimism in younger generations. However, according to the findings of this study, all generational cohorts in this institution had high hope. This indicates that each generation, when faced with challenges or obstacles has enough determination to overcome the obstacles by finding alternative paths to goal attainment. Each generational cohort in this institution can handle complex and ambiguous goals, and when faced with unexpected barriers each cohort can overcome such challenges without becoming discouraged or distracted from the original goal. Therefore, this study did not find any statistically significant differences in hope by generational cohort. However, some differences should be noted.

Generation X had the highest hope score by approximately 4 points when compared to Baby Boomers, indicating a higher ability to achieve goals. This finding could be a result of Generation X being in line to fill the management positions of the retiring Baby Boomers and at their prime to prove steadfast skills and achieve promotion. On the other hand, Millennials scored approximately 7 points lower than Generation X on hope and Millennials secondary work motivation source was self-concept external, potentially indicating that Millennials are more dependent on feedback when pursuing goals and need extra support from supervisors.

Furthermore, organizational commitment was explored in this study to determine differences by generational cohort. According to Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, and Larsson (1996), younger generations (Generation X and Millennials) do not have values that favor organizational commitment (Larsson, 1996; Deal, 2007). Sellers (1994) stated that Generation X does not plan to stay with one organization for the rest of their career,

nor are they committed to one type of work. In addition, Lawler (2005) stated that younger generations view organizational loyalty as a losing proposition and as a substitute, will accept learning opportunities, respect, challenging work, and rewards. Lawler (2005) concluded that when workers do not receive desirable substitutes, they will quickly move to more favorable employment conditions. However, older workers (Veterans and Baby Boomers) want to complete their careers in stable organizations (Brousseau et al., 1996), suggesting more commitment driven from pure desirability. Button et al. (1996) stated that older generations are interested in learning and are more likely to stay with their organization than younger generations.

Partially dissimilar to the aforementioned propositions, the findings in this study revealed that each generational cohort scored close to ideal on the organizational commitment scale. All generational cohorts in this institution scored high on normative commitment. Therefore, each generational cohort feels a strong sense of obligation to this institution. In addition, Baby Boomers and Generation X scored high on continuance commitment and the Veteran and Millennials scored low on continuance commitment. A low score is desirable on the continuance commitment scale. A high continuance commitment score indicates that Baby Boomers and Generation X maintain membership at this institution because the cost of leaving is too great; therefore, Baby Boomers and Generation X in this institution may feel trapped (Meyer & Allen, 2004). In addition, employees with high continuance commitment will do little beyond formal job descriptions; however, turnover rates are lower for these employees (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Therefore, Baby Boomers and Generation X in this institution will be resistant to go above and beyond their job requirements; however, both are more likely to stay at

this institution compared to the Veteran and Millennials. Last of all, each generational cohort scored high on affective commitment. All generational cohorts have some desire to remain employed at this institution. According to Meyer and Allen (2004), employees with high affective commitment perform at higher levels than those with low affective commitment. A study by Patalano (2008) found that Generation X scored significantly higher than Millennials on affective and normative commitment and that Millennials scored significantly higher on continuance commitment. However, this study did not find any statistically significant differences in organizational commitment by generational cohort.

All generational cohorts in this institution are dominantly motivated based on self-concept internal work motivation and all cohorts scored high on normative commitment. According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), one base of normative commitment is derived from the internalization of norms, which relates to self-concept internal work motivation and goal internalization work motivation. Goal internalization and self-concept internal work motivation sources both involve the reinforcement of an individual's personal value system. Although not revealed in this study, possibly due to sample size limitations, self-concept internal work motivation may be positively related to normative commitment. However, a positive relationship was found in this study between goal internalization work motivation and normative commitment. Therefore, future research should seek to examine a relationship between self-concept internal work motivation and normative commitment.

A positive relationship between continuance commitment and goal internalization work motivation was also found in this institution. In other words, as continuance

commitment increases, so does motivation derived from goal internalization, and vice versa. As previously mentioned, high continuance commitment characterizes an employee that stays with an organization because there are no better alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 2004), and goal internalization work motivation stems from engagement in activities that provide a sense of purpose and reinforce internal value systems (Leonard et al., 1999). Therefore, if an employee has goal internalization work motivation and feels unhappy with their job, then the employee could maintain membership in the position because there are no better alternatives that would allow them to achieve desired goals or they may have to forgo something of value in order to leave the organization. Future research should seek to further explain this relationship.

The last analysis conducted in this study sought to determine if hope and organizational commitment could be predicted based on work motivation and selected demographics. Findings revealed that self-concept external and self-concept internal work motivation sources, as well as education were significant predictors of agency and pathway (hope scale measures). Self-concept external relates well to hope, because when employees have relationships with coworkers they are more likely to seek guidance and attain support when tasks become challenging. Self-concept internal also plays a strong role in hope due to the challenge of achieving higher competency. When tasks increase in difficulty, an employee is motivated to persevere through the challenge because the end result is greater knowledge, skills, and abilities. In addition, year born, instrumental work motivation, and goal internalization work motivation were significant predictors of normative commitment. Year born is a significant predictor of normative commitment because younger generations that are early in a career path are more

focused on finding where they fit in the world of work, whereas older generations are more content in their careers due to longer tenure in the workforce. Also, instrumental motivation is a significant predictor of normative. When an employee receives substantial benefits in an organization, such as pay, and when special projects are assigned, dedication through a sense of obligation develops. There were no significant predictors for affective commitment, but year born was found to be a significant predictor of continuance commitment. The older an employee gets the less valuable and desirable they tend to feel toward an employer, which makes the costs of leaving an organization too great for fear no other jobs will be available. In addition, younger employees often enter the workforce with debts from student loans that must be paid within a fixed time period. Also, younger employees are starting families resulting in additional financial responsibilities. Therefore, younger employees also tend to be concerned with maintaining employment in order to pay back student loans and meet family obligations.

These conclusions follow the trend that popular literature found in management and in the media have falsely stereotyped generations (Macky et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2008; Jurkiewicz, 2000). Inconsistent findings of generational differences allude that differences as well as similarities may be context bound and fluctuate based on the nature of the work environment. Yu and Miller (2005) found generational differences in preferred leadership styles in the manufacturing industry, but no differences in the education sector. If generational differences and similarities are context bound, then researchers should focus on what factors cause differences and what factors lead to similarities. The sample in this study provided the unique opportunity to explore

generational characteristics in an institution that had recently went through a merger which resulted in organizational hierarchy restructuring. Prior to the merger, this institution was divided into three independent institutions. Each institution had chief level positions and branches that were managed by loan officers. Post-merger, the three independent institutions became one institution, with the only surviving chief level positions being the ceo/president and the chief financial officer, which resulted in the retirement of some employees. However, five chief level positions were created and each branch is managed by appointed branch leaders. Therefore, three different cultures merged together leaving this institution in a transition phase where employees had to adjust to new operations and managerial reporting. The nature of the working environment in this sample may have contributed to the findings; however, more research is needed in this area.

In addition, inconsistent findings of generational comparisons could be due to the lack of researchers accounting for maturity or life-cycle stages. Rhodes (1989) first posited the difficulty of identifying generational cohort differences from what may be attributed to maturity differences. However, other researchers argue that a generation's attitudes and preferences are life-long effects (Schewe & Meredith, 1994). As a result, maturity has often been disregarded in generational research. However, researchers should consider Maslow's (1943) Theory of Human Motivation in generational research. As discussed in Chapter 2, Maslow (1943) indicated in the Theory of Human Motivation that certain conditions, such as freedom to speak, freedom to do what one wishes as long as others are not harmed, and freedom to express one's self must be met before a person is satisfied, and once satisfied motivation to ceases. These basic conditions are

often satisfied as a person ages, indicating a decline in motivation as one grows old. Nonetheless, a longitudinal study of generations would reveal if differences in the workplace are due to life-cycle stages and maturity or to generational cohorts.

According to Yu and Miller (2005), it is paramount that leaders adapt their leadership style to positively contribute to motivation. Leaders and Managers will have more success in the workplace if they base decisions according to valid models of employee characteristics as opposed to false assumptions (Stone, 1998). On the other hand, organizational leaders that disregard the characteristics of employees or believe the false assumptions assigned to generational cohorts, as seen in popular literature, are doing a true disservice to their organization. According to Yu and Miller (2005) simple changes to job designs, reward systems, and organizational structures are often the solution to keeping an engaged workplace.

National Research Agenda

This study sought to aid The National Research Agenda: Agricultural Education and Communication 2011-2015 by furthering the following research priority area (RPA):

RPA 3: Sufficient Scientific and Professional Workforce that addresses the challenges of the 21st century

RPA Outcome: A sufficient supply of well-prepared agricultural scientists and professionals drive sustainable growth, scientific discovery, and innovation in public, private, and academic settings.

- This research aided the RPA 3 by providing an understanding of the differences and similarities of 21st century workers in order to improve work efficiency through motivation tactics, goal setting techniques, and overall to understand effective collaboration to solve challenging problems.

RPA 4: Meaningful, Engaged Learning in all Environments

RPA Outcome: Learners in all agricultural education learning environments will be actively and emotionally engaged in learning, leading to high levels of achievement, life and career readiness, and professional success.

- This research aided the RPA 4 by seeking to identify how employees are motivated and committed in order for organizations and learning institutions to effectively develop and maintain an engaging environment that appeals to adult learners. By tapping into the motivation sources of learners, organizations and learning institutions will be able to tailor workshops, training programs, and incentive plans that advance thinking and performance.

Recommendations

Based on the results and conclusions of this study, the researcher has made recommendations for practitioners and researchers.

Recommendations for Practice

- This institution should compare the findings of this study to their incentive programs and determine if their system is congruent with their employee's motivation sources.
- This institution should cultivate an environment that makes employees feel their contributions are important.
- This institution should survey employees every year for feedback on organizational activities, initiatives, and satisfaction with formal job responsibilities.
- This institution should seek ethnic diversity within their organization.
- This institution should strive to make sure job responsibilities and tasks reinforce the employee's self-perceptions of traits, competencies, and values.
- Managers at this institution should provide task feedback to employees that reinforce the employee's self-perceptions of traits, competencies, and values.
- This institution should keep in mind that employees are able to handle ambiguous tasks when assigning responsibilities.
- This institution should promote relationship development among coworkers and also between employees and managers. Relationship development allows for open communication and collaboration. A supportive environment will also motivate employees to go beyond their formal job descriptions.

Recommendations for Research

- The methodology of this study should be replicated with a larger population sample that can capture an equal representation of each generational cohort.
- Further research should compare generational cohort characteristics to age in regards to career maturity or the process of life stages.
- Future research on generations should focus on the context of the workplace and/or nature of the environment.
- A longitudinal study should be conducted to determine if life-cycle stages are the reason for differences in the workplace or if the differences are a result of generational cohorts.
- Future research should seek to examine a relationship between self-concept internal work motivation and normative commitment.
- Future research should seek to explain the relationship between goal internalization work motivation and continuance commitment.
- A longitudinal study should examine tenure in predicting motivation sources, hope, or organizational commitment.
- Researchers should follow a strict guideline of defining the years that each generation was born. Inconsistencies in the definition of birth years has made it difficult to compare research findings.

Summary

This chapter began by presenting an overview of the significance of conducting research in this area, along with the purpose and objectives of this study. The methodology of this study was discussed and included specifics on the population, how data were analyzed, and the response rate. Next, a summary of findings and conclusions were presented. Each objective was stated and discussed based on statistical findings. In addition, the findings of this study were connected to the national research agenda and recommendations for practitioners and researchers were provided.

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

UF Institutional Review Board
UNIVERSITY of FLORIDA

PO Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
352-392-0433 (Phone)
352-392-9234 (Fax)
irb2@ufl.edu

September 8, 2011

TO: Holly Reed Cain
3643 SW 74th Drive
Gainesville, FL 32608

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD; Chair *ISF*
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2011-U-0879**

TITLE: Motivating Generations in the Workplace: A Look at Hope and Organizational Commitment

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants. Your protocol was approved as an expedited study under category 7: *Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.* Given your protocol, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of informed consent from the parent or legal guardian of each participant. Enclosed is the dated, IRB-approved informed consent to be used when recruiting participants for the research.

It is essential that the parents/guardians of your minor participants sign a copy of your approved informed consent that bears the IRB approval stamp and expiration date.

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, **including the need to increase the number of participants authorized**, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

The approval of this study is valid through **September 1, 2012**. If you have not completed the study by this date, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

INFORMED CONSENT

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

Purpose of the research study: The purpose of this study is to evaluate the sources of motivation, the state of hope, and level of organizational commitment among generational cohorts, as defined by age.

What you will be asked to do in the study: You will be asked to complete the Motivation Sources Inventory, the State Hope Scale, and the Organizational Commitment Scale. These surveys will ask a series of questions where you will evaluate yourself. Demographic questions will also be asked.

Time required: 20 minutes

Risks and Benefits: No more than minimal risk. There are no direct benefits to you for participating in this study.

Compensation: None

Confidentiality: Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. Your information will be assigned a code number; therefore no one will be able to view your responses or office location at time of completion. Your name will not be used in any report.

Voluntary participation: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There is no penalty for not participating.

Right to withdraw from the study: You have the right to withdraw from the study at anytime without consequence.

Whom to contact if you have questions about the study: Holly Reed Cain, Graduate Student, Department of Agricultural Education and Communication, 406 Rolfs Hall PO BOX 110540, Gainesville FL 32611-0540. Phone: 386-623-4563, Email: hollykreed@ufl.edu or Dr. Nicole Stedman, Associate Professor, Department of Agricultural Education and Communication, 406 Rolfs Hall PO BOX 110540, Gainesville FL 32611-0540. Phone: 352-392-0502 x247, Email: nstedman@ufl.edu.

Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in the study: IRB02 Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250. Phone 392-0433.

Agreement: I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Click here if you agree to participate in the study.

Approved by
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board 02
Protocol # 2011-U-0879
For Use Through 09-01-2012

APPENDIX B
SURVEY COMPLETION REQUESTS

Pre-Survey Email

Dear Employee,

My name is Holly Cain and I am a graduate student at the University of Florida in the College of Agricultural and Life Sciences working on my Master's degree in Agricultural Leadership Development. I am writing to invite you to participate in my thesis research, "Motivating Generations in the Workplace: A Look at Hope and Organizational Commitment." As you may be aware, there are four generations of workers in today's workplace (Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials). The intent or goal of my research is to determine how each generation is motivated, how they pursue goals and how committed they are to their organizations.

In the next week, you will be receiving an email containing a link to participate in this study. Your participation is greatly appreciated and completely voluntary. There is absolutely no penalty for not participating. If you choose to participate, you will answer items on three confidential assessments that will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. You do not have to answer any question you do not want to answer, and can stop at any time without penalty. If you would like more information on this study, please contact me at 408 Rolfs Hall, Gainesville campus, 352-273-2095, hollykreed@ufl.edu or Dr. Nicole Stedman, 217B Rolfs Hall, Gainesville campus, 352-273-2585. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the UF IRB Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, 32611-2250, 352-392-0433.

Again, your participation is completely anonymous and would be greatly appreciated. You are helping to develop a better understanding of the differences and similarities among generations in the workplace for the benefit of managers, leaders, and researchers working to improve the 21st century workplace.

Thank you,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Initial Contact Email

October 3, 2011

Dear Employee,

On September 22nd you received an email inviting you to participate in my graduate research at the University of Florida regarding generational differences in the workplace. If you follow the link below you will be directed to participate in the survey. This survey has been previously tested for accuracy and took participants an average of ten minutes to complete. Again, your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary. If you have any questions or concerns, I can be reached at hollykreed@ufl.edu or (352)273-2095.

Your contribution to my thesis research is greatly appreciated! It is only through the help of people like you that research questions can be answered.

The link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

Thank you,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

First Follow-Up Email

October 10, 2011

Dear Employee,

Thank you so much to those of you who have already participated in the “Generational Differences in the Workplace” survey. I would like to remind those who have not had the chance to take the survey that you still have the opportunity. This survey is completely anonymous and confidential and will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Your help in answering this research question will be greatly beneficial not only in helping me complete my thesis research, but to other researchers in the Leadership field working to improve your workplace environment.

The survey link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

Thank you in advance,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Second Follow-Up Email

October 18, 2011

Dear Employee,

Your opportunity to contribute to the research, *Generational Differences in the Workplace* is quickly wrapping up. However, the link to the survey is still available. Just copy and paste the survey link into your URL.

Link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. Thank you so much to those of you who have already participated. Your help is greatly appreciated!

If you have any questions or comments, I can be contacted at hollykreed@ufl.edu. If you have questions regarding your rights as a survey participant please contact the University of Florida Institutional Review Board at 352-392-0433.

Thank you,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Third Follow-Up Email

October 26, 2011

Dear Employee,

Together we are making great progress toward the research *Generational Differences in the Workplace*. Due to steady survey feedback, the survey will continue to be available. I am eager to keep hearing from you! Thank you so much if you have already participated; we are now closer to answering this research priority.

Once more, participation in this survey is completely anonymous. To participate, copy and paste the following link into your web browser.

Survey Link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

If you have any questions I can be contacted at hollykreed@ufl.edu. For questions regarding your rights as a survey participant please contact the University of Florida Institutional Review Board at 352-392-0433.

Thank you,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Fourth Follow-Up Email

November 2, 2011

Dear Employee,

We are now wrapping up the research on *Generational Differences in the Workplace*. The survey will officially close on Wednesday, November 9th at 12 am, giving you only one week left to participate if you have not done so already. To participate copy and paste the following link into your web browser.

Link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

This survey is completely anonymous and confidential. If you have any questions I can be contacted at hollykreed@ufl.edu. For questions regarding your rights as a survey participant please contact the University of Florida Institutional Review Board at 352-392-0433.

Thank you all so much for your willingness to contribute to my graduate thesis!

Sincerely,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Fifth Follow-Up Email

November 8, 2011

Dear Employee,

It was brought to my attention that the survey link for *Generational Differences in the Workplace* was closed by the Qualtrics survey management system. I apologize for this inconvenience and assure that the survey link is now working properly. As a result, the survey deadline will be extended until Tuesday, November 23rd, at 12 a.m.

If you have not already participated in the survey I would greatly appreciate your support. To participate in the survey, copy and paste the following link into your web browser.

Link: https://ufaecd.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_81cSMo5hagqUoM4

Thank you for your attention to this matter and willingness to contribute to graduate research at the University of Florida!

Sincerely,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

Final Contact Email

November 30, 2011

Dear Employee,

I am pleased to announce that your participation in the survey *Generational Differences in the Workplace* was a success! Thank you so much to each person who contributed to my thesis research. The College of Agricultural and Life Sciences, as well as the department of Agricultural Education and Communication greatly benefit from your support of academic research. In return, through our contribution of research, we strive to make advancements that will improve your 21st century workplace.

Thank you again for your generosity.

Sincerely,

Holly Reed Cain

Graduate Student
Agricultural Leadership Development
University of Florida
hollykreed@ufl.edu
408 Rolfs Hall
352-273-2095

APPENDIX C
INTRUMENTATION

Motivation Sources Inventory

The purpose of this survey is to describe the things that best motivate you. Rate your level of agreement with each of the following statements on the scale below. There are not right or wrong answers. Read each statement and answer honestly about yourself. Answer each item according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree

- _____ 1. I prefer to do things that are fun.
- _____ 2. I like to be rewarded for extra responsibilities.
- _____ 3. It is important that others appreciate the work I do.
- _____ 4. Decisions I make reflect my personal standards.
- _____ 5. I work hard for a company if I agree with its mission.
- _____ 6. I get excited when working on things I enjoy doing.
- _____ 7. I will work harder if I get paid for the extra effort.
- _____ 8. I like to get recognition for a job well done.
- _____ 9. It is important that my work requires my unique skills.
- _____ 10. I need to believe in a cause before I work hard.
- _____ 11. I often put off work so I can do something better.
- _____ 12. I work harder if I know my efforts will lead to better rewards.
- _____ 13. I work harder if I know my efforts will be praised.
- _____ 14. I work harder if I know my skills are needed.

- _____ 15. When I believe in the cause, I work hard to help it succeed.
- _____ 16. I get excited when I know I'll be doing my favorite activities.
- _____ 17. I work hard to find ways to earn more income.
- _____ 18. I am motivated when people make me feel appreciated.
- _____ 19. My favorite tasks are those that are the most challenging.
- _____ 20. I work hard when I feel a sense of purpose in the work.
- _____ 21. I prefer to spend time with people who are fun to be with.
- _____ 22. I like to find ways to earn more money.
- _____ 23. I work hard on the job to strengthen my reputation.
- _____ 24. I prefer to do things that give me a sense of achievement.
- _____ 25. I am energized when I agree with an organization's purpose.
- _____ 26. When choosing jobs, I consider which job will be most fun.
- _____ 27. I like to keep looking for better business opportunities.
- _____ 28. I give my best effort when I know others will notice.
- _____ 29. I am motivated when my skills are needed.
- _____ 30. My motivation will be high when I believe in what I'm doing.

State Hope Scale

Read each item carefully. Using the scale shown below, please select the number that best describes *how you think about yourself right now* and put that number in the blank provided. *Please take a few moments to focus on yourself and what is going on in your life at this moment. Once you have this "here and now" set, go ahead and answer each item according to the following scale:*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Definitely False	Mostly False	Somewhat False	Slightly False	Slightly True	Somewhat True	Mostly True	Definitely True

- _____ 1. If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.
- _____ 2. At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals.
- _____ 3. There are lots of ways around any problem that I am facing now.
- _____ 4. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful.
- _____ 5. I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.
- _____ 6. At this time, I am meeting the goals that I have set for myself.

Organizational Commitment Scale

Read each item carefully. Using the scale shown below, please select the number that best describes you. There is no right or wrong answers. Answer each item according to the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Mostly Agree	Strongly Agree

- _____ 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
- _____ 2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- _____ 3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- _____ 4. I think I could easily become as attached to another organizations as I am to this one.
- _____ 5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
- _____ 6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
- _____ 7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- _____ 8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
- _____ 9. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
- _____ 10. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- _____ 11. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
- _____ 12. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.

- _____ 13. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
- _____ 14. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
- _____ 15. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
- _____ 16. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice; another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.
- _____ 17. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
- _____ 18. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
- _____ 19. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
- _____ 20. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
- _____ 21. This organization deserves my loyalty.
- _____ 22. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
- _____ 23. I owe a great deal to my organization.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Holly Kendall Reed Cain was born in Gainesville, Florida. She was raised in Lake Butler, Florida and graduated from Union County High School in 2006. In the year following high school graduation, Holly finished her Associate of Arts degree from Lake City Community College and transferred to the University of Florida. Holly pursued a Bachelor of Science degree from the Warrington College of Business Administration at the University of Florida. While completing her bachelor's degree, Holly was a member of the University of Florida Cheerleading team and led the Gators to a National Championship in 2008. In December 2009, Holly graduated with a Bachelor of Science in Business Management.

Following graduation Holly completed an internship with Florida Farm Bureau, coordinating their annual Field to the Hill trip in May 2010. Shortly after in July 2010 Holly married her high school sweetheart, Andrew Cain.

In August 2010, Holly joined the Agricultural Education and Communications Department at the University of Florida to study Agricultural Leadership Development. While completing her master's degree, Holly served as a graduate assistant for AEC3033 Technical Writing and AEC3414 Leadership Development. Following graduation Holly plans to pursue a career in human resources or program/event coordinating.