University of Tennessee, Knoxville
Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange

Doctoral Dissertations | Graduate School

5-2010

Predicting Turnover Intent: Examining the Effects of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Age.

Mary L. Berry
University of Tennessee - Knoxville, mlberry2@aol.com

Recommended Citation
Berry, Mary L., "Predicting Turnover Intent: Examining the Effects of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Age.." PhD diss., University of Tennessee, 2010.
http://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_graddiss/678

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Trace: Tennessee Research and Creative Exchange. For more information, please contact trace@utk.edu.

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Mary L. Berry entitled "Predicting Turnover Intent: Examining the Effects of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Age.." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Business Administration.

Michael L. Morris, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Robert T. Ladd, Donde A. Plowman, Thomas R. Crook, Alan P. Chesney

Accepted for the Council:
Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Mary Lynn Berry entitled "Predicting Turnover Intent: Examining the Effects of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Age." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Business Administration.

Michael Lane Morris

_____

Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Robert T. Ladd

_____

Donde Plowman

_____

T. Russell Crook

_____

Alan Chesney

_____

Accepted for the Council:

_____

Carolyn R. Hodges, Vice Provost and Dean

of the Graduate School

Original signatures are on file with official student records.

Predicting Turnover Intent: Examining the Effects of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Age.

A Dissertation Presented for

The Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Mary Lynn Berry

May 2010

Copyright © 2010 by Mary Lynn Berry

All rights reserved.

DEDICATION

To Lauren, Jacob, and Caroline.

And Jeff.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my deepest appreciation to my graduate committee for their support and encouragement--Dr. Lane Morris, Dr. Tom Ladd, Dr. Donde Plowman, Dr. Russell Crook, and Dr. Alan Chesney. In addition, a special thank you to Dr. Sharon Jeffcoat Bartley, Dr. Virginia Kupritz, and Dr. Vicky Johnson Stout for your encouragement over the years. Next, a thank you is extended to Angie White, Anita Van De Vate, and Callie Blount for proofreading. A special thank you is also extended to Jim Atchley, fellow teacher, for his continued encouragement and support. Finally, a special thank you to Drs. Hazel and Bob Spitze and Lynn and Marilyn Slayton.

ABSTRACT

The current study assessed the moderating effects of Age and the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. The theory of reasoned action and a theoretical framework for examining age-effects on employee attitudes were used as the theoretical underpinnings for the study. The study utilized a secondary data set with surveyed population including faculty (n = 1,229) from a land-grant institution holding the doctoral/research-extensive classification from the Carnegie Classification and serving about 42,000 students each year with graduates totaling more than 9,000 per year. Findings confirmed that 11 of the 12 items of the Gallup Workplace Audit loaded on the Employee Engagement factor. Findings also confirmed a 3-item solution for the Compensation Fairness factor. Both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness demonstrated an inverse relationship with Turnover Intent as expected. Job Satisfaction was found not to mediate the relationship between both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness with the outcome variable Turnover Intent. Finally, Age was not found to moderate the relationship between antecedent variables and Turnover Intent. Recommendations for research and practice were made.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ..... PAGE

CHAPTER 1 1

Introduction 1

Significance of the Study 8

Statement of the Problem 8

Purpose of the Study 9

Objectives of the Study 10

Research Questions 10

Hypotheses 11

Nominal Definitions 12

Employee Engagement 12

Compensation Fairness 12

Compensation 12

Employee Benefits 12

Job Satisfaction 13

Employee Retention 13

Employee Turnover 13

Turnover Intent 13

Cohort 13

Tenure 13
Faculty 14
Theoretical Framework 14
Theory of Reasoned Action 14
General Theoretical Framework: Age Effects, Cohort Effects 19
Higher Education 29
Assumptions of the Study 31
Summary 32
Review of the Literature 33
Employee Engagement 33
Defining Employee Engagement 34
Employee Engagement, Employee Disengagement, and Burnout 36
Prevalence of Employee Engagement 37
Employee Engagement as a Multidimensional Concept 38
Employee Engagement vs. Organizational Commitment 40
Personal Engagement 41
Promotion of Employee Engagement 43
Compensation Fairness 53
Compensation 54
Employee Benefits 56
Turnover Intent 60

Turnover 60

Turnover Intent 62

Employee Engagement with Turnover Intent 64

Expectations with Turnover Intent 66

Materials with Turnover Intent 67

Opportunity with Turnover Intent 67

Recognition with Turnover Intent 68

Care with Turnover Intent 69

Encouragement with Turnover Intent 70

Opinions Count with Turnover Intent 71

Mission with Turnover Intent 71

Quality Work with Turnover Intent 72

Best Friend with Turnover Intent 73

Progress/Appraisal with Turnover Intent 74

Learn and Grow with Turnover Intent 74

Compensation Fairness with Turnover Intent 75

Job Satisfaction 78

Employee Engagement, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent 80

Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent 83

Age 84

Profile of the Mature Worker 85

Profile of the Midcareer Worker 86
Profile of the Late Midcareer Worker 87
Profile of the Early Midcareer Worker 88
Profile of the Young Worker 88
Moderating Effects of Age 90
Expectations, Turnover Intent, and Age 92
Materials, Turnover Intent, and Age 93
Opportunity, Turnover Intent, and Age 94
Recognition, Turnover Intent, and Age 95
Care, Turnover Intent, and Age 96
Encouragement, Turnover Intent, and Age 97
Opinions Count, Turnover Intent, and Age 98
Mission, Turnover Intent, and Age 99
Quality Work, Turnover Intent, and Age 99
Best Friend, Turnover Intent, and Age 100
Progress/Appraisal, Turnover Intent, and Age 101
Learn and Grow, Turnover Intent, and Age 102
Summary 104
CHAPTER III 106
Methodology 106
Methods 106

Selection of the Population 108
Sample 109
Instrumentation 109
Employee Engagement 110
Compensation Fairness 111
Job Satisfaction 112
Turnover Intent 112
Demographics 112
Procedures 113
Data Collection 114
Data Analysis 114
Ethical Considerations 118
Summary 119
CHAPTER IV 120
Data Analysis 120
Descriptive Statistics 120
Measurement Model 121
Structural Model 123
Prediction of Turnover Intent 123
Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction in the Structural Model 124
Moderating Effects of Age in the Structural Model 126

Summary 127

CHAPTER V 128

Conclusion and Recommendations 128

Conclusion 128

Findings 129

Significance of the Study 135

Objectives of the Study Satisfied 135

Improvements Made to Employee Engagement Literature 136

Recommendations 138

Recommendations for Future Research 138

Recommendations for Practice 141

Summary 151

REFERENCES 153

APPENDICES 197

Employee Satisfaction Survey 199

VITA 236

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE PAGE

Figure 1. Turnover Model Based on Mobley (1977), Mobley et al. (1978), Mobley et al. (1979), and Muchinsky and Morrow. (1980). 203

Figure 2. Current Model: Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction and Moderating Effects of Age on the Relationship between Antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness (Evaluation of Current Job) and Outcome Variable Turnover Intent (Thoughts of Quitting). 204

Figure 3. Measurement Model for Employee Engagement. 205

Figure 4. Measurement Model for Compensation Fairness. 206

Figure 5. Model showing Prediction of Turnover Intent by Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness with Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction and Moderating Effect of Age. 207

Figure 6. Accepted Measurement Model for Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness. 208

Figure 7. Accepted Model for Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent. 209

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE PAGE

Table 1. Employee Engagement Items (Gallup Workplace Audit), Variable Names of Predictor Variables, and The Four Camps of the Gallup Workplace Audit (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999). 211

Table 2. Gallup Workplace Audit Items, Parallel Items in the Literature, Name of Measure, Source, Relationship with Turnover Intent and/or Age. 212

Table 3. Employee Engagement by Career Stage. 227

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Faculty for Employee Engagement Scale, Compensation Fairness Factor, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent. 229

Table 5. Standardized Regression Weights for A Priori Two-Factor Measurement Weights Model. 230

Table 6. Standardized Regression Weights for Revised Two-Factor Measurement Weights Model. 231

Table 7. Summary Table of Measurement Models. 232

Table 8. Summary Table of Structural Models. 233

Table 9. Summary Table of Hypotheses. 234

Table 10. Post Hoc ANOVA for Age Differences in Study Variables 235

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

"The challenge today is not just retaining talented people, but fully engaging them, capturing their minds and hearts at each stage of their work lives"

(Lockwood, 2007, p. 1).

The American workforce is changing. Demographers have proposed that the workforce of tomorrow will be quite different from that of yesterday. One may attribute these coming changes to the great exodus of the baby boomers from the work place, or, perhaps, the longevity boom caused by the increase in life expectancy from about 47 years around 1900 to 77 years today, or even to the birth dearth in the U.S. and abroad where birth rates are falling, some below replacement rates (Dychtwald, Erickson, & Morison, 2006). Compound these "problems" by the fact that the ethnic make-up of workers is more diverse (Dychtwald et al., 2006), the family life cycle has changed (Dychtwald et al., 2006), and the generation entering the workforce is less educated than its predecessors with 21-23% of these workers functionally illiterate (Jamrog, 2004), and, as a result, American businesses and organizations have the elements for a "Workforce Crisis" (Dychtwald et al., 2006) or "Perfect Storm" (Jamrog, 2004). What's in the forecast for American businesses and organizations? While current economic conditions have employees striving to maintain positions, it is anticipated that as baby boomers exit the workplace both profit and non-profit organizations will be confronted with a shortage

of skilled laborers, a shortage further exacerbated by the voluntarily turnover by many workers in an effort to secure better jobs (Jamrog, 2004). To encourage readiness for such a crisis, Jamrog (2004) suggested that Human Resource Development professionals focus on building a culture of both retention and engagement in the workplace: "Employer strategies to build a culture that retains and engages the best and brightest will rely less heavily on traditional pay and benefits and more on the creation of a work environment that allows people to grow and develop" (p. 29). In sum, a prepared organization will be able to weather the storm, and many (Lockwood, 2007; Dychtwald et al., 2006; Jamrog, 2004) have suggested that the best strategies to weather the coming crisis are those that deal with retention, job satisfaction, engagement, turnover intent, and compensation fairness.

Similarly, within the context of higher education, the shortage of faculty has been forecasted by several researchers (Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, & Staples, 2006; Harrison & Hargrove, 2006) with as many as half of the nation's faculty retiring by 2015. Harrison and Hargrove (2006) explained that finding replacements for aging faculty is a major concern for institutions in higher education, a problem exacerbated by rising costs of health care and the unattractiveness of faculty positions to doctoral students as compared to salaries and benefits they may earn in other industries. Also, according to Harrison and Hargrove, a decline in faculty positions may decrease the quality of instruction via a reduction in the effectiveness of available faculty to manage normal tasks. Moreover, results of a decreased quality in education can damage the reputation of

an institution, threaten faculty morale, and impact student-faculty interactions (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006; Dee, 2004). In addition to concerns with the retirement of the baby boomers, concerns with the attraction of and retention in staff are extended also to diverse faculty members as women and people of color are underrepresented as compared to a diversifying student body (Van Ummersen, 2005). Efforts to better understand retention, job satisfaction, engagement, and compensation fairness may be useful in ameliorating the crisis in higher education and retain valuable employees that may choose to proceed with retirement or even seek jobs elsewhere if the opportunity arises.

While healthy turnover in an organization can be positive, refreshing, and helpful in introducing new ideas and techniques that can move the organization to greater levels of success, turnover among highly-productive, key employees is costly (Hellman, 1997). For example, typical turnover costs include exit costs (e.g., exit interviews, administrative time, and pay for leave not taken), temporary replacement costs (e.g., agency fees and training), recruitment and selection costs (e.g., advertising costs, agency fees, lost time, screening, applicant testing assessment, background checks, interviews, travel and relocation), missed and lost sales opportunities, decreased morale and productivity among retained workers, loss of future key talent (i.e., intellectual capital including knowledge, skills, and experience), and sharing of organizational processes, technology, and relationships (International Survey Research, n.d.; Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). Since, the long-term retention of a highly productive workforce is coveted, and a goal of human resources is to attract and maintain highly productive employees, it is imperative

for human resources to better understand how to maximize the retention of productive employees through the analysis of the antecedents of organizational withdrawal decisions. This is a popular research topic among investigators and theorists in the fields of business and human resource management as well as economics, organizational science, psychology, and political science (Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985).

Although retention of highly productive key employees is certainly an important task for human resources, so is the creation and development of a workplace that not only encourages retention, but also high levels of productivity among all employees. Many researchers (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Seijts & Crim, 2006; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002) have used the term *engagement* to refer to employees who are involved in, enthusiastic about, and satisfied with his or her work. The 2003 Towers Perrin Talent Report found that approximately 81% of employees surveyed were engaged, but as many as 19% of employees surveyed were disengaged. BlessingWhite (2008) also reported the same percentage of disengaged employees in North America. Disengaged employees are more likely to perform poorly, actively look for another job, and make negative comments about management or the organization for which they work (Gubman, 2004). Such counterproductive work behavior also has a documented relationship with a lack of organizational citizenship (Dalal, 2005). Moreover, Sanford (2003) reported that disengaged employees cost their organizations financially via decreased profits, decreased sales, lower customer satisfaction, and lower productivity. Furthermore, Sanford (2003) reported that the Gallup Organization estimated that actively disengaged

employees may cost the American economy up to $350 billion per year in lost productivity. The encouragement of engagement among employees through the creation and development of a stronger workplace culture has enormous return on investment (ROI) potential for organizations. BlessingWhite (2008) cited a number of instances where high employee engagement is linked to superior business performance including BestBuy which reported that stores increasing employee engagement by a tenth of a point (using a 5-point scale) see an increase in sales for the year totaling $100,000. According to Lockwood (2007), "[T]o gain a competitive edge, organizations are turning to HR [Human Resources] to set the agenda for employee engagement and commitment" (p. 2).

Employee engagement includes those characteristics of a workplace environment that "attract and retain the most productive employees" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999, p. 30). Employee engagement has been measured by the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) that consists of 12 items measuring concepts ranging from understanding work expectations to having a best friend at work to having opportunities at work to learn and grow. (See Table 1 in Appendix C). The GWA will be discussed in more depth in Chapter II.

Employee engagement is an important part of the Employee Value Proposition (EVP) described by Ledford and Lucy (2002). In the EVP, rewards of work drive employee outcomes that in turn drive organizational outcomes (Ledford & Lucy, 2002, part 1). The monetary and non-monetary rewards of work include many of the facets related to employee engagement and may be divided into 5 areas:

- Compensation,
- Benefits (including recognition),
- Career (including advancement, training, and employment security),
- Work Content (including meaningfulness, feedback, and variety), and
- Affiliation (including work environment, trust, and organizational commitment) (Ledford & Lucy, 2002, The Segal Group, Inc., 2006d).

All five types of rewards have an impact on employee outcomes including retention, engagement, and performance (The Segal Group, Inc., 2006a); although employees may prefer one reward to another and accept substitutions (Ledford & Lucy, 2002). Organizational outcomes include productivity, customer satisfaction, growth, and profitability (The Segal Group, Inc., 2006a). Work should be rewarding and engaging. Work is an important component contributing to the well- being of both the individual and the community, affecting the quality of the life and mental health of the individual as well as the productivity of a community (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2002). Of particular concern to employers is the degree to which employees accept the rewards of work, monetary or otherwise, but simultaneously experience decreased satisfaction and engagement without an increased intention to leave and, in essence, they are "quitting on the job" (The Segal Group, Inc., 2006a, p.4).

Despite the fact that organizational performance has been measured using hard numbers (i.e., numbers associated with productivity, profitability, and other revenues), recent research has shown that "soft" numbers may be useful in action planning

(Coffman & Harter, 1999). “Soft” numbers are sometimes difficult to quantify directly, difficult to convert to monetary values, subjectively based, and attitude or behaviorally oriented (Phillips, 1997). “Soft” numbers may be very useful for human resources looking to decrease employee turnover and increase employee engagement through the development of a stronger workplace environment or as a prediction of occupational well-being (or unwell-being) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2007) These soft numbers may include employee attitudes regarding a number of organizational topics including employee engagement—which mirror many of the rewards in the EVP such as recognition, meaningfulness and feedback (Ledford and Lucy, 2002)--and employees’ expressed turnover intent. The use of “soft” data may be an important component to an organization’s attainment of competitive advantage over competition (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). Hence, Harrison, Newman, and Roth (2006) called soft data “one of the most useful pieces of information an organization can have about its employees” (p. 320-321).

As we continue into the new millennium, not only are we faced with the baby boomers exiting the workplace, but we are also confronted with the task of attracting, training, and retaining a younger workforce entering the workplace who may differ significantly from previous generations (Smola & Sutton, 2002). While a number of researchers have focused on the relationship between age and Turnover Intent (Waters, Roach & Waters, 1976; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Martin, 1979; Jamal, 1981; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Schulz, Bigoness, & Gagnon, 1987; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991),

previous research has not addressed the age-related issues present in employees' attitudes concerning the employee value proposition, specifically as it relates to compensation fairness and to employee engagement.

Significance of the Study

This study extended previous conceptualizations of Turnover Intent (e.g., Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; see Figures 1 and 2 in Appendix B) by incorporating new work environment variables (i.e., Employee Engagement) that a small but growing number of studies have shown to have a significant effect on Turnover and Turnover Intent. Moreover, this study conceptually linked Employee Engagement (as measured by the 12 items of the Gallup Workplace Audit and recently popularized in the consulting literature) with similar items in the research literature (see Table 2 in Appendix C). Finally, this study tested both the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction and the moderating effects of Age on the relationship between antecedents—Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness—and the outcome variable Turnover Intent among faculty utilizing secondary data obtained from an institution of higher education.

Statement of the Problem

While Macey and Schneider (2008) have suggested that employee engagement is not a new concept but simply an "old wine in new bottles" (p. 6) and " composed of a potpourri of items" (p. 6) representing previously researched concepts such as Job satisfaction, empowerment, job involvement, and organizational commitment, the term employee engagement has appeared fairly recently in the research literature (See Kahn,

1990; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; and Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2005) but is much more commonly found in consulting works (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Towers-Perrin, 2003). Because of its relative infancy, there has been a lack of sufficient information about employee engagement, specifically conditions in the work environment that are said to promote employee engagement (Macey & Schneider, 2008), its measurement, and the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent. Furthermore, there also has existed a lack of information about the moderating effects of age on the relationships between the antecedents employee engagement and compensation fairness and the outcome variable turnover intent as well as the mediating effects of job satisfaction on the same. Because of this lack of information, there has been missed opportunities for growth and development that could essentially affect the organizational performance and staffing in organizations, especially academia and particularly in light of the forecasted shortages in higher education (Bland et al., 2006).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the influence of Job Satisfaction as a mediator and Age as a moderator on the antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness on the outcome variable Turnover Intent in order that improvements can be made in the work environment as well as for the studied organization's performance. Additionally, the researcher of the current study purposed to bridge consulting works

popularizing the concept employee engagement with the research literature via a study assessing faculty in higher education who have been infrequently studied.

Objectives of the Study

Using a sample of faculty in higher education, the objectives for this predictive study included the following:

1. Test the measurement models for both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness. (See Figures 3 and 4 in Appendix B).
2. Test the prediction of the outcome variable Turnover Intent by antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).
3. Test the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).
4. Test the moderating effect of Age on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).

Research Questions

Using a sample of faculty in higher education, the research questions for this study included the following:

1. Can employee engagement and compensation fairness be measured?

2. Can employee engagement and compensation fairness be used to predict turnover intent? Furthermore, which variable—Employee Engagement or Compensation Fairness—best predicts Turnover Intent?
3. Does Job Satisfaction mediate the relationship between the antecedents—Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness—and the outcome variable Turnover Intent?
4. Does Age moderate the relationship between the antecedents—Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness—and the outcome variable Turnover Intent?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses for the study included the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Employee Engagement is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 1b: Compensation Fairness is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 2a: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 2b: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 3a: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 3b: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Nominal Definitions

Employee Engagement

Employee engagement is the act of an employee being involved in, enthusiastic about, and satisfied with his or her work (Seijts et al., 2006; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Harrison, 2007; Gubman, 2004). It includes the characteristics of a workplace environment that "attract and retain the most productive employees" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999, p. 30).

Compensation Fairness

Compensation fairness refers the perceptions that employees have regarding equity in company practices concerning internal compensation, external compensation, and benefits.

Compensation

According to Milkovich and Newman (2005), compensation refers to "all forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship" (p. 602).

Employee Benefits

An employee benefit is "any type of plan sponsored or initiated unilaterally or jointly by employers and employees in providing benefits that stem from the employment relationship that are not underwritten or paid directly by government" (Yohalem, 1977, p. 19).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the contentment an individual has with her or her job.

Employee Retention

Employee retention (versus employee turnover) refers to the continued employment of employees. Optimally, high-quality, productive employees are retained.

Employee Turnover

Employee turnover (versus employee retention) refers to the process of an employee leaving a position and a new employee hired to take his or her place. Employee turnover can be voluntary and involuntary as well as internal and external. Of particular concern to the current study is employee turnover that is both voluntary and external in nature.

Turnover Intent

Turnover intent refers to the voluntary intention of an employee to leave an organization.

Cohort

Cohort refers to subgroups of workers sorted according to age: mature workers are workers aged 55 and above, midcareer workers are workers aged 36 to 54, and young workers are workers aged 35 and under (Dychtwald et al., 2006).

Tenure

Tenure is a “covariant of age” (Hellman, 1997, p. 679) and refers to longevity, not a faculty rank or status.

Faculty

Faculty refers to whether the employee is non-tenure track, tenure track, or tenured. Faculty may be exempt (i.e., not compensated for overtime) or non-exempt (i.e., compensated for overtime) (Igalens & Rousel, 1999).

Theoretical Framework

While there has been extensive research on the topic of turnover intent as well as age-related effects across a variety of variables, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action and a general theoretical framework for explaining age-related effects (Rhodes, 1983) served as the theoretical framework for the current study. See Figures 1 and 2 in Appendix B. The theory of reasoned action is useful in explaining the relationship between employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, and turnover intent (and, subsequently, turnover). A general theoretical framework for explaining age-related effects in employee attitudes is useful in explaining both age-effects and cohort-effects in employee attitudes. Within this framework suggested by Rhodes (1983), Super's Life-Span Life-Space Theory is useful in explaining age-effects in career stages and Generational Cohort Theory is useful in explaining cohort-effects across social cohorts. These theories are discussed more in depth below.

Theory of Reasoned Action

Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action is useful in explaining the relationship between attitude, intention, and behavior. The theory of reasoned action purports that intentions—based on reason--mediate the relationship between attitude and

behavior (Sheppard, Harwick, & Warshaw, 1988; Prestholdt, Lane, & Mathews, 1987). The theory of reasoned action posits that:

> (a) the most proximal cause of behavior is a person's intention to engage in it; (b) intention is a function of attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms: (c) attitude toward the behavior is a function of beliefs that the behavior leads to salient outcomes; and (d) subjective norms are a function of the person's perceptions of significant others' preferences about whether he or she should or should not engaged in the behavior and the person's motivation to comply with these referent expectations (Brief, 1998, p. 64).

According to Brief (1998), Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action "dominates the attitude-behavior literature in social psychology" (p. 64), and, therefore, has been used in a variety of studies including tax evasion behavior (Hessing, Elffers, & Weigel, 1988), members' participation in union activities (Kelloway & Barling, 1993), AIDS-preventive behavior (Fisher, Fisher, & Rye, 1995), physicians' delivery of preventive services (Millstein, 1996), attitudes towards affirmative action programs (Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 2000), supervisor referrals to work-family programs (Casper, Fox, Sitzmann, & Landy, 2004), and smoking behavior among teens (Hersey, Niederdeppe, Evans, Nonnemaker, Blahut, Holden, Messeri, & Haviland, 2005).

The theory of reasoned action has served as the impetus for additional theory (i.e., the theory of planned behavior) as well as several models used to explain turnover (and, thus,

turnover intent) (i.e., Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Horner, Hollingsworth, 1978; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino, 1979; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980).

The basic concept of the theory of reasoned action (e.g., intention precedes behavior) has been incorporated into a number of models explaining employee turnover and its antecedent job satisfaction. The variable job satisfaction has traditionally been an important variable assessed in job turnover studies (Hulin, 1968; Hulin, 1966a; Hulin, 1966b; Porter & Steers, 1973; Mobley, 1977; Price, 1977; Koch & Steers, 1978; Dittrich & Carrell, 1979; Mobley et al., 1979; Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979; Shikiar & Freudenberg, 1982; Carsten & Spector, 1987; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Hellman, 1997; Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001; Karsh, Booske, & Sainfort, 2005). Over time, the study of the job satisfaction-employee turnover relationship matured yielding a number of models and incorporating a number of variables (albeit limited, according to Maertz & Campion, 2004, who classified the models as process models of turnover even though the limited attitudinal variables explained "why"). Several models (i.e., Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Muchinsky and Morrow, 1980) appear repeatedly in the literature, are based on the concept that intention to turnover precedes turnover behavior, and test the basic premise that attitude influences satisfaction which in turn influences intent. One model—Mitchell and Lee (2001)—differs significantly from the traditional models listed previously yet has been modified to be incorporated into traditional models. Each of these five models are discussed below.

First, Mobley (1977) proposed intermediate linkages in the process model describing the job satisfaction-employee turnover relationship. Mobley suggested that beginning with the evaluation of the existing job; an employee experiences job satisfaction or dissatisfaction; thinks of quitting; evaluates the usefulness of job search as well as cost of quitting; intends to, searches for, and evaluates alternatives compared to present job; intentions to quit or stay; and quits or stays. Hom and Griffeth (1991) found support for Mobley's (1977) theory and suggested that job dissatisfaction may stimulate a behavioral predisposition to withdraw. Additional researchers (Hom, Griffeth, & Sellaro, 1984) have also tested the model.

Second, the Mobley et al. (1978) model drew on Mobley (1977) and explained the withdrawal decision process as flowing from job satisfaction to thoughts of quitting then to search intention, quit intention, and turnover. According to Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, Griffeth (1992), the Mobley et al. (1978) model has attracted "more research attention than any other turnover theory" (p. 890) (See Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Peters, Jackofsky, & Salter, 1981; Bannister & Griffeth, 1986; Dalessio, Sliverman, & Schuck, 1986; Lee, 1988; Laker, 1991). Hom et al.'s (1992) use of Structural Equations Modeling (SEM) corroborated the model better than previous studies.

Third, the Mobley et al. (1979) model is characterized by individual-level turnover behavior; treatment of the evaluation of alternative jobs; recognition of individual values, interests, and beliefs' the proposition of possible joint contributions of job satisfaction, job attraction, and attraction of attainable alternatives on turnover; and

the consideration of intention to quit as the immediate precursor of turnover. Michaels and Spector (1982) found support for the model.

Fourth, the Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) model predicted that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is based on the economy. This model conjectured that the job satisfaction-turnover relationship is strongest during periods of low unemployment and weakest during periods of high unemployment. Their model recognized that the variable turnover intent served as the immediate precursor of turnover. Several researchers have tested the Muchinsky and Morrow model. A meta-analysis by Carsten and Spector (1987) replicated the meta-analysis conducted by Shikiar and Freudenberg (1982) in an effort to correct methodological problems. Carsten and Spector (1987) found support for the Muchinsky and Morrow model.

Fifth, Crossley, Bennett, Jex, and Burnfield (2007) found support for Mitchell and Lee's (2001) unfolding model of voluntary turnover during their examination of how the concept of job embeddedness integrates into a traditional model of turnover. Job embeddedness, loosely defined as a combination of forces that keep an employee from leaving his or her job, includes forces such as marital status, community involvement, and tenure. Job embeddedness includes two sub-factors—on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness—and is represented by three facets: links (i.e., connections between a person and institutions, locations, and people), fit (i.e., the fit between the employee and both work and nonwork environments), and sacrifice (i.e., both material and psychological benefits that may be forfeited by giving up one's job or community).

These facets of job embeddedness mirror the rewards found in the Employee Value Proposition (Ledford & Lucy, 2002).

The model tested in the current study utilized the basic concept of attitude affecting intention leading to behavior as conveyed by Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action and employed by the before-mentioned models of turnover intent. (See Figures 1 and 2 in Appendix B for a graphic representing the withdrawal process based on these models of turnover intent.) For the current study, employee engagement, compensation fairness, and job satisfaction served as attitudes affecting turnover intent considered to be the immediate precursor of actual turnover as suggested by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). (See Figure 5 in Appendix B for a graphic representing the model connecting employee engagement, compensation fairness, and job satisfaction to turnover intent.)

General Theoretical Framework: Age Effects, Cohort Effects

Because age-related differences in employee attitudes may be caused by a number of factors, Rhodes (1983) suggested using a general framework that addresses period effect (e.g., change in the work or nonwork environment), cohort effects (e.g., past experiences, structure and size of cohort), age effects (e.g., psychosocial and biological aging), and systematic error. An integrative theoretical orientation allows a more comprehensive understanding of age-related differences in employee attitudes including those regarding employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, and turnover intent. Since the current study utilized secondary data describing faculty from an

institution of higher education that was cross-sectional in nature and since cross-sectional data includes both age and cohort effects, theoretical models such as Super's Life-Span Life-Space Theory and Generational Cohort Theory are useful in understanding both age and cohort effects on variables impacting turnover intent and will be discussed more in depth below.

Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory

Systematically related to time and, therefore, developmental in nature, age-effects in worker attitudes are related to both biological aging as well as psychosocial aging. While biological aging refers to the physiological changes that occur as an individual ages chronologically (e.g., changes in vision, balance, reaction time, strength, etc.), psychosocial aging includes systematic changes in behavior, expectations, and needs as well as and individual's progression through a series of prescribed social roles along with corresponding experiences (Rhodes, 1983). Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory addresses psychosocial aging associated with career development.

Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory is one of several career stage theories which parallel the stages of the family life cycle in that they both presume that discrete stages build on each other and that there are appropriate developmental tasks appointed for each stage (Wrobel, Raskin, Marazano, Frankel, & Beacom, 2003). Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory (also termed Theory of Career Development) is rooted in differential psychology, self-concept theory, and developmental psychology (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Super proposed that people endeavor to put their self-concept (i.e.,

beliefs about self) into practice by making choices to enter the vocation that allows self-expression consistent with their self-concept (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Vocational behaviors that are useful in the implementation of the self-concept, which matures with age, are a function of the stage of life development for the individual. Vocational decisions made during one stage of development are different from those made in other stages of development, and, according to Super, this is due to the demands of the life cycle on the individual's attempt to implement the self-concept. "The career pattern concept suggests that the life cycle imposes different vocational tasks on people at various times of their lives" (Osipow& Fitzgerald, 1996, p. 112).

Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory maintains that maturity and career development are related, an individual's career-related development is influenced by the demands' of the life cycle, there are specific tasks to be achieved at each life stage, and the life stage is useful in describing what a person of a particular age is like and can do. (Pietrofesa & Splete, 1975). Super defined 5 separate life stages (Pietrofesa & Splete, 1975):

- Growth Stage, occurring from birth to age 14 is characterized by role playing and exploration of interests.
- Exploration Stage, occurring from age 15 to age 24, is characterized by role-tryouts. Values and opportunities are considered.
- Establishment Stage, occurring from age 25 to age 44, is characterized by the individual attempting to make a permanent place in an appropriate field.

- Maintenance Stage, occurring from age 45 to age 64 is characterized by very little change, instead a continuation of filling roles previously chosen.
- Decline Stage, occurring from age 65 and above, is characterized by a decline in physical and mental powers. Employees may become selective participants or observers. Career deceleration and retirement occur.

Wrobel et al. (2003) reported that ages in Super's career stages are not fixed, but tasks at each stage are preparatory for tasks at the next stage. Individuals may recycle back to earlier stages to crystallize their career objectives and then move forward. Additionally, Super theorized that the following attitudes and behaviors are important to vocational tasks: Crystallization (i.e., formation of ideas of appropriate work for self, 14-18), Specification (i.e., narrow vocational choices to a general direction, 18-21), Implementation (i.e., completion of training, 21-24), Stabilization (i.e., settling down, changing position if necessary, 25-35), and Consolidation (i.e., establishes himself in his position, 35 plus) (Osipow, 1968). The model tested in the current study utilized Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory to explain age effects that were expected in the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship. See Figure 5 in Appendix B for a graphic representing the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent.

Super's Life-Span, Life, Space Theory has many of the same weaknesses as each of the career stage theories (see Miller & Form, 1951; Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Erikson, 1968; Sheehy, 1976; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKee, 1978; Schein, 1978; Greenhaus, 1987; and Super, 1994). One criticism of career stage theory is that it has

traditionally been applied only to men (Wrobel et al., 2003) although Levinson and Levinson (1997) tried to rectify this in their book "Season's of a Woman's Life." A second criticism is that career stage theory lacks validation through longitudinal research (Wrobel et al., 2003). Third, stage demarcation differs according to theorist, some using age, tasks, or other markers (Wrobel, et al, 2003). Similarly, according to Kacmar and Ferris (1989), career stage theories are criticized for utilizing broad and contradictory age ranges (and labels) to define phases of development. For example, Erikson used the terms young adult (i.e., age 18 to 35), middle aged adult (age 35 to 55 or 65), and older or late adult (i.e., age 55 or 65 to death) (Erikson, 1968; Learning Theories Knowledgebase, 2008). And, Levinson et al. (1978) uses the terms early adulthood (i.e., age 28 to 50), middle adulthood (i.e., age 50 to 70), late adulthood (i.e., age 70 to 80), and late late adulthood (i.e., age 80 and over) with transitional periods occurring between each stage. Despite this criticism, career stage theories are helpful in linking phases of career development to age ranges (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989).

Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory also has many of the same strengths and weaknesses as each of the career stage theories (see Miller & Form, 1951; Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Erikson, 1968; Levinson et al., 1978; Schein, 1978; Greenhaus, 1987; and Super, 1994). One strength is that they each have a common theme:

> The main theme guiding any career stage theory is the assumption that people's careers follow a basic sequence. This sequence includes a young, middle, and old adult phase, with different challenges facing individuals in each phase. Generally,

> workers in the young adult phase try to fit into the adult working world, workers in the middle phase are highly productive, and workers in the old adult phase attempt to disengage from work (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989, p. 202).

Another strength is that these theories show recognition of the influence of the employee's entire life on career development tasks as well as the influence of the career development tasks on the employee's life outside of work (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989). Finally, a particular strength for this study is its applicability to the understanding of the impact of antecedents employee engagement, compensation fairness, and job satisfaction on turnover intent among faculty in higher education. Bland and Bergquest (1997) suggested that career development models (e.g., Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory) may be most appropriate to describe the periods of stability, stress, and transition that aging faculty undergo as these types of models emphasize multiple stages and careers and may be more encouraging of faculty to enable them to continue developing and using skills.

Generational Cohort Theory

Cohort effects also influence age-related effects. Social cohorts include those people who are born at the same time and then also age together (Rhodes, 1983). Generational theories can be useful in describing the social cohorts (e.g., Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millenials) that impose age-related effects on the cross-sectional secondary data used in the current study. These social cohorts have been described by birth years, size, structure, significant social events (i.e., war vs. peace,

economic climate, etc.), influential leaders, inventions, struggles, accomplishments, and expression of values (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000; Deal, 2007). Researchers, consultants, and other professionals have made use of what is known about these social cohorts for practical applications in a variety of areas including education and training, marketing choices, and work related issues including resolving generational conflict in the workplace (Deal, 2007). The researcher has compiled descriptors of these social cohorts to orient the reader to the general differences found is these four social cohorts.

Traditionalists (also termed Veterans by Zemke et al., 2000), born 1900 to 1945, number about 75,000,000, were influenced by Dr. Spock, Alfred Hitchcock, John Wayne, Betty Crocker, and Franklin Delano Roosevelt (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Between World War I, World War II, and the Great Depression, this generation had opportunity to learn frugality (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Loyalty and patriotism are descriptive of this group that spans two generations (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Core values include dedication, hard work, respect for authority, patience, delayed reward, and honor (Zemke et al., 2000). On the job, their assets include stability and attention to detail while liabilities include difficulties with ambiguity and change (Zemke et al., 2000). Younger Traditionalists (also called Schwarzkopfers) seek satisfying work that makes a contribution to the organization and reflects their level of skill and expertise (Martin & Tulgan, 2006).

Baby Boomers were born 1946 to 1964, number 80,000,000 strong, and were influenced by personalities such as Martin Luther King Jr., Richard Nixon, Beaver Cleaver, Barbra Streisand, Captain Kangaroo, and the Beatles (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Television was the greatest invention of their youth. Optimism is descriptive of this group who grew up in a relatively affluent world (Zemke et al., 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Competitive is another descriptor for the boomers (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), who, due to the sheer number of competitors (at school, in the community, and in the workplace), will have to spend more time in the same jobs awaiting advancement while facing additional competition from Generation X who will be demanding higher wages due to labor shortages among that generation (Light, 1988). Core values of the baby boomers include personal gratification, personal growth, work and involvement (Zemke et al., 2000). On the job, baby boomers are driven and want to please but are somewhat sensitive to feedback, judgmental of those who look at things differently, and somewhat reluctant to go against their peers (Zemke et al., 2000). Martin & Tulgan (2006) suggested to honor the opinions, skills, and contributions of Boomers as they (particularly the older Boomers) have a strong commitment to the mission of the organization (Martin & Tulgan, 2006).

Generation Xers were born between 1965 and 1980 and number 46,000,000 (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Leading people during their formative years included Bill Clinton, Monica Lewinsky, Beavis and Butt-head, O. J. Simpson, and Madonna (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Gen Xers are described as skepticists having grown up

during a time when major corporations were called into question and the divorce rate tripled (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). And, even though the inventions of cable tv, video games, microwaves, cell phones, and the personal computer were invented to simplify life, the xers were plagued with the complications of AIDS, drugs, child molestation, and drunk driving (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Generation X grew up in the time of a wavering economy putting them into the highest child-poverty rates, and later, in the lowest wage and homeownership rates. Then, they were told they would be the first generation of Americans that would not be as financially well off as their parents (Martin & Tulgan, 2006). Core values include diversity, balance, informality, and self-reliance (Zemke et al., 2000). On the job, Gen Xers are technoliterate, creative, and unintimidated by authority, while liabilities include impatience, inexperience, poor "people" skills, and cynicism (Zemke et al, 2000). Martin & Tulgan (2006) suggested offering Generation X career development opportunities as they seek increased authority, prestige, status, and reward.

The Millennial Generation (or Nexters, according to Zemke et al., 2000, and Generation Y, according to Martin & Tulgan, 2006) was born between 1981 and 1999 and number 76,000,000 (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). This Echo Boom generation has been influenced by Prince William, Barney, Buffy, Marilyn Manson, and Mark McGwire (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). This generation grew up with all previous technology plus the information highway (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Gangs, the availability of drugs, and violent school outbreaks such as Columbine may to blame for Millenials naming

"personal safety" (p. 29) as their most serious workplace issue (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Millennials can be described as realistic (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Core values, according to Zemke et al. (2000), include optimism, confidence, sociability, and diversity. On the job, Millennials have tenacity, capabilities to multi-task, and technological savvy, while liabilities include the need for structure and supervision. Millenials enjoy challenging work, creative expression, freedom, and flexibility (Martin & Tulgan, 2006). They seek employers who care about them and who create meaningful products or services but also where they can make meaningful contributions (Martin & Tulgan, 2006). Millenials demand immediate feedback and have "an obsession with training and development" (Martin & Tulgan, 2006, p. 17). Martin and Tulgan (2006) suggested best management practices for Millenial include establishing coaching relationships.

Concerning both Generation X and the Millenials, Twenge (2006) communicated the uniqueness of these generations in the book "Generation Me: Why Today's Young American's Are More Confident, Assertive, Entitled—and More Miserable Than Ever Before." Twenge described these generations as having a feeling of entitlement that extends to salary and duties in the workplace. Furthermore, salary is very important to them, especially at a time when the housing market has far-outpaced inflation. They do not take criticism well but do work hard when praised and recognized. They learn best through hands-on activities and not lectures.

Higher Education

For the current study, the mediating effects of job satisfaction along with the moderating effects of age on selected proposed antecedents of Turnover Intent were assessed among faculty at an institution of higher education. This relationship may be increasing in importance as several researchers (Bland et al., 2006; Harrison & Hargrove, 2006) have forecasted the shortage of faculty in higher education. Low exit rates coupled with slower growth in the number of new faculty positions has produced an aging faculty (Clark & d'Ambrosio, 2005). With as many as half of the nation's faculty retiring by 2015, the world of academia will likely undergo major changes to compensate for the shortages.

Even though there are benefits to faculty turnover (e.g., the capacity to hire younger faculty members, the opportunity to reallocate monies across different program areas, and the chance to diversify faculty with regards to gender, race, and ethnicity) (Nagowski, 2006), finding replacements for the aging faculty is a major concern (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006). The faculty search process is reasonably similar to filling other positions, with the exception that the students suffer when the process is not completed in a timely manner. According to Glandon and Glandon (2001), faculty search committees screen applicants for the consideration of qualified candidates who are interviewed, perhaps multiple times until a candidate is selected. The process is complete when the candidate accepts the employment offer. If the candidate does not accept the offer, the committee will continue to invite applicants in order to fill the position. This process, especially when repeated for multiple positions, consumes time on behalf of the

committee that could be better used for student appointments, research, and course preparation (Glandon & Glandon, 2001).

Doyle (2008) wrote that the average age of faculty increased from 46 in 1988 to 50 in 2004. This is due in part to the fact that higher education not only has a no mandatory retirement age but also guaranteed employment to the tenured. While colleges are waiting for the baby boomers to begin to retire, they have begun to become more dependent on faculty members who are part-time or adjunct. According to Doyle (2008) when current professors do retire, colleges are likely to see the percentage of faculty that are employed on a contingent basis escalate.

There are few studies of faculty turnover in higher education (Glandon & Glandon, 2001). This may be due in part to the lower exit rates (Clark & d'Ambrosio, 2005). Several research studies are highlighted here based on their relevance to the current study. Several researchers have noted a relationship between intent to leave among faculty based on the work environment/climate. Ruhland (2001) cited that one of the most common reasons faculty gave for leaving technical colleges in Minnesota was institutional climate. Still others (Bright, 2002) have found differences in attitudes towards recognition given at work between African-Americans and Caucasian-American full-time, contractual, non-tenured track faculty members at a community college employed between 1 and 5 years. The Segal Group's (2007) Rewards of Work Study resulted in some interesting findings related to intent to leave among faculty. Most of the respondents in higher education reported being satisfied with 4 of the 5 elements of the

Employee Value Proposition: 90% were satisfied with work content, 67% were satisfied with affiliation (e.g., feelings of belonging to an organization with shared values), 60% were satisfied with career (e.g., development opportunities), 59% were satisfied with benefits, but only 30% were satisfied with compensation. Compared to other respondents, those in higher education were more satisfied with work content (90% vs. 75%), affiliation (67% vs. 61%), and career (60% vs. 53%), but less so with benefits (58% vs. 69%) and compensation (30% vs. 70%). When considering the importance of the EVP elements for retention, compared to respondents from other organizations, those respondents in higher education were more likely to cite work content (85% vs. 81%), affiliation (61% vs. 56%), and benefits (69% vs. 64%) but less likely to cite career (64% vs. 65%) and compensation (66% vs. 79%). Bland and Bergquist (1997) suggested that when employees are meaningfully engaged and ensured competence, senior faculty can maintain vitality, avoid burnout, and continue to lead their institutions. Finally, BlessingWhite (2008) reported finding that employees in academia and higher education have the lowest engagement rate of surveyed industries.

Assumptions of the Study

Assumptions of the study included the following:

1. Subjects had time, could access, and were able to read and complete the survey.
2. Subjects honestly responded to questions in spite of potential concerns they had regarding the security of their jobs.

3. The study produced results generalizeable only to the organizations or work sites serving as data collection points.

Summary

High turnover among key, productive employees and low productivity due to the lack of engagement among employees are both costly for organizations. Because employee engagement is a fairly new concept in the literature, there is a lack of information connecting employee engagement with other "soft" data such as turnover intent. Furthermore, there is a lack of information regarding these same variables at institutions of higher learning. Utilizing secondary data describing employees from an institution in higher education, the current study tested the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness on the outcome variable Turnover intent. The study utilized the Theory of Reasoned Action and a theoretical framework for examining age-related effects on employee attitudes as theoretical underpinnings for the study.

CHAPTER II

Review of the Literature

"It does not seem to be true that work necessarily needs to be unpleasant. It may always have to be hard, or at least harder than doing nothing at all. But there is ample evidence that work can be enjoyable, and that indeed, it is often the most enjoyable part of life." (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 145).

Utilizing secondary data describing faculty from an institution of higher education, the current study tested the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction and the moderating effects of Age on the relationship between the antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness on the outcome variable, Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B for a model representing the proposed relationships.) The review of the literature will be presented in the following manner: (a) employee engagement, (b) compensation fairness, (c) turnover intent, (d) employee engagement with turnover intent (e) compensation fairness with turnover intent, (f) job satisfaction, (g) employee engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intent, (h) compensation fairness, job satisfaction, and turnover intent, (i) age, (j) moderating effects of age, and (k) summary.

Employee Engagement

The review of the literature focused on employee engagement will be presented in the following manner: (a) defining employee engagement, (b) employee engagement, employee disengagement, and burnout; (c) prevalence of employee engagement; (d)

employee engagement as a multidimensional concept; (e) employee engagement vs. organizational commitment; (f) personal engagement; and (g) promotion of employee engagement.

Defining Employee Engagement

For the current study, employee engagement as a characteristic of the workplace environment was the focus. However, employee engagement has also been defined as the act of an employee being involved in, enthusiastic about, and satisfied with his or her work (Seijts et al., 2006; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Gubman, 2004; Harrison, 2007). However, it is important to note that different organizations may define employee engagement differently (Lockwood, 2007) and that the definitions used are frequently ambiguous (Macey & Schneider, 2008). For example, Lockwood (2007) defined employee engagement as "the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization, how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment" (p. 2). And, Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) defined employee engagement as "the individual's involvement and satisfaction with as well as enthusiasm for work" (p. 269). Schaufeli and Bakker's (2004) definition of engagement differed somewhat, for according to them, engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption" (p. 295). Schaufeli and Bakker further defined vigor, dedication, and absorption:

> "Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence also in the

> face of difficulties. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge . . .absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" (p. 295).

Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) "flow" is similar to the absorption component of engagement. Demerouti (2006) also described flow as absorption and further expanded the idea by suggesting that flow (and absorption and engagement) is an enjoyment of work, and intrinsic work motivation, directly related to motivating job characteristics. There are observable components of employee engagement: Gubman (2004) stated that engaged employees "perform well, want to stay with their employers, and say good things about them" (p. 43). Moreover, engaged employees are easily motivated and frequently put forth extra effort (Harrison, 2007).

The Segal Group, Inc. (2006d) defined engagement as "knowing what to do and wanting to do the work (p. 3). The Segal Group, Inc. (2006d) explained that knowing what to do includes a desire to do the work, understanding the organization's vision, as well as an understanding of job expectations. Furthermore, wanting to do the work includes getting satisfaction from the job and being inspired to perform the work. By combining scores from their two-factor model of engagement in a 2 X 2 engagement characteristics matrix (i.e., "knowing what to do at work" vs. "wanting to do the work"), The Segal Group, Inc. (2006d) was able to contrast *engaged* employees (Quadrant 1)

with *renegade*s (Quadrant 2) who know what to do but do not want to do it, *disengaged* employees (Quadrant 3) who do not know what to do nor do they want to do it, and *enthusiasts* (Quadrant 4) who do not know what to do but want to do it. If engaged workers are those who know what to do and want to do it (The Segal Group, Inc., 2006d), then no wonder Towers Perrin (2003) described engaged employees as "the ultimate prize for employers" (p. 2).

Employee Engagement, Employee Disengagement, and Burnout

Several researchers (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Hakanen, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2005; and Hakenen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006) have noted relationships between burnout and engagement and job demands and job resources. Demerouti et al. (2001) found support for the job demands-resources model that proposes two categories of working conditions: job demands and job resources. In addition, Demerouti et al. (2001) reported that job demands are related to the exhaustion component of burnout while job resources (or lack thereof) are related to disengagement. Baker et al. (2003) reported support for the job demands-resources model explaining that burnout develops when job demands are high and job resources are limited leading to energy depletion and decreased motivation. Schaufeli & Bakker (2004) called engagement a positive antipode of burnout and suggested that since burnout and engagement differ on possible causes and consequences, they likely also differ on intervention strategies that will be successful if burnout is to be reduced or engagement is

to be enhanced. More recent research has demonstrated that job resources are helpful for coping with high demands and staying engaged in work among dentists (Hakanen et al., 2005). Finally, Hakenen et al. (2006) found support for the energetical process (i.e., burnout mediates the relationship between job demands and ill health) as well as the motivational process (i.e., engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and organizational commitment). Burnout has been measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (Halbesleben, 2003) as well as the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Jackson, Tothman, & Van de Vijver, 2006). Jackson et al. (2006) reported that when both the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale are combined, both negative and positive characteristics of occupational well-being (i.e., burnout and work engagement) can be incorporated into one model.

Prevalence of Employee Engagement

In the 2003 Towers Perrin Talent Report, employee engagement was assessed across 40,000 employees (just under 36,000 in the U.S. and approximately 4,400 in Canada). The report found 17% of employees were highly engaged; 64% of employees were moderately engaged; and 19% were disengaged. Of these employees, the highest percentage of employee engagement was found upon senior executives; the lowest percentage of employee engagement was found among nonmanagement hourly employees. Conversely, the highest percentage of disengaged employees were found among nonmanagement hourly employees and the lowest percentage of disengaged employees were found among senior executives. Considering industry type, employee

engagement was highest among employees in the nonprofit sector. Also, Sanford (2003) reported that Gallup Poll's research on employee engagement suggested engaged employees comprise 29% of the U.S. workforce while 55% are not engaged and 16% are disengaged.

Employee Engagement as a Multidimensional Concept

Many researchers have reported that employee engagement is a multidimensional concept (Jones & Harter, 2005) with cognitive (or rational), emotional (or affective), and behavioral components (Konrad, 2006). The Towers Perrin Talent Report confirmed a definition of employee engagement that includes both emotional and rational variables. According to the report, "[t]he emotional factors tie to people's personal satisfaction and sense of inspiration and affirmation they get from their work and from being part of their organization" (p. 4). Furthermore, Alewweld and von Bismarck (2002/2003) reported that Hewitt Associates considers engaged employees to have three characteristic behaviors: first, employees "say" positive things about their organization to other employees and customers; second, employees have a desire to "stay" in the company; and third, employees "serve" the company by exerting additional, discretionary effort (p. 66). Lockwood (2007) described the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components as follows:

> Cognitive engagement refers to employees' beliefs about the company, its leaders and the workplace culture. The emotional aspect is how employees feel about the company, the leaders and their colleagues. The behavioral factor is the value-

added component reflected in the amount of effort employees put into their work (e.g., brainpower, extra time and energy) (p. 7).

In a recent article, Macey and Schneider (2008) suggested that both researchers and practitioners have used the term employee engagement to refer to states (including feelings of energy, absorption, satisfaction, involvement, and commitment), traits (including positive life and work views as well as a proactive personality), and behaviors (including extra-role behavior, initiative, and role-expansion) of employee engagement. Several researchers have criticized Macey and Schneider's (2008) position on employee engagement. For example, Dalal, Brummel, Wee, and Thomas (2008) suggested that engagement likely has both trait-like as well as state-like components, is a construct that is cognitive-affective in nature (not behavioral), and that Macey and Schneider's idea of behavioral engagement would be better referred to as a behavioral consequence of engagement. Hirschfeld and Thomas's (2008) criticisms included the failure of Macey and Schneider to explain how the personality-based constructs of trait engagement (i.e., autotelic personality, proactive personality, and conscientiousness) possess the central theme of human agency. Human agency, according to Hirschfeld et al. (2008), can be described as the individual differences that individuals have over their thoughts and intentions that shape their circumstances in a manner to help the individual achieve their goals. While Macey and Schneider focused on the construct of employee engagement at the individual level, Pugh and Dietz (2008) recommended that employee engagement should be conceptualized at the organizational level due to its theoretical usefulness and

practical utility as well as the nomological network. Newman and Harrison (2008) agreed with Macey and Schneider position that employee engagement is simply a new term for previously researched concepts and demonstrated this by comparing items of the Utrech Work Engagement Scale with items measuring job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement.

Employee Engagement vs. Organizational Commitment

Because some researchers have suggested that employee engagement is similar to the concept of organizational commitment (Lockwood, 2007), it is important to differentiate between the two. Organizational commitment includes the following components: (a) affective commitment represents the employee's attitudes regarding the alignment of personal and organizational goals, (b) continuance organizational commitment represents the employee's desire to stay with organization in light of costs associated with leaving (i.e., seniority, pension plans, etc.), and (c) normative organizational commitment represents the employee's decision to stay with an organization because he or she feels obligated (Clugston, 2000). While it is likely that highly engaged employees will remain with their organization, there does exist the possibility that they will leave and may do so for a variety of reasons (e.g., unfulfilled expectations, job-person mismatch, too little coaching, feeling devalued, and lack of trust and confidence; Branham, 2005). Employee engagement does not imply organizational commitment. The concepts have been further differentiated in a 2006 study where

Hallberg and Schaufeli found empirical support that work engagement, job involvement, and organizational commitment are different constructs.

Personal Engagement

Contrasting with organizational views of employee engagement and taking a more personal viewpoint, Kahn's (1990) personal engagement theoretical frames explains that people express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally in the roles they occupy; people are more excited and content with their roles when they draw on themselves to perform their roles; and people vary in their levels of attachment to their roles. Kahn (1990) surmised that "People become physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others, cognitively vigilant, and empathetically connect to others in the service of the work they are doing in ways that display what they think and feel, their creativity, their beliefs and values, and their personal connections to others" (p. 700). Furthermore, Kahn suggested that people vary their levels of personal engagement according to the meaningfulness of a situation (or perceived benefits), the perceived safety of a situation, and their availability based on resources they perceive they have. May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) further explored the concepts of meaningfulness, safety, and availability and found that meaningfulness had the strongest relationship with work engagement via job enrichment and role fit while safety was linked to supportive supervisor relations.

Kahn's concept of disengagement is analogous to Hochschild's (1993) term robotic, Goffman's (1959, 1961a, 1961b) terms apathetic or detached, Hackman and

Oldham's (1980) concept called effortless, and Maslach and Jackson's (1986; see also Maslach, 1993; Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996; Maslach, & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, & Schaufeli, 1993; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, and Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006) concept of burnout. According to Bakker et al. (2003), burnout develops when demands on the job are high but resources are limited. These working conditions frequently lead to a depletion of energy to the extent that motivation is undermined and opportunities for learning are limited. According to Kahn, an individual can become disengaged and defend the self (or protect himself or herself) by withdrawing and hiding his or her true identity, ideas, and feelings. Or, said another way, the individual shuts down who he or she really is to perform the task.

Kahn's theory of personal engagement is useful for understanding how "self" can be either expressed or thwarted through a work role. The theory suggests that for the same role different employees will develop different levels of attachment (or engagement). The theory is also helpful when explaining the "drivers" of personal engagement and how these "drivers" may be related to indicators of personal engagement, such as job satisfaction and turnover intent (Lockwood, 2007). The theory suggests that the cognitive, emotional, and physical expression of self in a work role is the individual's reaction to characteristics of that particular role. The current study focused on better understanding the work characteristics that likely influence the engagement levels of employees.

Promotion of Employee Engagement

Employee engagement (the central focus for the current study) includes elements within the workplace environment that "attract, focus, and keep the most talented employees" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999, p. 28). According to Lockwood (2007), "HR leaders, as well as managers, have the mission to build and sustain a workplace environment that fosters engagement and is also attractive to potential employees" (p. 11). The 12 employee engagement items derived from the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) were grouped into four "camps" as suggested by Gallup and cited by Buckingham and Coffman (1999). These camps (or groups) were created for conceptual or utilitarian reasons (e.g., training and development) and not necessarily for empirical reasons. After the GWA's appearance in Buckingham and Coffman (1999), Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) demonstrated that the 12 items are unidimensional. The first group was referred to as Base Camp or "What do I get?" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999), and consisted of the variables expectations and materials. The second grouping was entitled Camp 1 or "What do I give?", according to Buckingham and Coffman (1999) Camp 1 consisted of the variables opportunity, recognition, care, and development. The third group was referred to as Camp 2 or "Do I belong here?" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999) and included the variables opinions count, mission, quality work, and best friend. The last group was entitled Camp 3 or "How can we all grow?", according to Buckingham and Coffman (1999), and included the variables progress/appraisal and learn and grow.

One impediment for better understanding the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) is the link between the 12 items of the GWA with related concepts in the literature. This task was not satisfactorily presented when the GWA was first published in Buckingham and Coffman (1999). One such link found in the literature is Oldham, Hackman, Janson, and Purdy's (1975) theory of job enrichment explaining how workers get "turned on" (p. 57) to work through certain job characteristics. These job characteristics (measured by the Job Diagnostic Survey) included skill variety (i.e., different activities involving different talents and skills of the employee) which is similar to one characteristic of employee engagement referred to as learn and grow, task identity (i.e., the completion of a job with an identifiable outcome) which mirrors expectations, task significance (i.e., the degree the job has impact on others) which is similar to the characteristic of employee engagement referred to as mission, autonomy (i.e., freedom for the employee to schedule work and determine procedures to carry out tasks) which may mirror opportunity, and feedback (i.e., information about performance effectiveness) which is similar to progress/appraisal (Oldham & Hackman, 1981). According to Hackman, et al. (1975), motivation and satisfaction on the job has been accredited by psychologists to critical psychological states including meaningfulness of work, responsibility, and knowledge of results. Of the five job characteristics, three of the job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, and task significance) contribute to meaningful work, while autonomy contributes toward personal responsibility, and feedback contributes to knowledge of

results (Hackman, Oldham, Janson, & Purdy, 1975). See below and refer to Table 2 in Appendix C for references to the Job Diagnostic Survey.

The following paragraphs assign variable labels—the convention of the author—to each of the 12 items of the GWA as well as define each of the 12 variables using similar items from other commonly used scales in the literature such as the Job Diagnostic Survey. See Table 2 in Appendix C.

Expectations

Expectations (as measured by the GWA item "Do I know what is expected of me at work?") is similar to Seigts and Crim's (2006) idea of convey where leaders (i.e., management and supervisors) clarify work-related expectations for employees. Similar items appear in Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey, Campion's (1988) Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire, Ivancevich and Matteson's (1980) Stress Diagnostic Survey, and House, Schuler, and Levanoni's (1983) measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity (i.e., "I don't know what is expected of me" in Fields, 2002, p. 149). According to Gupta-Sunderji (2004), goals should be clearly defined—"[n]o employee should have to question what's expected of them (p. 38).

Materials

The variable Materials (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?") referred to the availability of materials, equipment, and resources that workers need in order to accomplish their jobs (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). Rentsch and

Steel's (1992) measure of Satisfaction with Job Facets; House, McMichael, Wells, Kaplan, and Landerman's (1979) Occupational Stress Scale; and Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman's measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity (i.e., "I receive assignments without adequate resources and material to execute them" in Fields, 2002, p. 147) utilized similar items (See Table 2 in Appendix C). Seigts and Crim (2006) stated that "not giving people the knowledge and tools to be successful is unethical and de-motivating; it is also likely to lead to stress, frustration, and, ultimately, lack of engagement" (p. 3).

Opportunity

Opportunity (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?") referred to occasions that employees have to do what they do best on a daily basis (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999). Similar items have been used in Bacharach, Bamberger, and Conley's (1991) measure of Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectations; Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist's (1967) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr's (1981) measure of Global Job Satisfaction; Frese, Kring, Soose, and Zempel's (1996) measure of Control and Complexity; and Xie's (1996) measure of Perceived Ability-Job Fit (i.e., "I feel that my work utilizes my full abilities", in Fields, 2002, p. 233). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Recognition

Recognition (as measured by the GWA item "In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?") involved recognition or praise used as a reward doing good work in an effort to encourage future efforts. Similar items have

appeared in Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr's (1981) measure of Global Job Satisfaction; Balfour and Wechsler's (1996) Organizational Commitment Scale; Campion's (1988) Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire; Oldham & Cummings' (1996) measure of Supportive and Non-Controlling Supervision; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1986) measure of Perceived Organizational Support; and Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (i.e., "When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive" in Fields, 2002, p. 15). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Seigts and Crim (2003) reported that good leaders recognize frequently by congratulating, coaching and conveying recognition. Unfortunately, as many as 65% of Americans have reported that they have received no recognition for good work at their job in the past year (Rath & Clifton, 2004). Strong, healthy organizations show recognition and praise for small and large contributions to the organization on a frequent basis which serves to boost worker self-esteem (Trivette, 1990; Stinnett & DeFrain, 1985).

Care

Care (as measured by the GWA item "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?") referred to the attention and interest senior management, supervisors, and co-workers offer employees (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). Similar items have appeared in Balfour and Wechsler's (1996) Organizational Commitment Scale and Eisenberger, Huntington,

Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1986) measure of Perceived Organizational Support (i.e., "The organization really cares about my well-being" in Fields, 2002, p. 118). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

When supervisors care, listen, help, and protect their employees, the employee feels supported (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayan, & Schwartz, 2002). Care includes affirmation, support, respect, and trust, which are viewed as necessities (Curran, 1983). Care creates cohesion or emotional bonding which also provides supportiveness, psychological safety, and a sense of identification (Smith & Stevens, 1992) as well as boosts members' self-esteem (Stinnett & DeFrain, 1985).

Encouragement

Encouragement (as measured by the GWA item "Is there someone at work who encourages my development?") extended past opportunities for career advancement (Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003) and included support offered by other workers to further the employee's development through challenging and meaningful work (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Towers Perrin Talent Report, 2003). Development may also include supervisor endorsement of the training and development (Huczynski & Lewis, 1980; Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Russ-Eft, 2002) as well as coaching (Deal, 2007). Similar items have appeared in Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey; Oldham and Cummings' (1996) measure of Supportive and Non-Controlling Supervision; and Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) measure of Supervisory Support (i.e., "My supervisor keeps me informed about different career

opportunities for me in the organization" and "My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career" in Fields, 2002, p. 108). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Opinions Count

Opinions Count (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do my opinions seem to count?") referred to whether or not an employee's opinions were taken into consideration such as in a collaborative work environment (Tower Perrins, 2003). These collaborative work environments are often characterized by trust and cooperation and may outperform groups which were lacking in positive relationships (Seigts & Crim, 2003). Similar items have been used in Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr's (1981) measure of Global Job Satisfaction; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1986) measure of Perceived Organizational Support (i.e., "The organization cares about my opinions" in Fields, 2002, p. 118); and Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, and Snoek with Rosenthal's (1964) Job-Related Tension Index. (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Mission

Mission (as measured by the GWA item "Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?") involved Seigts and Crim's (2006) ideas of both clarity (i.e., clear communication of the organization's vision and goals) and contribute (i.e., the communication to employees as to their contributions towards the organization's success) or "helping employees understand their significance in the big picture" (Gupta-Sunderji, 2004, p. 38). Similar items appear in several other sources

including Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey; Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey; Campion's (1988) Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire; Ivancevich and Matteson's (1980) Stress Diagnostic Survey; and Remondet and Hansson's (1991)measure of Work-Specific Control Problems (i.e, "My job is meaningless" in Fields, 2002, p. 141). (See Table 2 in Appendix C). Mission is important for healthy organizations; this common mission can create congruence regarding the value and importance of time and energy spent by the employees towards meeting the mission, needs, and functions of the organization (Trivette, 1990).

Quality Work

Quality Work (as measured by the GWA item "Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?") referred to the devotion that co-workers have in doing their best work (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999), which may be useful in spurring healthy competition among employees and employee work groups. Alternatively, incompetence may breed resentment and animosity leading potentially to employee turnover. Similar items appear in Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (i.e., I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with" in Fields, 2002, p. 15) and Roznowski's (1989) Job Descriptive Index. (See Table 2 in Appendix C). Studies involving total quality management (Elçi, Kitapçi, & Ertürk, 2007) and organization quality improvement environment (Karsh, Booske, & Sainfort, 2005) have suggested that true quality in organizations go beyond that of employees doing good work to a workplace environment that embraces continual improvement.

Best Friend

Best Friend (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have a best friend at work?") referred to employees having someone at the organization that they can both confide in and trust. Similar items appear in Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller's (1976) Job Characteristic Survey (i.e., "How much opportunity is there to meet individuals who you would like to develop friendship with?" and "To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work" in Fields, 2002, p. 76-78) and O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell's (1991) Organizational Culture Profile. (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Dale Carnegie (1936) suggested in his book "How to Win Friends and Influence People" that in order to make friends, one must show interest in others, smile, call people by their name, listen to them, talk about their interests, and generally make them feel important. Rath and Clifton (2004) suggest that making friends in the workplace is a key strategy for increasing positive emotions. However, as suggested by the related survey item from Sims et al.'s (1976) Job Characteristic Survey, there must be opportunity in the work day to communicate, show care, and encourage others as well as endorsement from superior's to interact.

Progress/Appraisal

Progress/Appraisal (as measured by the GWA item "In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?") referred to whether someone in the organization has spoken to the employee about his or her progress toward personal or

company goals (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Similar items have appeared in Roznowski's (1989) Job Descriptive Index; Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey; Sims, Szilgyi, and Keller's Job Characteristics Survey; Campion's (1988) Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire; and Greenhaus, Parasurman and Wormley's (1990) measure of Supervisory Support (i.e., "My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance" and "My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it" in Fields, 2002, p. 108). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Performance coaching can include both formal and informal feedback that an employee receives from various individuals within an organization about performance on the job (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000) and is often a part of the performance appraisal process, an evaluation of an employee's performance, which includes three steps: defining the job, appraising the performance, and providing feedback in an effort to eliminate deficiencies in performance and encourage satisfactory work (Dessler, 2000). Managers often provide this feedback as a part of the many resources that they are responsible for providing to employees for continued employee growth and development (Steelman, Levy, and Snell, 2004). While performance feedback may be given by supervisors, performance appraisals can be performed by any number of individuals within the organization (i.e., supervisors, peers, self, and subordinates) as well as individuals outside the company (i.e., customers) as in the case of a 360-degree feedback appraisal. The growth of the business or company rests in part on the quality of the

appraisals as appraisals often provide information for promotion and salary decisions as well as information to guide improvement in both the employee and the organization (Dessler, 2000). Michael, Leschinsky, and Gagnon (2006) reported findings that employees that were provided with constructive feedback that was rich in content and delivered in a timely manner are more likely to make improvements in their performance on the job.

Learn and Grow

Learn and Grow (as measured by the GWA item "The last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?") referred to whether training and development opportunities have been provided for the employee (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Similar items have appeared in other surveys in the literature: Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey; Frese, Kring, Soose, and Zempel's (1996) measure of Control and Complexity; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley's (1990) measure of Supervisory Support; Wayne, Shore, and Liden's (1997) measure of Developmental Experiences; Ivancevich and Matteson's (1980) Stress Diagnostic Survey; and O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell's (1991) Organizational Culture Profile (i.e., "Opportunities for professional growth", 1 of 54 Q-sort items, in Fields, 2002, p. 223). (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Compensation Fairness

The second antecedent for the current study is compensation fairness which may be defined as the perceptions that employees have regarding equity in company practices

concerning internal compensation, external compensation, and benefits. The review will begin with a discussion of compensation.

Compensation

According to Milkovich et al. (2005), compensation refers to "all forms of financial returns and tangible services and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship" (p. 602). Concerning compensation, there are two components: direct financial payments and indirect payment (Dessler, 2000). Direct financial payments include "wages, salaries, incentives, commissions, and bonuses" (Dessler, 2000, p. 396) and these are paid to employees based on increments of time or on performance. Indirect payments include financial benefits and will be discussed under Employee Benefits. Dessler (2000) stated that legal, union, policy, and equity factors influence the design of organizational pay plans. Without these factors, compensation plans may be perceived as unfair. Legal and equity factors will be discussed.

There are many legal factors that influence the design of organizational pay plans and its administration. Across the last 76 years, the United States Congress has passed many acts standardizing wages and making salaries "fair." This is primarily due to four concepts of comparable job worth used in the U.S.: "(1) equal pay for equal work, (2) equal pay for similar work, (3) equal pay for equal worth, and (4) pay parity" (Patten, 1988, p. 4). There are several legal acts that have been instrumental in changing the shape of compensation as it is regarded today. The Davis-Bacon Act of 1931 allowed the Secretary of Labor to set wage rates for individuals employed by contractors working for

the federal government (McGregor, 2005). The Walsh-Healey Public Contract Act of 1936 set labor standards for employees working on government contracts totaling more than $10,000 (Schwartz, 1983). The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 provided for minimum wage, maximum hours, pay for overtime, and child labor protection (SHRM Research, 2003; Irwin, 2007). The Equal Pay Act of 1963 required that women be paid equally for doing the same work as men (Lax, 2007). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 made it illegal to discriminate in employment based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Title VII is also known as the Equal Employment Opportunity Act and established the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission (Tomascovic-Devey & Stainback, 2007). The Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA) of 1974 provided for government protection of employee pensions as well as regulated vesting rights (Gerbasi, 2003). Finally, the Tax Reform Act of 1986 overhauled the tax code and affected compensation by changing the tax rates to three brackets (15%, 28%, and 31%) and the distribution of benefits (Shulz, McGraw, & Steenbergen, 1992).

In addition to legal issues, specifically ones that govern equality for those of different races, colors, religions, sexes, or national origins (e.g., The Equal Employment Opportunity Act), the perception of equity is also a critical issue in the determination of pay (Dessler, 2000). Pay should have both external equity (e.g., pay is considered equitable to those doing similar work outside the organization) and internal equity (e.g., pay is considered equitable to those doing similar work within the organization). Without external equity, employers will find it difficult to attract and retain qualified employees

(Dessler, 2000). Without internal equity, employers will likely face difficult situations with employees. It is important that employees perceive equity in their pay. Without this perception of equity, employees may solicit employers for more pay or less work, reduce the amount of their work to an amount they feel is "fair," or leave (Pritchard, 1969). Employers (specifically human resources) can be instrumental in determining how employees feel about pay equity through frequent surveys addressing the employees' satisfaction with their pay (Dessler, 2000).

Employee Benefits

An employee benefit is an "indirect financial payment given to employees" (Dessler, 2000, p. 476) Employee benefits may include holidays, vacations, personal leave, funeral leave, jury duty leave, military leave, sick leave, short and long term disability, life insurance, medical insurance, dental insurance, vision care, retirement plans, severance pay, child care assistance, wellness programs, employee assistance programs, and educational assistance (U. S. Department of Labor, 2000). It is important to differentiate between defined benefit plans and defined contributions plans. According to Dickerson (2004), "A defined benefit plan is a retirement plan that uses a specific, predetermined formula to calculate the amount of an employee's guaranteed future benefit. A defined contribution plan is a type of retirement plan in which the employer makes specified contributions to individual employee accounts, but the amount of the retirement benefit is not specified" (http://www.bls.gov).

While benefits help round out the entire compensation package for an employee, they are quite costly for an organization. For the 4th quarter of 2006, the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, reported that the average cost of total benefits (i.e., cost per hour worked) for civilian occupations was $8.30 and was equivalent to 30.1 % of total compensation (http://data.bls.gov/cgi-bin/surveymost). In addition, the Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that for private industry, the average cost of total benefits was equivalent to $7.57 per hour and 29.5% of total compensation, and for state and local government, the average cost of total benefits was $12.52 per hour and equal to 32.7% of total compensation. Furthermore, Dessler (2000) reported that the administration of benefits has become an increasingly difficult and specialized task, as benefits must be administered in compliance with federal law. There are several laws that impact benefits (and, thus, their perceived fairness). The Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 guarantees employees up to 12 weeks of leave for illness of a child, spouse, parent, or self as well as the adoption or birth of a child (Armenia & Gerstel, 2006). The Worker Adjustment and Retraining Notification Act of 1989 necessitates that employers give written notification (60 days) of closures or layoffs (Ryan, 1992). The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) influences the handling of worker's compensation cases (O'Keeffe, 1993). The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 is an amendment to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act prohibiting sex discrimination (Dorman, 1995). The Comprehensive Omnibus Budget Reconciliation Act makes health benefits available to retired and laid-off employees through the employer at a cost to the individual (Elliot,

1993; Milkovich et al., 2005). The Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act provides for tax deductions based on long-term health care insurance premiums (Krauss, 2003). The Employee Retirement Incomes Security Act restricts companies with regard to pension plans (Gerbasi, 2003). The list continues.

Benefits have changed over time. Aside from the selection of benefits now available, the increased costs associated with offering benefits, and the legal aspects that influence benefits, there have also been changes in the accessibility of benefits. According to a 2006 National Compensation Survey, not all workers have access to retirement and health care benefits. White-collar workers are more likely to have access to defined contribution benefits (65%) compared to blue-collar workers (53%) but less likely to have access to defined benefits (23%) compared to blue-collar workers (25%). Those workers in service occupations are less likely to receive retirement and healthcare benefits compared to workers in white-collar and blue-collar occupations. For example, both white-collar and blue-collar workers were found to have greater access to medical care benefits (77% for both) than workers in service occupations (45%). Full time workers were reported to have greater access to benefits than part time workers. Unionized workers (70%) were found to have greater access to benefits than non-unionized workers (15%). The accessibility (or lack of accessibility) of benefits may be considered unfair by some. The availability of benefits does not imply the consumption of the same. Peterson and Trout (2007) reported that there is an affordability gap with respect to benefits. They reported that companies are paying the same or even larger

amounts for benefits for employees and buying a greatly diminished benefits package for their employees. The rising cost of health care is primarily to blame. Employers respond to this affordability gap by shifting responsibility to employees in the form of defined contribution plans (versus pension plans) and high-deductible health plans. Therefore, there are substantial differences in the consumption of employee benefits across time. For example, according to Wiatrowski (2000), in 1979, the percentage of workers with health insurance was 97%. In 1997, the percentage of workers with health insurance was 76%. In 1979, the percentage of workers with defined benefit pensions was 87% compared to 50% in 1997. In 1997, the percentage of workers with a defined contribution plan was 57%.

According to Lowerre and Brazzell (2007), one of the most important goals of a benefits plan is to attract and retain employees. Unfortunately, employee benefits are not necessarily working to recruit and retain (Hiles, 2006). Hiles stated several reasons that benefits are not working effectively: 1) benefits do not address specific issues with precision (e.g., generous child care benefits generates resentment among employees with no children); 2) benefits are costly and difficult to predict (and, therefore, to budget); 3) benefits are on short-term *and* long-term time frames; 4) benefits change substantially from year to year; and 5) benefits cannot be provided by the parent company alone. According to Palmer (2006), today's employees know how much they are worth and will walk away from the negotiating table if an offer is not considered good enough. In order to determine which benefits are most helpful in attracting and retaining employees, it may

be necessary to think outside the box. Ryan (2005) stated that many things not typically associated with traditional benefits might be important if we will ask the right questions (e.g., What do you like about working here?") and listen to what employees say. Hiles (2006) urged, "Study your employees' benefit preferences as aggressively as if you were trying to understand customer preferences for a product your company sells" (p. 66). Then, perhaps, human resource professionals can begin to do a better job in recruiting and retaining valuable employees.

Turnover Intent

The outcome variable specified for this study is turnover intent. In the literature, it is also commonly referred to as intent or intention to leave and intent or intention to turnover. The review will begin with a discussion of turnover.

Turnover

In 2000, Bernthal and Wellins reported that turnover was widespread. In fact, of the employees surveyed by Bernthal and Wellins, almost 1/3 expected to leave their job within the next year and 20% of them estimated the likelihood of their leaving was greater than 50%. While Bernthal and Wellins suggested that turnover is likely to increase, Ledford and Lucy (2002) reported just the opposite: in the period from 2000 to 2003, turnover (at its peak in 2000) decreased as unemployment increased. Specific to higher education, some surveys (i.e., the National Center for Education Statistics' National Study of Postsecondary Faculty Survey) have indicated that as many as half of the nation's faculty in higher education will retire by the year 2015 (Bland et al., 2006).

The costs of turnover can be staggering. For U.S. businesses, the Journal of Business Strategy (2003) reported total turnover estimates at $5 trillion annually (although by some standards this estimation appeared somewhat inflated). For individual businesses, Bliss (n.d.) suggested that the calculations for the cost of turnover could reach 150% of the annual compensation figure for an employee (200% to 250% for those in managerial and sales positions). Furthermore, Bliss suggested that for a mid-sized company with 1,000 employees, experiencing a 10% turnover rate (per year), and assuming an average salary of $50,000, the annual turnover costs are $7.5 million. The U. S. Department of Labor (DOL, www.dol.gov/cfbci/turnover.htm) warned that businesses and organizations cannot afford the continual practice of recruiting applicants, training workers, and then watching them leave. The DOL presented a "cost-of-turnover" worksheet so that one could determine how turnover may affect the organization's bottom line.

The problem of turnover is not always addressed effectively even though human resource professionals consider it problematic. Bernthal and Wellins (2000) reported that greater than 1/3 of human resource professionals they surveyed saw retention as a pressing issue. However, almost half of organizations interviewed had no formal strategy for addressing the problem of retention. International Survey Research (ISR, n.d.) suggested that most organizations rely on the reactive strategy of gaining data from exit interviews to make organizational changes to promote retention. This is problematic, because according to ISR, not only is this reactive, but the data captured at an employee's

exit does not accurately represent the state of mind the employee was in when he or she contemplated leaving the organization. ISR suggested that in order to be truly proactive, organizations need to understand the key factors that influence turnover. Furthermore, Bernthal and Wellins (2000) suggested that the most effective interventions are those that include the understanding of WHY employees leave.

Turnover Intent

For the current study, turnover intent refers to the voluntary (vs. involuntary as in termination) intention of an employee to leave an organization. Carmeli and Weisberg (2006) used the term turnover intentions to refer to 3 particular elements in the withdrawal cognition process (i.e., thoughts of quitting the job, the intention to search for a different job, and then intention to quit). See Figures 1 and 2 in Appendix B. While employees may intend to leave voluntarily due to the relocation of a spouse, redefined personal role (e.g., primary care giver for an aging parent or staying home with a child or new infant), or retirement, of particular concern to the employer (and human resources) is when highly-productive, key employees intend to leave based on reasons often within the control of the employer.

Theoretically, turnover intent (and turnover) has been explained using Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action which purports that intentions mediate the relationship between attitudes and behavior. Consequently, attitudes about the job, management, co-workers, supervisor, organization, available alternative jobs, and self may encourage a behavioral predisposition to remain or withdraw from the organization.

Information regarding these linkages offers valuable insight to how and why employees leave.

Research using turnover intent (vs. turnover) as the dependent variable is common (Lum, Kervin, Clark, Rid, Sirola, 1998). This is due to both theoretical and practical reasons. Theoretically, several researchers (Mobley et al., 1979; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Breukelen, Van Der Vlist, & Steensma, 2004) have suggested that intention to turnover is the best predictor of actual turnover. Steel and Ovalle (1984) reported calculating a correlation of .50 between intention and employee turnover. Similarly, Ledford and Lucy (2002) found when using a matched sample, half of those considered high risk for turnover changed employers compared to only 9% of those rated at low risk for turnover. On the practical side, the examination of an employee's turnover intent allows the opportunity for human resources to take a proactive approach to increasing retention and delaying turnover in an organization as opposed to gleaning the same information from an exit interview associated with a voluntary turnover. Additional research on turnover intention has revealed that the length of time between obtaining predictor data influences the magnitude of the intention-turnover relationships (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Finally, Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) reported that relationships between attitudes and turnover are strongest at times closest to when the individual exits the organization.

Employee Engagement with Turnover Intent

Because of its infancy, there is a dearth of information on the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent. Much of the information available addresses employee engagement as a characteristic of the individual versus employee engagement as a characteristic of the workplace environment. For example, in general, the results have suggested that the more engaged an employee is, the less likely he or she is to leave. For example, the 2003 Towers Perrin Report addressed employee engagement and turnover and found that 66% of highly engaged employees reported that they have no plans to leave compared to 36% of moderately engaged individuals and 12% of disengaged employees. Furthermore, 2% of highly engaged employees reported they are actively looking for another job compared to 8% of moderately engaged and 23% of disengaged employees. Gubman (2004) also reported that disengaged employee are more likely to actively look for another job. And, The Segal Group, Inc. (2006d) found an inverse relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent. Additionally, The Segal Group, Inc. (2006b) found that disengaged employees have the highest turnover intentions (38%) compared to renegades (19%), enthusiasts (5%), and engaged employees (1%). Finally, Ellis and Sorensen (2007) described that employees who reported higher levels of engagement also reported lower levels of turnover intentions.

Concerning employee engagement as a characteristic of the workplace, surveys such as the Job Diagnostics Survey have been useful in linking job characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback shown earlier to

overlap with many of the facets of employee engagement) with personal and work outcomes including high quality work, increased satisfaction, low absenteeism, and turnover (Hackman et al., 1975). To date, based on a review of the literature, there are no studies that assess the relationship between 12 individual items assessing employee engagement as measured by the GWA and turnover intent. Jones and Harter (2005) assessed race effects on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship using a composite score for the GWA. Two studies report relationships between the 12 individual items of the GWA and retention, but not the variable turnover intent. First, Buckingham and Coffman (1999) reported that 5 of the 12 questions of the GWA have shown a link to retention: (a) "Do I know what is expected of me at work?" (b) "Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?" (c) "Do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?" (d) "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?" (e) "At work, do my opinions seem to count?" Second, Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2002) found each of the previous items to have the strongest and positive relationships to retention as well as "The last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?" All other items were cited to have a weaker but positive relationship with retention except best friend and progress/appraisal. Because of this apparent gap in the literature to link the 12 individual items with turnover intent, the following review seeks to show relationships between the 12 facets of employee engagement and turnover intent. (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Expectations with Turnover Intent

Expectations (as measured by the GWA item "Do I know what is expected of me at work?") has been found to be positively related to retention by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al., (2002). In general, researchers (Youngberg, 1963; Macedonia, 1969; Lyons, 1971) have found a negative relationship between role clarity (vs. role ambiguity) and turnover. Concerning turnover intent (also turnover motivation or propensity to leave), researchers have generally found a positive relationship between role ambiguity and turnover intent. House and Rizzo (1972) found that role ambiguity and propensity to leave were significantly but weakly correlated. Using a sample of 651 employees across 5 organizations, Gupta and Beehr 1979) found intention to turn over significantly and positively correlated with role ambiguity (.13) In a meta-analysis, Jackson and Schuler (1985) found propensity to leave correlated with role ambiguity at .29. Jamal (1990) found role ambiguity and turnover motivation correlated positively at .31. Using House, Schuler, and Levanoni's (1983) measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity, Westman (1992) and O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) found that role ambiguity correlated positively with turnover intention (in Fields, 2002). However, not all researchers have found a negative relationship between role clarity and turnover. For example, using similar survey items found in Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman's (1970) measure of Role Conflict and Ambiguity, Netemeyer et al. (1990) found that role ambiguity did not directly affect propensity to leave (in Fields, 2002).

Materials with Turnover Intent

Materials (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?") has been found to be positively related to retention by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002). In the related literature, the lack of needed materials is frequently referred to as resource inadequacy. Several researchers have found a positive relationship between resource inadequacy and turnover intent. Using a sample of 651 employees across 5 organizations, Gupta and Beehr (1979) found intention to turnover significantly and positively correlated with resource inadequacy (15). Jamal (1990) found resource inadequacy and turnover motivation correlated positively at .38. Next, in a study of job stress and using a sample for Malaysian and Pakistani employees, Jamal (2007) found resource inadequacy positively intercorrelated to turnover intention (.24 and .26, respectively). Finally, Deal (2007) reported that approximately 45% of Silents (or Traditionalists), Boomers, Generation Xers and Generation Y (or Millenials) cited availability of resources as one thing their organization can offer employees in exchange for their retention and commitment.

Opportunity with Turnover Intent

Opportunity (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?") has been found to be positively related to retention by both Bucking ham et al. (1999) and Harter et al. (2002). In the related literature, Opportunity—or, congruence of job with vocational interests—has demonstrated a negative relationship with turnover (Ferguson, 1958; Boyd, 1961; Mayeske, 1964). Using

a sample of 651 employees across 5 organizations, Gupta and Beehr 1979) found intention to turnover significantly and positively correlated with underutilization of skills (.29).

Recognition with Turnover Intent

Recognition (as measured by the GWA item "In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?") was shown to have a weaker but positive relationship to retention by Harter et al. (2002). Researchers (Ross & Zander, 1957; General Electric Company, 1964) have found a negative relationship between receipt of recognition and the variable turnover. Spector (1985) found every subscale of the Job Satisfaction Scale was significantly related to intention to turnover with the mean correlation for contingent rewards and turnover intent highest at -.36. International Survey Research (n.d.) cited that the lack of recognition and rewards was one of several key drivers for turnover intent. Additionally, using a national sample of faculty, Rosser (2004) found that perceptions of work life, including rewards, had a direct impact on satisfaction and intentions to leave. Next, Fields (2002) reported that Oldham and Cummings' (1996) measure of Supportive and Non-Controlling Supervision was correlated negatively with intentions to quit and Eisenberger, Huntinton, Hutchinson, and Sowa's (1996) measure of Perceived Organizational Support was correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Cropazano et al., 1997). Both of these measures included items similar to the GWA measuring Recognition. Finally, Deal (2007) reported that approximately 45% of Silents (or

Traditionalists), Boomers, Generation Xers and Generation Yers (or Millenials) cited respect and recognition as one thing their organization can offer employees in exchange for their retention and commitment.

Care with Turnover Intent

Care (as measured by the GWA item "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?") has been found to be positively related to retention by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002). Researchers (Evan, 1963; Hulin, 1968; Farris, 1971; Telly, French, & Scott, 1971) have found a negative relationship between satisfactory peer group interactions and turnover. While care can be communicated from management as well as from co-workers, it appears that the supervisor, especially the immediate supervisor, may have the most critical role in communicating care in an effort to reduce turnover. Jamrog (2004) has suggested that "[t]he front line in building an environment that works to retain and engaged key talent will be leaders, especially immediate supervisors" (p. 29). The role of supervisor is a critical role in an organization as supervisors are agents of an organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Researchers (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Saleh, Lee, & Prien, 1965; Ley, 1966; Hulin, 1968; Skinner, 1969; and Telly, French, & Scott, 1971) have consistently found a negative relationship between satisfaction with supervisory relations and turnover. And, O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) reported that doubt about acceptance from one's supervisor generally predicted turnover intentions. Fleishman and Harris (1962) reported that foremen who failed to show care toward their employees had higher

incidences of grievances and turnover. Conversely, care communicated by supervisors (and others) appears to have positive effects on the workplace. According to Gubman (2003), relationships that are characterized by care can increase worker's investments in the workplace: "Warm relationship help employee feel connected, like who they are matters. This multiplies their motivations to help you meet your goals." (p. 36-37).

Encouragement with Turnover Intent

Harter et al. (2002) cited development (as measured by the GWA item "Is there someone at work who encourages my development?") as positively related to retention. After citing learning, advancement, opportunity, recognition, and resources as acceptable exchanges for retention and commitment, coaching was indicated as one of the top 5 delivery methods for learning both "soft" skills and "hard" skills (Deal, 2007). For the Deal (2007) study, 85% of surveyed workers indicated coaching as useful. Coaching is an excellent way to help employees learn and grow due to the individualized and targeted nature of the instruction. McCauley and Wakefield (2006) suggested that in order to successfully manage talent effective communication through coaching is necessary. Coaches (and mentors) present opportunities and challenges for growth, supports goal setting, encourages, listens, and gives honest appraisals and feedback (DeLong, Gabarro, & Lees, 2008). And, coaching has been cited as useful in retaining employees (Strategic Finance, 2007).

Opinions Count with Turnover Intent

Opinions Count (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do my opinions seem to count?") was cited by both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002) are positively related to retention. Additional research tends to support the relationship between opinions count and turnover intent. For example, one study suggested that when employees feel involved in their job, they are less likely to turnover even if their pay is poor (Van Yperen, Hagedoom, & Guerts, 1996). Based on studies by the U.S. Department of Labor, not feeling appreciated (i.e., having the feeling that what one does and what one says doesn't matter) is the number-one reason people leave their jobs (Rath & Clifton, 2004, p. 31). Concerning full-time faculty members at an urban community college, Dee (2004) found that faculty who reported higher levels of support (for innovation) were less likely to intend to leave.

Mission with Turnover Intent

Mission (as measured by the GWA item "Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?") was found to have a weak but positive relationship with retention by Harter et al. (2002). Concerning the relationship between Mission and turnover, the "tie" is two-fold. First, there must be mission or purpose within an organization. Gupta-Sunderji (2004) suggested that by helping employees create a sense of purpose within the organization, managers can reduce turnover. Second, the mission must be tied to the individual's job. This may require direct communication between the immediate supervisor and the employee. Some positions may be easier to tie

(i.e., have a more direct link) to the purpose or mission than others. Brown and Yoshioka (2003) reported that 3 principles influence employee attitudes toward an organization's mission: the employee must be aware of the mission (i.e., awareness); the employee must agree with the mission (i.e., agreement); and the employee must see their work as aligned with the mission (i.e., alignment). Mission attachment (i.e., awareness, agreement, and alignment) was found to be significantly correlated with intention to stay (.43) for 304 employees in a nonprofit youth and recreation services organization. In a similar study, Kim and Lee (2007) reported that mission attachment significantly correlated with turnover intentions (-.40).

Quality Work with Turnover Intent

Quality Work (as measured by the GWA item "Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?") was found to have a weak but positive relationship with retention by Harter et al. (2002). Other studies involving organization quality improvement environment and total quality management show negative relationships with turnover intent. Karsh et al. (2005) reported that an organization quality improvement environment was significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intention. Furthermore, Elçi et al. (2007) reported findings that supported the idea that a quality culture is negatively related to turnover intent but positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance. Total quality management, an organization-wide activity, is a useful philosophy that requires a skilled and committed workforce and

embraces business excellence; quality culture in an organization is a system of values centered on excellence (Elçi et al., 2007).

Best Friend with Turnover Intent

Best Friend (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have a best friend at work?") was not reported to have a significant relationship with retention by either Buckingham and Coffman (1999) or Harter et al., (2002). However, The Segal Group's (2007) Rewards of Work Study reported that for those respondents in higher education, 73% rated friendly coworkers as "Important" or "Extremely Important" in considering whether or not to leave their current job. Researchers (Evan, 1963; Hulin, 1968; Farris, 1971; Telly, French, & Scott, 1971) have found a negative relationship between satisfactory peer group interactions and turnover. Furthermore, researchers (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Saleh, Lee, & Prien, 1965; Ley, 1966; Hulin, 1968; Skinner, 1969; and Telly, French, & Scott, 1971) have consistently found a negative relationship between satisfaction with supervisory relations and turnover. In a meta-analysis, Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson (2007) found social characteristics (i.e., interdependence, feedback from others, and social support) were more predictive of turnover intent than work design characteristics (i.e., skill variety, task variety, significance, feedback from the job, information processing). Others (Expansion Management, 2005) have reported that employees with friends in the workplace are generally more satisfied (an antecedent of turnover intent) and more productive.

Progress/Appraisal with Turnover Intent

Progress/Appraisal (as measured by the GWA item "In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?") was not reported to have a significant relationship with retention by either Buckingham and Coffman (1999) or Harter et al., (2002). In general, researchers (Ross & Zander, 1957; General Electric Company, 1964) have found a negative relationship between receipt of feedback and the variable turnover. Obstruction to receiving feedback is also correlated with turnover intent. According to Walsh, Ashford, and Hill (1985) obstructed supervisor feedback included the inaccessibility of supervisor and the perception of risk in asking one's supervisor for feedback, while obstructed co-worker feedback occurred when employees felt they were not part of a work group with whom they could compare their work. In the Walsh et al. (1985) study, obstruction of co-worker feedback correlated significantly with turnover intent (.39), and obstruction of supervisor feedback correlated positively and significantly with turnover intent (.56). Additionally, results of regression analysis suggested that obstruction of supervisor feedback is contributory to intention to turnover (Walsh et al., 1985). Progress/Appraisal appears to be important for respondents in higher education as 41% rated coaching and mentoring as "Important" or "Extremely Important" in considering whether or not to turnover (The Segal Group, 2007).

Learn and Grow with Turnover Intent

Learn and Grow (as measured by the GWA item "This last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?") was reported to have a strong positive

relationship with retention by Harter et al. (2002). Lankau and Scandura (2002) reported that relational job learning (i.e., increased understanding about the connectedness of one's job to others) but not personal skill development (i.e., interpersonal skills) is significantly related to intention to leave (-.16 vs. -.05). International Survey Research (n.d.) cited that poor individual development and career advancement was one of several key drivers for turnover intent. Grawitch, Trares, and Kohler (2007) found growth and development correlated significantly with turnover intent (-.23). Finally, The Segal Group's (2007) Rewards of Work Study reported that for those respondents in higher education, 44% rated training opportunities as "Important" or "Extremely Important" in considering whether or not to leave their current job.

To summarize, turnover intent (or intention to turnover, intention to quit, etc.) has been studied as the immediate precursor of turnover. And, research associated with the manifest variables that comprise employee engagement has suggested that their resulting factor is inversely related to turnover intent. Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 1a: Employee Engagement is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Compensation Fairness with Turnover Intent

For employees in any business or industry, compensation and benefits are important as they provide the means for employees to meet their needs for basic necessities in life. For the employer, compensation and benefits are important as well: they are one of the most visible rewards in the process of recruitment (Milkovich & Newman, 2005); they are a

means to retain the best employees (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008); compensation and benefits are used to motivate employees in the development of skills (Milkovich & Newman, 2005); and compensation and benefits are exchanged for performance (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). Concerning pay and turnover intent, the negative relationship between pay level and turnover intent has been reported so frequently by economists that the relationship has been accepted as a fact (Montowidlo, 1983). Even in teaching institutions, pay is a significant element explaining turnover intent (Heckert & Farabee, 2006). However, more information is needed to understand both the affective and cognitive variables that mediate the relationship between pay and turnover intent (Montowidlo, 1983). This includes concepts such as compensation fairness, pay satisfaction, and pay expectation.

For the current study, compensation fairness referred to the perceptions that employees have regarding equity in company practices concerning internal compensation, external compensation, and benefits. Equity theory research from the 1970s (e.g., Carrell & Dettrich, 1976) supported the premise that workers who felt unfairly paid leave their organizations, this being particularly true for those who felt they were paid too little (Milkovich & Newman, 2005). According to Tekleab, Bartol, and Liu (2005), perceptions of pay equity depend less on actual value than on comparative issues as employees compare their pay with employees within their organization and across other organizations. Many employees have the perception that pay allocations decisions are sometimes unfair (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008) in spite of the fact that details of

employees' compensation packages are not publicized. Hence, Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) and Tekleab, Bartol, and Liu (2005) cited distributive and procedural justice as determinants of pay satisfaction which impact turnover. (Distributive justice focuses on the outcomes and includes "people's feelings and behaviors in social interactions [that] flow from their assessments of the fairness of their outcomes when dealing with others" (Tyler & Blader, 2003, p. 350). Alternately, procedural justice focuses on the process and involves the method in which decisions were made concerning the delivery of outcomes). Accordingly, pay influences perceptions of pay equity which determines pay satisfaction, which partially influences whether a worker will remain with their current employer or seek for a different job (Montowidlo, 1983). The goal? Reasonable pay reduces turnover (Hom & Griffest, 1995; Kim, 1999).

Pay satisfaction and intentions to quit mediate the relationship between effects of pay on turnover (Motowidlo, 1983). Empirical support in favor of the pay satisfaction-turnover relationship came from Hulin (1968). Empirical support not in favor included Koch and Steers (1978); Kraut (1975); Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth (1978); Newman (1974); Waters and Roach (1971). Inconsistencies could be attributed to other variables that mediate the pay satisfaction-turnover relationship (e.g., intention to quit, intention to search). Kraut (1975) and Mobley et al (1978) but not Newman (1974) reported significant correlations between pay satisfaction and intention to quit but not between pay satisfaction and turnover (Motowidlo, 1983). Concerning pay satisfaction, there are four factors regarding pay satisfaction are at stake: pay level, pay raises,

benefits, and pay structure and administration (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008). However, pay raise satisfaction (not level) was a significant predictor of intent to turnover (Tekleab, Bartol, & Liu, 2005). This leads us to the idea of pay expectation--"the perceived probability of receiving more satisfying pay in another job" (Motowidlo, 1983, p. 485—which may also impact turnover intent.

In sum, researchers have suggested that when pay is reasonable, especially in comparison with other's pay, a worker is less likely to turnover. Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 1b: Compensation Fairness is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, the contentment an individual has with her or her job, has been researched among a wide variety of subjects including human services workers (Eisenstat and Felner, 1984), retail pharmacists (Shulz, Bigoness, & Gagnon, 1987), academic administrators (Glick, 1992), child care teachers (Pope and Stremmel, 1992), clergy (Morris & Blanton, 1994), women and minority faculty (Olsen and Maple, 1995), pediatric nurses (Lum, et al., 1998), academic faculty (Rosser, 2004), and non-academic employees at a university (Smerek & Peterson, 2007). Job satisfaction has been reviewed both qualitatively and quantitatively (Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001).

Regardless of the population being surveyed, most researchers would tend to agree that employers benefit when employees have high levels of job satisfaction as job satisfaction among employees has been tied to increased productivity, creativity, and

commitment to the employer (Syptak, Marsland, Ulmer, 1999). Piper (2006) reported that a benefit of the employee satisfaction survey is the implied message that the employees in an organization are valued and appreciated. Because of its relevance to working conditions as well as its relationship to employee productivity, job satisfaction is frequently researched and, therefore, one of the "best-researched concepts in work and organizational psychology" (Dormann & Zapf, 2001, p. 483). Likely, job satisfaction will continue to be frequently researched as some researchers (Jamrog, 2004) have reported that employees are disclosing some of the highest levels of job dissatisfaction in years.

One important issue concerning job satisfaction that is addressed in the literature is how to best measure the variable of job satisfaction: as a global variable or a multifaceted variable. Measuring job satisfaction globally (i.e., "How satisfied are you with your job in general?" [Brief, 1998, p. 15]) has its advantages: the measurement is rapid and efficient, has good test-retest reliability (Kristensen and Westergaard-Nielsen, 2007) and gives an overall representation of the employee's level of contentment. However, the global measure tends to gloss over critical aspects related to the job that would have been measured if a multifaceted measure of job satisfaction had been used. Multifaceted measures of job satisfaction such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) used by Glick (1992) measures facet-specific job satisfaction across the facets of coworkers, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and work (Brief, 1998). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire consists of 100 items assessing 20 aspects of the work environment including advancement, authority, compensation, coworkers, recognition,

and working conditions (Brief, 1998). While multifaceted measures of job satisfaction are designed to measure the facets of job satisfaction, these multifaceted measures are not without criticism. Scarpello and Campbell (1983) asked the question, “Are all the parts there?” referring to the inability of multifaceted measures of job satisfaction to incorporate all of the elements that go into the employee’s overall judgment about job satisfaction. These concerns were echoed by Highhouse and Becker (1993).

The consequences of job satisfaction are copious. Brief (1998) wrote that role withdrawal was of chief importance. Other consequences according to Brief (1998) as identified by Hulin include long coffee breaks, stealing, wandering around looking busy, tardiness, absenteeism, and retirement. Others (Shulz, et al., 1987; Weisberg & Kirschenbaum, 1991; Hellman, 1997) have cited turnover intent.

Employee Engagement, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent

In the current study, the relationship between employee engagement and turnover is hypothesized to be mediated by job satisfaction. Mediator variables are said to come between the independent and outcome variables (Schwab, 2004). Full mediation has occurred when the independent variable causes the mediator which, in turn, causes the outcome variable. Partial mediation is said to occur when the independent variable causes the mediator and the outcome variable, and the mediator causes the outcome variable. While there are no studies that directly assess the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent, there are a number of studies that support the relationship between employee engagement and retention but not

turnover intent (Jones & Harter, 2005; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999), job satisfaction and turnover intent (Hellman, 1997; Lum, et al., 1998; Bernthal et al., 2000), and still others that relate employee engagement with jobs satisfaction. Several studies in the research literature have documented a complex relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intent. Shulz, et al. (1987) examined turnover intent among retail pharmacists and found that job dissatisfaction was directly related to turnover intent. In a 1991 study, Weisberg et al. determined that high and moderate levels of job satisfaction are similar in their impact upon turnover intent; however, a lack of job satisfaction "drastically raises a moving intent" (p. 368).Weisberg et al. suggested that it just may not be necessary for employees to obtain high levels of job satisfaction to reduce their intentions to leave an organization. Using meta-analytic procedures, Hellman (1997) found that the job satisfaction-turnover intent relationship was "significantly different from zero and consistently negative" (p. 1997). Using a longitudinal analysis of the turnover processes, Youngblood, Mobley, and Meglino (1983) determined that changes in satisfaction over time are related to turnover. Likewise, in a study of pediatric nurses, Lum, et al. (1998) reported finding an inverse relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit (turnover intent). Also, Bernthal et al. (2000) found that employees who are either neutral or dissatisfied (36% of employees) with their jobs are greater than two times as likely to leave. Boswell, Boudreau, and Tichy (2005) determined that low satisfaction usually precedes a voluntary change of employment followed by an increase in satisfaction (honeymoon effect) and then a decrease in job satisfaction (hangover effect).

There are several studies within the past 20 years that suggest the mediating effects of job satisfaction on employee engagement and turnover intent. First, Lachman and Diamant (1987) stated that "[m]ost models describing the psychological process that leads to resignation or the intention to resign assume a sequence from the work environment, through employees' affective reactions to it, to the decision to remain or leave the organization" (p. 219). In 2001, Lambert, Hogan, and Barton assessed the relationship between the work environment, job satisfaction, and turnover intent. For the study, the work environment was comprised of role conflict, task variety, financial rewards, and relationships with co-workers, and autonomy/participation. Lambert et al. reported in their findings that job satisfaction served as a key, mediating variable between work environment and turnover intent. In an international study, Huang and Van de Vliert (2003) reported that intrinsic job characteristics were linked more strongly with job satisfaction in richer countries with better governmental social welfare programs and those that were more individualistic. Finally, Karsh, Booske, and Sainfort (2005) found that job and organizational factors predicted both commitment and satisfaction together, which predicted turnover intentions among nursing home employees.

In sum, based on a review of the relevant research literature, it is surmised that employee engagement (that is, the employee's assessment of the work environment) is expected to elicit an emotional response (i.e., job satisfaction, the mediator) which in turn, affects turnover intent (the outcome variable). The relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction is expected to be positive; the relationship between job

satisfaction and turnover intent is expected to be negative (i.e., as job satisfaction increases, turnover intent decreases). Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 2a: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent

In this study, the relationship between compensation fairness and turnover intent is also hypothesized to be one of mediation by job satisfaction. There are several studies in the literature supporting the mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between compensation fairness and turnover intent. However, these studies did not address fully the model proposed by the current study nor do these studies agree as to the direction of the relationships between the variables. In a 1987 study of retail pharmacists conducted by Shulz, et al., the researchers found a negative relationship between salary and turnover intent as well as a positive relationship between dissatisfaction and turnover intent. In a 1991 study of managers, Summers and Hendrix reported that pay equity perceptions had an indirect impact on voluntary turnover via pay satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intent. In 1999, Igalens et al. found that flexible pay did not increase job satisfaction for nonexempt employees and that benefits did not increase job satisfaction for exempt and nonexempt employees. The results of the Igalens et al. study did not support the model used for the current study. Huang et al. (2003) reported that extrinsic job characteristics were linked strongly and positively with job

satisfaction in all countries. Rosser (2004) reported that female faculty was less satisfied than male counterparts based on workload, quality of benefits, job security, and salary. Ambrose, Huston, and Norman (2005) listed commonly cited reasons for satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) among faculty include: salary; collegiality; mentoring; reappointment, promotion, and tenure processes; and department heads. Van Herpen, Van Praag, and Cools (2005) reported a relationship between compensation system, work satisfaction, and turnover intent. Finally, Daly and Dee (2006) found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment mediated the relationship between the work environment (including communication openness and distributive justice) and intent to stay for the faculty.

In sum, there is research to support the mediating effects of job satisfaction on the relationship between compensation fairness and turnover intent. In addition, there is research to support the same for faculty. The relationship between compensation fairness and job satisfaction is expected to be positive; the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intent is expected to be negative (i.e., as job satisfaction increases, turnover intent decreases).Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 2b: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Age

For the current study, cohorts referred to those employees in the same age category (i.e., mature workers were aged 55 and older, late midcareer workers were aged 46-54, early

midcareer workers were aged 36-45, and young workers were aged 18 to 35). These particular age categories were utilized as dictated by the secondary data source and were suggested by Dychtwald et al., (2006). Personal interview with David Baxter (2008), SVP of Age Wave, indicated that these particular age categories were utilized in Dychtwald et al. (2006) because (a) Human Resources commonly uses these age ranges; (b) the Bureau of Labor Statistics commonly divides age into these same ranges; and (c) these age categories roughly mirror the Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, and Generation X/Millenials social cohorts.

Due to the cross-sectional nature of the data and expecting both cohort effects and age effects in the data (Rhodes, 1983), these age categories will now be profiled based on the cohort and age effects expected and contextualized as faculty in higher education.

Profile of the Mature Worker

Mature workers include those employees 55 and older (Dychtwald et al., 2006), most of whom were born in the 1940's. Collectively, they possess the strengths of emotional maturity, experience, and loyalty, even building their career with only one company (Dychtwald et al., 2006; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). These workers are characterized as wanting to make meaningful contributions (as in positions of leadership, see Lancaster & Stillman, 2002) and interested in improving their skills. They hold more traditional beliefs including those involving respect for authority. While they may shy away from computers, they do have a desire to improve. They are typically more engaged, according to Dychtwald (2006), less likely to report burnout and conflict on the

job, and demonstrate greater overall satisfaction with both their jobs (68%) and with their managers (54%) compared to Midcareer and Young Workers. They may be satisfied with little feedback at work but enjoy the satisfaction of a job well done (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). These workers are in Super's Maintenance and Decline Career Stages as they are maintaining their positions but beginning to plan for and consider retirement (Osipow, 1968) that they view as a reward (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Dychtwald (2006) reported that many mature workers are working past retirement age and may do so to stay mentally and physically active, to be productive, and have fun while others retire due to health benefits or money. Conversely, others may choose to retire to alleviate economic restraints tied to current I.R.S. tax code. Wright (2006) suggested that while financial reasons may keep employees working, so does their valuation of their role as worker, that is they value the social contacts as well as meaning and purpose to their lives that work provides for them. The aging worker is important in today's American businesses and organizations with the eradication of mandatory retirement.

Profile of the Midcareer Worker

According to Dychtwald et al. (2006), the midcareer worker is aged 36 to 54 and includes most of the Baby Boomers and the older 1/3 of Generation X. According to Super's Career Stages, the midcareer worker is in the establishment and Maintenance Stages of Career Development and working on the vocational task of consolidation by attempting to establish himself in his position (Osipow, 1968). While they try to maintain their optimism (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), the Midcareer Worker has a number of

career crisis points: they are experiencing a lengthening work horizon, they are in a career bottleneck (too many boomers in line for too few positions of leadership), they experience work/life tension catering to both parents and children, they are not accumulating wealth quickly enough to retire when they would like, they struggle to keep up with new skills, they experience disillusionment with their employer including distrust, and they frequently experience burnout. They are highly competitive and still strive to build stellar careers while achieving money, recognition, fancy titles, and the corner office (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Midcareer workers are more likely to express dissatisfaction with their jobs than other cohorts and the lowest satisfaction with their managers. According to Dychtwald et al. (2006), "the recognition of aging triggers the quest for change" (p. 67), but they may feel that job changing only puts them behind (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Dychtwald et al. (2006) reported that over half of the midcareer works seek changes in responsibilities at work, 20% are looking for a new job, 20% are looking for a career change, and 36% say they feel dead-ended. At a time when they should be at or near their peak of productivity, midcareer workers often face frustration, alienation, and confusion before they may face a time a self-discovery and new direction (Morison, Erickson, & Dychtwald, 2006). Benefits packages, retirement packages, work that encourages them to grow and learn, and an enjoyable workplace are high on the midcareer worker's list (Dychtwald et al., 2006); too much training and feedback more than once a year is not (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Profile of the Late Midcareer Worker

The Late Midcareer Worker is aged 46 to 54 and comprised primarily of baby boomers. With respect to Super's career stages, the late midcareer worker is in the maintenance stage of development. The Late Midcareer Workers are sandwiched between raising children and assisting with their aging parents. This may add to the stress they already perceive at work from the career bottleneck and lengthening work horizon.

Profile of the Early Midcareer Worker

The Early Midcareer Worker is aged 36 to 45 and comprised primarily of Generation Xers. With respect to Super's career stages, the early midcareer worker is in the establishment stage of development. The Early Midcareer Worker may have younger children he or she is raising which may add to their stress load.

Profile of the Young Worker

The young worker group is aged 35 and under and is comprised of both Generation X and Millenials (Dychtwald et al., 2006). The young worker is in the exploration and establishment stage of Super's Career Stages and working on the vocational tasks of specification (i.e., narrowing down his vocational choices), implementation (i.e., completing his or her training), and stabilization (i.e., settling in his position, changing positions or jobs, if necessary) (Osipow, 1968). In spite of just starting out, young workers report they feel they are in dead-end jobs (35% compared to the midcareer worker's 36%) and 2/3s of young workers are looking for a significant change, 26% are seeking promotions, 28% are seeking major career change, and 28% are looking for a job at another company (Dychtwald et al., 2006). Twenge (2006) described these

generations as having a feeling of entitlement that extends to salary and duties in the workplace. Furthermore, salary is very important to them, especially at a time when the housing market has far-outpaced inflation (Twenge, 2006). Dychtwald et al. (2006) reported that young workers have high expectations from work including freedom to make decisions (in fact, freedom in itself is rewarding to them, Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), a sociable workplace, opportunities to learn, opportunities to contribute, lots of feedback, respect from older coworkers, flexible schedules as well as plenty of time off. Younger workers want managers that serve as coaches but not order-givers (Dychtwald, 2006). They do not take criticism well but do work hard when praised and recognized (Twenge, 2006), and, thus seek constructive feedback (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Young workers have reported their managers provide plenty of useful feedback (Dychtwald, 2006). They are open to learning (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), learn best through hands-on activities and not lectures (Twenge, 2006), and have reported that they have plenty of opportunity to learn and grow (Dychtwald, 2006). While Generation X has been described as skeptical and Millenials have been described as realistic (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), these young workers have reported that they work with bright, experienced people (Dychtwald, 2006). Unfortunately, concerning the new workforce, Jamrog (2004) had many concerns saying that the generation entering the workforce now is different, is not better educated than predecessors, and is 21-23% functionally illiterate.

Moderating Effects of Age

Moderator variables influence the relationship between the dependent and other independent variables (Schwab, 2004). The direction and magnitude of the relationship between the dependent and an independent variable is dependent on the value of a moderator variable. In the current study, age is speculated to be a moderator variable affecting the magnitude (but not the direction) of the relationship between the outcome variable turnover intent and the antecedents employee engagement and compensation fairness. Thus said, in the current study, it is expected that for the relationship between antecedents employee engagement and compensation fairness and outcome variable turnover intent there is an interaction effect with age that affects the strength of the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intent and for compensation fairness and turnover intent for the target age groups.

Researchers (Rhodes, 1983, for example) have suggested that age-related differences that occur in work attitudes and behaviors may be a result of psychosocial aging (e.g., social role changes) as well as biological aging. Steel and Ovalle (1984) have suggested that age should be considered as a variable influencing work attitudes and behaviors. They cite that much of the research on turnover intent has not considered the differences across age groups. Concerning the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship, Jones and Harter (2005) had suggested age may be a potential moderator. Generally speaking, there are many reasons to suspect that age-related effects on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship exist. First, researchers suggest that

age may affect both turnover intent and engagement. Lachman and Diamant (1987) suggested that age and tenure are restraining factors keeping employees on the job and decreasing turnover intent. Dychtwald et al. (2006) reported that mature workers had the highest levels of engagement (i.e., characteristic of the worker) as did BlessingWhite (2008). Second, profiles of the four cohort grouping suggest that there are differences in worker's needs, preferences, and work-related attitudes that are specifically related to the 12 employee engagement items. (See Table 3 in Appendix C for additional information). For example, midcareer workers (defined as 36-55 for the current study) have a number of crisis points (e.g., career bottleneck, work/life tension, disillusionment with employer, burn out) yet may feel they cannot quit. And, young workers (defined as 35 and under for the current study) have high expectations from the workplace (e.g., a sociable workplace, opportunities to contribute, lots of feedback, etc.) and yet are at the highest risk for turnover (Bernthal & Wellins, 2000). While there is a dearth of information on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship, there is even less information on the age effects of the same.

The following paragraphs use Super's Life-Space Life-Span Theory and Generational Cohort Theory to conjecture the age-related effects on the 12 employee engagement-turnover intent relationship. Empirical studies, if available, are also reported; however, it is important to note that most studies on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship have used age as a descriptor and not a moderator.

Expectations, Turnover Intent, and Age

Previous research (i.e.,Youngberg, 1963; Macedonia, 1969; Lyons, 1971; House & Rizzo, 1972; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999) has indicated an inverse relationship between expectations (as measured by the GWA item "Do I know what is expected of me at work?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. Age-related effects were expected on the inverse relationship between expectations and turnover intent. According to Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory, young workers are working on the vocational task of stabilization (i.e., trying to "settle down" in a career of their choosing, changing position if necessary). Because of their comparative youth and lack of experience, young workers likely have many more questions about what is expected from them on the job compared to midcareer and mature workers as they begin the career of their choice. Therefore, mean scores for young workers are expected to be lower for the variable expectations as compared to mean scores for both midcareer and mature workers, and, as suggested by research (Smart, 1990; Zhou & Volkwein, 2004) young workers are likely to have higher turnover intentions compared to midcareer and mature workers. Futhermore, according to Generational Cohort Theory, young workers have high expectations regarding the workplace this likely includes the expectation that their job expectations will be delineated for them. Unfortunately, this is not always the case, even in higher education.

Materials, Turnover Intent, and Age

Based on previous research (i.e., Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Harter et al., 2002; Deal, 2007), an inverse relationship was expected between the antecedent materials (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have the materials I need to do my work right?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. Moreover, for the current study, age-related effects were also expected on the same relationship. Super's Life-Space, Life-Span Theory suggested that midcareer workers are attempting to establish themselves in their careers. They have moved past the training and implementation stages characteristic of the young worker and are at a point where they may suffer crisis in an attempt to maintain their place in their field. For faculty in higher education, materials may certainly include technology and the availability of support staff. This being said, resources in the form of materials (many of which are technologically based) may be particularly important for the midcareer worker's attempts to establish themselves in their career but, unfortunately, are not there compared to younger workers who may have negotiated better packages including start-up monies and mature workers who, as full professors, have the benefits of receiving internal and external grants as well as contracts. Based on this information and the fact that younger workers typically have higher turnover rates, mature workers likely have the strongest inverse relationship between materials and turnover intent.

Generational cohort theory likely suggests the same in that young workers and mature workers have both been subjected to frugality because of the economic conditions

of their time (Twenge, 2006; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), they are accustomed to "making do" or doing without. On the contrary, midcareer workers as Baby Boomers grew up comparatively affluent (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002) and are somewhat accustomed to having plenty. In addition, midcareer workers are highly competitive and in search of a stellar career.

Opportunity, Turnover Intent, and Age

Past research (i.e., Ferguson, 1958; Boyd, 1961; Mayeske, 1964; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Harter et al., 2002) has suggested an inverse relationship between the manifest variable opportunity (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. For the current study, age-related effects were expected on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship. As a manifest variable of the construct employee engagement, opportunity simply measures the extent the worker feels he or she is able to do what they do best in his or her current position. For faculty in higher education, being able to excel may include teaching particular courses, researching selected topics, and leading desired committees. Vocational choice was clearly addressed by Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory. Young workers are attempting to answer the questions "Who am I? And, what kind of job will be best for me?" Midcareer workers know better who they are and where their skills lie. They are attempting to answer the question: "Is this what I want to do for the rest of my life?" Mature workers are attempting to answer the question "Have I used my skills and talents wisely?" There is an

increased seriousness in how midcareer workers and mature workers approach their job and its match with their skills. Concerning the age-related effects on the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship, Generational Cohort theory suggested that the goals of the mature workers and midcareer workers are more in line with seeking opportunities to excel. For example, traditionalists (i.e., mature workers) want to make contributions to the organization that reflects their skill (Martin & Tulgan, 2006), while boomers (i.e., midcareer workers), due to their competitive nature, are in search of that stellar career (Lancaster & Stillman et al., 2002). Young workers (i.e., Generation X) seek authority, status, and reward while others (i.e., Millenials) seek to create meaningful contributions (Martin & Tulgan, 2006).

Recognition, Turnover Intent, and Age

The lack of recognition and praise has been noted as a key driver for turnover intent (International Survey Research, n.d.). Other research (Ross & Zander, 1957; General Electric Company, 1964; Spector, 1985; Fields, 2002; Harter et al., 2002) further supports the inverse relationship between recognition and turnover intent. For the current study, age-related effects were expected on the inverse relationship between recognition (as measured by the GWA item "In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?") and outcome variable turnover intent. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory suggested that midcareer workers are caught in a "slump" between having previously benefited from the intrinsic rewards associated with the stabilization

process (i.e., finding gainful employment after the completion of formal training) and not yet ready for the rewards of retirement (Lancaster & Stillman et al., 2002).

Recognition from the organization may follow suit with young workers receiving significant recognition for their accomplishments establishing themselves in their careers and mature workers receiving significant recognition for their accomplishments over the course of their careers. With turnover intent decreasing with age, mature workers (vs. young workers) are more likely to have the strongest inverse relationship between recognition and turnover intent. Generational Cohort Theory suggested that due to the sheer volume of Baby Boomers, midcareer workers may feel lost against the masses, thus receiving less recognition.

Care, Turnover Intent, and Age

Researchers (Evan, 1963; Hulin, Roach, & Waters, 1971; Telly, French, & Scott, 1971; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Harter et al., 2002) have demonstrated that there is sufficient evidence to suggest that care (as measured by the GWA item "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?") is inversely related to turnover intent. For the present study, age-related effects were expected on the relationship between care and the outcome variable turnover intent, although an inverse relationship between care and turnover intent was expected. The need for care in faculty in higher education should likely include support and encouragement through the more demanding tasks associated with the job. Care is a basic necessity for humankind. All humans need to know that others support, respect, appreciate, and trust us. We have a

need to give the same in return. When people sense they are not cared for in relationships (e.g., friendships, marriage relationships, work relationships), then they pull away to seek this basic need elsewhere.

Encouragement, Turnover Intent, and Age

Some researchers (Harter et al., 2002; Strategic Finance, 2007) have suggested that development (as measured by the GWA item "Is there someone at work who encourages my development?") is inversely related to turnover intent. For the present study, age was expected to have an impact on the inverse relationship between the antecedent variable development and the outcome variable turnover intent. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory has suggested that, with respect to their careers, individuals proceed through several stages of career development (i.e., growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline). Socialization into this career development process has led us to expect formal training during the growth and exploration stages in preparation for the careers to be started during the establishment stage. These young workers are frequently given additional support through orientation, mentors, and coaches especially at the beginning of their employment and are likely to rate the presence of someone encouraging their development fairly high although they are historically a little more likely to turnover than their older counterparts.

Between midcareer and mature workers, who both are less likely to turnover than young workers, it seems plausible that the mature workers are more likely to encourage the development of others and less likely to be encouraged in their personal development

due to their position of influence and leadership in an organization. This may be particularly true in higher education.

Opinions Count, Turnover Intent, and Age

Research (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Harter et al., 2002) has supported a positive relationship between opinions count and retention. For the current study, an inverse relationship between the antecedent variable opinions count (as measured by the GWA item "At work, do my opinions seem to count?") and the outcome variable turnover intent was expected. Furthermore, age-related effects were expected on the same. While research may suggest that there is a relationship between having one's opinions count in the workplace and turnover intent, there is even less information on how age may impact this relationship. This is especially true for faculty in higher education. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory has suggested that with respect to careers, individuals proceed through several stages of career development (i.e., growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline). It is during the decline stage that workers are characterized by a decrease in mental and physical powers and career deceleration and retirement occurs. Dychtwald et al. (2006) has suggested that mature workers are characterized as wanting to make meaningful contributions. With their age and experience, it is likely that mature workers do desire to have their opinions count. And, when they feel they can no longer make meaningful contributions due to the decreases in their mental and physical powers, they may consider turnover in the form of retirement. Until such time occurs, many workers (higher education included) tend to

respect, appreciate, and take into account the opinions of those that are more mature and wiser

Mission, Turnover Intent, and Age

Research on the relationship between mission and turnover intent is rather limited. Harter et al. (2002) found a positive relationship between Mission and retention. For the current study, age-related effects were expected on an inverse relationship between mission (as measured by the GWA item "Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?") and turnover intent. Mission addresses the idea that one's job is important due to its connection to the purpose of the company. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory is helpful in hypothesizing this relationship. For the social cohorts, the relationship is likely to be strongest for the mature workers. Young workers in the exploration and establishment stages typically have entry-level positions and have not had a chance to work through the ranks to positions of leadership. They are trying to fit in with the purpose and needs of the company. Midcareer workers are in the maintenance stage and bottlenecked in their attempt towards obtaining a stellar career into positions of leadership. Mature workers see the connection between their job and the purpose of the company (or, institution of higher learning) and know they are essential to the company reaching its purpose.

Quality Work, Turnover Intent, and Age

Researchers (Karsh et al., 2005; Elçi et al., 2007) have demonstrated a negative relationship between organizational quality improvement environment and quality culture

with turnover intent suggesting that quality work is inversely related to turnover intent. For the current study, age was expected to have an impact on the inverse relationship between the antecedent variable quality work (as measured by the GWA item "Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory is useful in explaining age-related effects on the quality work—turnover intent relationship. Young workers and midcareer workers are likely to evaluate the commitment to quality work higher than mature workers. Mature workers, in their wisdom, likely have come to realize that all workers do not have their particular level of expertise yet but can be mentored.

Best Friend, Turnover Intent, and Age

While some researchers (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Harter et al., 2002) have not found a significant relationship with best friend and turnover intent (or retention), others (The Segal Group, 2007) have suggested that having friendly co-workers was important when considering turnover and still others (Evan, 1963; Hulin; 1968; Farris, 1971; Telly, French & Scott, 1971) have found a negative relationship between satisfactory peer group interactions and turnover. For the current study, age was expected to have an impact on an inverse relationship between the antecedent variable best friend (as measured by the GWA item "Do I have a best friend at work?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory has suggested that as individuals progress through the stages of career development, they enter the workforce, they maintain their position, then they enter the decline stage where retirement is

considered and taken. Young workers may not have had the opportunity to develop friends at work. Mature workers may likely find their friends have left the workplace. Midcareer workers, as long as they are not too competitive, are most likely to agree that they have a good friend at work. While Dychtwald et al. (2006) reported that young workers expect a sociable workplace, friendships do take some time to develop.

Progress/Appraisal, Turnover Intent, and Age

Research has demonstrated somewhat mixed results concerning progress/appraisal and turnover intent with both Buckingham and Coffman (1999) and Harter et al. (2002) reporting a lack of significant relationships between the two while The Segal Group (2007) reported that 41% of respondents in higher education rated coaching and mentoring as important when considering turnover. For the current study, an inverse relationship is expected between progress/appraisal (as measured by the GWA item "In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?") and turnover intent. Age-related effects are expected on the same. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory suggested that as individuals progress through the stages of career development, they move out of the growth and exploration stages where formal training is expected and into establishment, maintenance, and decline stages where formal training is not usually expected. However, as is customary for many organizations including those in higher education, performance appraisals may generally be expected throughout one's career

Learn and Grow, Turnover Intent, and Age

Several researchers (Harter et al., 2002; International Survey Research, n.d.) have noted either a strong positive relationship between learn and grow with retention or cited poor individual development and career development as a key driver for turnover intent. An inverse relationship is expected between the manifest variable learn and grow (as measured by the GWA item "This last year, have I had opportunities to learn and grow?") and the outcome variable turnover intent. Age-related effects are expected on the same. Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory suggested that as individuals progress through the stages of career development, they move out of the growth and exploration stages where formal training is expected and into establishment, maintenance, and decline stages where formal training does not normally occur. Perhaps because of this expectation of formal training during the early stages of career development, young workers are open to learning (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002), have high expectations regarding opportunities to learn, and report they have plenty opportunities to learn and grow (Dychtwald et al., 2006). Similarly, mature workers are interested in improving their skills (Dychtwald, et al, 2006). While midcareer workers strive to build stellar careers (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002) and seek work that encourages them to grow and learn (Dychwald et al., 2006), midcareer workers are unfavorable to too much training (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Because of this incongruity between needing to learn and grow to build their stellar career and the dissatisfaction of too much training, midcareer workers in higher education are expected to report fewer opportunities to learn and grow.

In sum, psychosocial and biological aging are likely causes of age-related differences that may occur in work attitudes and behaviors (Rhodes, 1983). Such age-related differences likely impact the employee engagement-turnover intent relationship as suggested by Jones and Harter (2005). Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 3a: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Compensation Fairness, Turnover Intent, and Age

After an extensive search in the related literature, the author was unable to find any articles that specifically addressed the three variables: compensation fairness, turnover intent, and age. However, several articles were found that are suggestive of the relationship between the three variables. While fair pay helps to maintain employees (Siegfried, 2008), age may moderate how compensation fairness is perceived and used in the decision to stay or leave a job. Rebecca Ryan (in Siegfried, 2008) reported that generation X and generation Y perceive pay as a determinant of stay or leave decisions differently than previous generations. According to generational cohort theory, young workers are looking to leave for greener pastures, while mature workers are loyal and less likely to turnover or intend to turnover. Older workers (i.e., mature workers) may perceive compensation as fair as they likely possess the more desirable higher salaries compared to their younger counterparts (White & Spector, 1987). Therefore, for the current study, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 3b: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Summary

Utilizing secondary data describing employees from an institution of higher education, the current study tested the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction and the moderating effects of Age on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable, Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B for a model representing the proposed relationships.) While Turnover Intent and Age appear frequently as variables in the related literature, Employee Engagement, especially in higher education, is a fairly new concept lacking a research base that ties the concept to the turnover literature. The inclusion of Job Satisfaction and Compensation Fairness further ties the current study to the existing research base. The hypotheses for the current study are reiterated below:

Hypothesis 1a: Employee Engagement is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 1b: Compensation Fairness is inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 2a: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 2b: Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 3a: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

Hypothesis 3b: Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

"A man can do nothing better than to eat and drink and find satisfaction in his work."

(Ecclesiastes 2:24 NIV, Gospel Communications International, 2007)

Methods

The primary focus of the current study was to test the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction and the moderating effects of Age on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable, Turnover Intent. (See Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5 in Appendix B for a model depicting these relationships.) The current study utilized secondary data describing employees from an institution of higher learning. While secondary data has its limitations (i.e., the researcher has no control over methodological concerns including selection of population, instrumentation, and delivery methods), it can be a useful source of information. The secondary data used in the current study was made available via invitation from the director of human resources from the surveyed institution of higher learning. The current study utilized survey methodology employing self-administered questionnaires while making use of the Internet as a delivery method. Justifications for this methodology follow.

Survey research was used based on its description (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) and purposes of comparison, evaluation (Isaac & Michael, 1997), and generalization (Babbie

in Creswell, 2003). Survey research has several advantages and disadvantages (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Advantages of survey research include a wide scope and accuracy. Bates (2004) stated:

> The employee survey is the diagnostic tool of choice in the battle for the hearts of employees. Some companies ask workers about their work experiences as infrequently as every other year, looking for major trends. Others take the pulse of the people as often as every month to address the little things that get in the way of employees doing their jobs. Regardless of frequency, the most effective surveys ask questions that can lead to specific corrective action and that demonstrate a long-term commitment to providing a rewarding work experience, as several organizations have found (p. 48).

Disadvantages of survey research include the inability to gather anything more than superficial data without much depth; the demands on time, energy, and money; subjectivity to sampling error; and the requirement of knowledge concerning both survey methodology and research. Many of the disadvantages can be ameliorated through careful consideration of the design of the research; however, one major disadvantage still stands and that is that survey research may be classified as a one group design or, according to Campbell and Stanley (in Kerlinger & Lee, 2000), a “one shot case study” (p. 469). The problems with this design include the facts that there is not random assignment to groups and that treatment for the experimental group is assumed. As pointed out by Kerlinger and Lee, the lack of control over any influences on the variables studied makes this

design scientifically worthless; however, it is used quite frequently in research due to the fact it is available and sometimes necessary depending on the variables to be studied.

The current study also utilized web surveys. Web surveys have several unique advantages (Nesbary, 2000): (a) web surveys are relatively inexpensive; (b) responses may be entered and stored in a format conducive to analysis; (c) there is increased accuracy in data entry as well as decreased time; and (d) automatic coding saves a great deal of time. Couper (2000) also stated that researchers could access "undreamed of numbers of respondents at dramatically lower costs than traditional methods" (p. 464). Web surveys also have several unique disadvantages: (a) only individuals with web access can complete the survey (Nesbary, 2000) creating coverage problems (Couper, 2000): (b) web surveys may disproportionately limit the responses of minorities and poor (Nesbary, 2000) creating problems with sampling (Couper, 2000); (c) unless security measures are in place, anyone who happens upon the survey may take it and, thus, bias results (Nesbary, 2000); (d) illiteracy is problematic (Couper, 2000); and (e) technical problems including slow connections and connect-time costs might decrease response rates. Couper (2000) suggested several solutions for correcting the coverage error including limiting the study to individuals with computers and making computers available to individuals without one.

Selection of the Population

While the study utilized a secondary data source, the survey population included faculty from a land-grant institution holding the doctoral/research-extensive classification from

the Carnegie Classification and serving about 42,000 students each year with graduates totaling more than 9,000 per year. The university has a statewide budget of $1.4 billion receiving $257 million in statewide research awards.

Sample

The current study made use of secondary data that utilized a convenience sample. Due to the use of the convenience sample, sampling error resulted because those participating in the study may have differed from those not participating.

The 2007 Employee Satisfaction Survey population included 3,180 faculty members at a land-grant institution. With a total of 1,229 faculty responding, the response rate was 38.6%. The sample included 1,229 faculty members that were diverse in age (18-35: 18.3%, 36-45: 24.4%, 46-55: 31.0%, 56+: 25.0%), gender (female: 44.8%, male: 50.3%), years of service (0-2 years: 19.2%, 3-5 years: 18.4%, 6-10 years: 17.3%, 11-20 years: 21.6% , 21-30 years: 15.9%, 31+: 7.2%), exempt status (exempt: 43.9%, non-exempt: 21.4%), and race (American Indian: 0.7%, Asian/Pacific Islander: 4.4%, Black/Not Hispanic: 7.2%, Hispanic: 1.1%, White/Not Hispanic: 81.9%, Other: 2.3%).

Instrumentation

The secondary data utilized for the current study was derived from a 2007 employee satisfaction survey. While comprised of several different survey instruments, the current study focused on survey questions that ascertained employee engagement, compensation fairness, job satisfaction, turnover intent, and demographics. Relevant survey items are

reproduced in Appendix A. Those instruments utilized for the current study are described below.

Employee Engagement

The secondary data set utilized by the current study made use of the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) as published in Buckingham and Coffman (1999). Permission for the use of the GWA was obtained from Robert Lockwood, a Gallup representative. The GWA was designed to measure elements in the workplace culture that encourage employee engagement and to reflect both attitudinal outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, pride, loyalty) as well as issues within the control of the manager (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). After conducting over 1 million interviews across 25 years of qualitative and quantitative research, Gallup determined 12 core statements that measure the core elements needed to "attract, focus, and keep the most talented employees" (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999, p. 28). These 12 statements (sometimes also presented as questions, see below) utilized a 5-point Likert-type scale with options as follows: Strong Disagree, Disagree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree. For the 12 items, validity estimates range from .057 to .191 (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999). At the business unit level, Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) reported that the GWA has a Cronbach's alpha of .91 (n = 4,172). According to Buckingham and Coffman (1999), Gallup School of Management breaks the 12 questions into four camps entitled "What do I get?" , "What do I give?" , "Do I belong here?" , "Can we all grow?"). (See Table 1 in Appendix C).

The GWA has been used in a variety of studies. Henderson (2006) used the GWA to assess intervention and retention in a government agency. Yancey (2005) used the GWA to predict performance. Buckingham and Coffman (1999) reported that 5 of the 12 questions in the GWA showed a link to retention: (a) "Do I know what is expected of me at work?" (b) " Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?" (c) "Do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?" (d) "Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?" (e) "At work, do my opinions seem to count?"

The GWA has been criticized by Macey and Schneider (2008) as measuring the workplace characteristics promoting employee engagement but not employee engagement itself. Furthermore, Macey and Schneider has remarked that some of the items of the GWA have traditionally been conceptualized as facets of satisfaction.

Compensation Fairness

The 2007 Employee Satisfaction Survey assessed Compensation Fairness using three questions and utilizing a 5-point Likert-type scale with options as follows: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither Agree or Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The first question—"Compared to other people doing similar work at the University, I think I am paid fairly"—assessed employees' attitudes regarding Internal Compensation. The second question—"Compared to other people doing similar work outside the University, I think I am paid fairly"—assessed employees' attitudes regarding External

Compensation. The third question—"The University's benefit programs meet my needs"—assessed employees' attitudes regarding Benefits.

Job Satisfaction

Employees' Job Satisfaction was assessed using a single question ("Overall I am satisfied with the University as a place to work").

Turnover Intent

Employees' Turnover Intent was assessed using a single question ("I have given serious thought to leaving the University in the past six months").

Demographics

Demographic information was also obtained. Length of employment was assessed with answer options as follow: "1-2 years" "3-5 years", "6-10 years", "11-20 years", "21-30 years", and "31 or more years". A simple statement obtained supervisory status--"I supervise other employees". "No" and "yes" options were available. The survey assessed exempt and non-exempt status among staff with a single question. The survey assessed tenure track among faculty using the following options: non-tenure track, tenure track, and tenured. The survey assessed place of employment with a single question: "I am employed by: _____". The survey assessed gender. It also assessed employees' age (and also cohort) using the following categories: 18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, and 56 or over. It assessed employees' race using the following categories: American Indian/Alaskan, Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/Not Hispanic, Hispanic, White/Not

Hispanic, and Other. Finally, the survey solicited comments from employees by providing a space for employees to respond.

Procedures

The questionnaire is one part of a well-executed survey (Dillman, 2000). In fact, according to Dillman (2000):

> Implementation procedures have a much greater influence on response rates. Multiple contacts, the contents of letters, appearance of envelopes, incentives, personalization, sponsorship and how it is explained, and other attributes of the communication process have a significantly greater collective capability for influencing response rates than does the questionnaire design (p. 149).

Researcher contact with those collecting the secondary data utilized in the current study indicated that elements of the Tailored Design Method (TDM) were used in order to increase the response rate and execute a more professional study. The 2007 survey was announced via a website for employees with a designated representative to contact for additional help, if needed. Employees were informed that their responses were anonymous and that individual responses were destroyed. And, therefore, nonrespondents could not be compared or examined with survey respondents. Vice President of Administration and Finance of the surveyed organization communicated with employees an invitation to participate including information on how to access the survey.

Data Collection

Those collecting the data utilized both online format and paper surveys. The use of the online format for capturing data decreased the amount of time necessary to manually enter data into a spreadsheet, decreased error associated with data entry, and decreased costs associated with the duplication of paper surveys. Paper surveys were also made available to employees lacking access to computers or who desired to complete surveys using pencil and paper. The researcher for the current study directed the secondary data into a file and imported the data into SPSS for statistical analysis with AMOS (Analysis of MOment Structures).

Missing data was sparse and spread out. To deal with data using listwise deletion of cases would result in a significant reduction of cases. Therefore, missing data was imputed and saved using Estimation Maximization.

Data Analysis

The current study utilized secondary data describing employees from an institution of higher learning to assess the mediating effects of job satisfaction and the moderating effects of age on the relationship between antecedents employee engagement and compensation fairness on the outcome variable turnover intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B for a model depicting these relationships.) For the current study, structural equation modeling was utilized to test the several models proposed by this study. Because the research addressed the moderating effects of age, a between-groups model was employed.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is similar to multiple regression but due to its simultaneous treatment of data is a more robust tool as it takes into account models of interactions, correlations, measurement and correlated error, and both multiple latent independent and dependent variables (Garson, 2008b). Moreover, SEM has several advantages including flexible assumptions, ability to test models (compared to testing individual relationships), the capacity to manage difficult data, and integral use of confirmatory factor analysis. Four or more indicators (i.e., manifest or observed variables such as items in a survey instrument) are recommended. Factor loadings of .4 may be used as the minimal effect size for a lambda weight.

In order to test the measurement and structural models as specified in the hypotheses for the current study using SEM, a two-step approach as suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was employed. While full-information estimation methods can estimate both measurement and structural submodels simultaneously, a two step approach enables confirmatory assessment of construct, convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity, then hypothesis testing use the validated constructs. Using a maximum likelihood (ML) approach, a confirmatory measurement model is used to specify the relationship of observed measures to hypothesized underlying constructs. Acceptable fit is achieved through respecification. A confirmatory structural model is used to specify the causal relations of such constructs to one another. In order to assess the structural model, a series of nested structural models are estimated using sequential chi-square difference tests. This two-step approach has been utilized by a number of

researchers in recent publications (Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Jang, 2008; Rego, Souto, & Cunha, 2009).

By all standards, sample size is adequate. While methodologists differ in their suggestions--i.e., some suggested not less than 50 cases; others suggested at least 10 cases for each instrument item; while others suggested at least 200 cases (Garson, 2008a)—the most conservative approach was reached with the minimum of 200 cases in each age group. In the present case of n = 1229 and n in each age group of interest being 225 (age 18-35), 300 (age 36-45), 381 (age 46-55), and 307 (age 56 and over), all sample size standards we could find were met. Accordingly, it followed that by the methodological standards employed there was sufficient power to test the relationships it was seeking to test.

Before the hypotheses could be addressed, the measurement models were tested for both the latent variables--Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness. Using the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA), the chi square difference test was employed to compare the fit of the final or respecified measurement (CFA) model across the target age groups. Similarly, for the 3 questions assessing Compensation Fairness by addressing Internal Compensation, External Compensation and Benefits, the chi square difference test was employed to compare model fit across age groups.

For both hypothesis 1a (i.e., Employee Engagement is inversely related to Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 1b (i.e., Compensation Fairness is inversely related to Turnover Intent) path weights of the model were tested for significance. This was the

expected result based on decades of research (Ross & Zander, 1957; Ferguson, 1958; Youngberg, 1963; Hulin, 1968; Telly et al., 1971; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Tekleab et al., 2005; Heckert & Farabee, 2006; Kim & Lee, 2007).

For hypothesis 2a (i.e., Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 2b (i.e., Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent) the process of testing mediation as prescribed by Baron and Kenny was employed. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable operates as a mediator when the following conditions are met:

> (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (i.e., Path a), (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (i.e., Path b), and (c) when Paths a and b are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path c is zero." (p. 1176)

Baron and Kenny (1986) also suggested that in order to test for mediation, the mediator should be regressed on the independent variable; the dependent variable should be regressed on the independent variable; and the dependent variable should be regressed on both the independent variable and the mediator. Using the regression equations above to establish the mediation relationship, the independent variable must be related to the

mediator; the independent variable must be related to the dependent variable; and the mediator must be related to the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, a series of structural models tested the mediation model as specified for the current study after an exploratory factor analysis established factors associated with employee engagement factors.

Finally, for hypothesis 3a (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 3b (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent), moderation was tested as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1886) where the moderator hypothesis is supported if the interaction of predictor and moderator on the outcome variable is significant. Therefore, path weights were computed and compared for invariance across the target age groups using a Chi-Square difference test.

Ethical Considerations

While the current study utilized data from a secondary source, the agency collecting data did take several ethical concerns into consideration involving the current study as suggested by Babbie (1973). Ethical concerns included the following: voluntary participation, no harm intended to participants, anonymity and confidentiality of participants ensured, and conveyance of purpose and sponsors of the study.

Concerning the purpose of the study, Coffman and Harter (1999) reported two problems with research on employee perceptions and attitudes: first, the measurement

usually lacks a well-defined purpose; and second, the measurement is perceived as way to control instead of a way to communicate and gain understanding. The purpose of the study was communicated to participants and other stakeholders via website prior to the data collection phase. Results of the study were also communicated along with major initiatives that resulted from employee responses.

Summary

The primary focus of the current study was to assess the mediating effects of job satisfaction and the moderating effects of Age on the relationship between the antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable, Turnover Intent. The current study utilized survey methodology employing self-administered questionnaires while making use of the Internet as a delivery method from the 2007 Employee Satisfaction Survey. Data used for the survey was from a secondary data source derived from faculty (n = 1,229) from a land-grant institution holding the doctoral/research-extensive classification from the Carnegie Classification and serving about 42,000 students each year with graduates totaling more than 9,000 per year. Utilizing SPSS and AMOS, data analysis tested 3 hypotheses that addressed both measurement models for Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness as well as the structural model addressing the mediating and moderating relationships. Ethical considerations were addressed.

CHAPTER IV

Data Analysis

"Pleasure in the job puts perfection in the work."

(Aristotle, 2007, The Quotations Page)

The purpose of this chapter is to present the main findings of the current study including describing the survey sample and presenting the results of the statistical analysis. The results of this study are reported in three sections: (a) descriptive statistics; (b) measurement model; and (c) structural model.

Descriptive Statistics

For faculty, descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and variance) were reported. Items had a range of 5 based on a 5 point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly agree" and 5 = "strongly disagree." These statistics may be found in Table 4 in Appendix C.

The 12 items of the Gallup Workplace Audit measuring Employee Engagement were rank ordered based on mean. The results may be found in Table 4 in Appendix C. Items with the strongest positive responses included items addressing Expectations ($\bar{x}$ = 1.64), having a Best Friend ($\bar{x}$ = 1.96), and Learn and Grow ($\bar{x}$ = 1.99). Items with the least positive responses included Opinions Count ($\bar{x}$ = 2.27), Progress/Appraisal ($\bar{x}$ = 2.38), and Recognition ($\bar{x}$ = 2.85).

Items measuring Compensation Fairness were rank ordered as well. Benefits had the most positive mean response (2.23), then Internal Compensation ($\bar{x}$ = 2.96), and finally External Compensation ($\bar{x}$ = 3.60).

Mean scores for both Turnover Intent and Job Satisfaction were also computed. Turnover Intent had a mean score of 3.04. Job Satisfaction had a mean score of 2.27.

Measurement Model

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to test the three hypotheses associated with the current study. Following the procedure recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a measurement model was first constructed in order to test the construct validity of the two latent variables: Employee Engagement had 12 items from the Gallup Workplace Audit, and Compensation Fairness had 3 items. Also, since the study proposed differences across 4 age groups, a common model was assessed simultaneously for each age group. See Figure 6 in Appendix B.

Three criteria assessed the adequacy of the measurement model. First, all latent to manifest variable regression weights were tested for both statistical and practical significance. Statistical significance was assessed at alpha = .01. Practical significance was considered met if each standardized regression weight was greater than .40 (Harman, 1976). All but one of the estimated weights met both statistical and practical significance. The estimated weight for Best Friend associated with the Employee Engagement variable met statistical significance but not practical significance. The measurement model was

revised through the deletion of the weak variable. All weights in the revised model met both statistical and practical significance. (See Tables 5 and 6 in Appendix C).

The second criterion for assessing the adequacy of the measurement model was an assessment of the overall fit of the model based on two indices. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI)—also known as the Bentler Comparative Fit Index—compares the fit of the specified model to a worst case model assuming all latent variables are uncorrelated. Bentler (1990) and Garson (2008b) recommended that a CFI index greater than .90 suggests adequate fit. The Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) assesses the degree of error associated with covariation estimates resulting from the model. RMSEA values near .05 are considered indicative of close fit, while estimates greater than .05 but less than .08 are considered adequate (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Both the original (12 and 3 item latent variables, CFI = .901, RMSEA = .040) and revised (11 and 3 item latent variables, CFI = .904, RMSEA = .042) met both of these criteria. See Table 7 in Appendix C.

A third criterion for assessing the adequacy of the measurement model was required because this research proposed structural path differences between the 4 age groups. Following Mullen (1995) and Singh (1995), the fit of the measurement model was assessed allowing all regression weights to vary independently for each group and then constraining all measurement weights to be equal for all four groups. Comparing the fit of these two models allowed determination as to whether the measures of Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness were equally appropriate for the four target age

groups. The fit of the two models was not significantly different (CMIN = 53.780 at 42 DF, P=.105); therefore, criterion 3 was met. See Table 7 in Appendix C.

Reliability coefficients were computed for both scales. Cronbach;s alpha for the 11-item Employee Engagement was .898. Cronbach's alpha for the 3-item Compensation Fairness scale was .739.

Structural Model

Continuing to follow the Anderson and Gerbing (1988) approach and upon acceptance of the measurement model, the structural model was assessed. The structural model for the current study consisted of the latent constructs Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction as a mediator, and Turnover Intent as the outcome variable (See Figure 5, Appendix B). Both Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intent were measured by single items.

Prediction of Turnover Intent

For the structural model where both latent constructs Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness served as antecedent variables for both Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intent and Job Satisfaction served as an antecedent variable for Turnover Intent, the all paths model (i.e., the model testing all paths simultaneously without constraint) was found problematic as convergence was not reached. Therefore, a reduced model (still testing all paths) was tested where Job Satisfaction was eliminated thereby testing only direct relationships from Employee Engagement to Turnover Intent and from Compensation Fairness to Turnover Intent. This reduced model addressed both

hypotheses 1a and 1b which tested the relationship between both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness on Turnover Intent. The all paths model assessing direct relationships had a CMIN of 1182.286 with DF of 396, CFI of .900, and RMSEA of .41 with PCLOSE of 1.000. All paths in this model were significant ($p<.01$). The standardized regression weights for Employee Engagement to Turnover Intent was -.42 and for Compensation Fairness to Turnover Intent was -.16. The correlation between Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness was .52. In terms of predicting Turnover Intent, Employee Engagement is a much stronger predictor of Turnover Intent than Compensation Fairness. Hypothesis 1a assessing the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent was supported due to the significance and negative value of the standardized regression weight (-.42). Likewise, hypothesis 1b assessing the relationship between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent was supported due to the significance and negative value of the standardized regression weight (-.16). Therefore, for faculty surveyed in the current study, it was concluded that both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness were both inversely related to Turnover Intent.

Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction in the Structural Model

Following Baron and Kenny (1986), both hypotheses 2a and 2b assessed the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent as well as between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent. The incomplete mediation model, looking at both models simultaneously, could not be estimated as that model is the same as the all paths model addressed earlier. However,

constraining the respective paths to be equivalent across the four age groups (no moderation) allows hypotheses 2a and 2b to be addressed. For this model assessing the mediating effects of job satisfaction CMIN was 1456.804 with 464 DF, CFI of .891, RMSEA of .042, and PCLOSE of 1.000. Following procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986), several competing models were tested assessing effects (i.e., direct effects from either antecedent variable on Turnover Intent, direct effects from both antecedent variables on Turnover Intent, effects from either antecedent variable on Job Satisfaction, effects from both antecedent variables on Job Satisfaction, and effects from Job Satisfaction to Turnover Intent). Based on CMIN, CFI, and RMSEA, the accepted model was one where Job Satisfaction was not significantly related to Turnover Intent. This finding was unexpected. For this model (i.e. no Job Satisfaction effects model), CMIN was 1457.659 with DF 465, CFI was .891, RMSEA was .042, and PCLOSE was 1.000. In a model comparison, the model where Job Satisfaction had no effect on Turnover Intent was not significantly different from the all paths no group differences model assessing the mediating effects of job satisfaction with DF of 1, CMIN of .855, and P of .355. The no Job Satisfaction effect model was selected on parsimony grounds. For the no Job Satisfaction effect model, the average standardized path weight from Employee Engagement to Job Satisfaction was .69, from Compensation Fairness to Job Satisfaction was .17, from Employee Engagement to Turnover Intent was -.44, and from Compensation Fairness to Turnover Intent was -.16. See Figure 7, Appendix B.

Both hypothesis 2a assessing Job Satisfaction as a mediator between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent and hypothesis 2b assessing Job Satisfaction as a mediator between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent were not supported. Therefore, it was concluded that Job Satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent or between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent for faculty.

Moderating Effects of Age in the Structural Model

Following Kenny and Judd (1984), both hypothesis 3a and 3b tested the moderating effects of Age on the relationships between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness with outcome variable Turnover Intent. In an assessment of competing models where group differences between the various constructs of the model were evaluated, the model where paths were constrained to be equal across groups and where Job Satisfaction did not have a significant effect on Turnover Intent demonstrated best fit and was the accepted model. For this model, CMIN was 1457.659, DF was 465, CFI was .891, and RMSEA was .042 with PCLOSE equal to 1.000. Therefore, both hypothesis 3a (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 3b (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent) were not supported, and it was concluded that Age does not moderate the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent nor between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent for this population.

Summary

After eliminating the variable Best Friend, an 11-item Employee Engagement factor and 3-item Compensation Fairness factor was confirmed in the measurement model. See Table 7 in Appendix C for a summary of measurement models. Concerning the structural model, both factors were significantly and inversely related to Turnover Intent. Both factors were significantly and positively related to Job Satisfaction. Job Satisfaction was not found significantly related to Turnover Intent. And, the variable Age was not found to moderate the relationships. See Table 8 in Appendix C for a summary of structural models. See Table 9 in Appendix C for a summary of hypotheses and findings.

CHAPTER V

Conclusion and Recommendations

"So here's what I want you to do, God helping you: Take your everyday, ordinary life—your sleeping, eating, going-to-work, and walking-around life—and place it before God as an offering. Embracing what God does for you is the best thing you can do for him."

(Romans 12:1, The Message, Gospel Communications International, 2009)

Conclusion

The American workforce is changing due to retiring babyboomers, lengthening life span, changing ethnic makeup of workers, the evolving family life cycle, decreasing educational level, and other external factors, thus, creating a "workforce crisis" for American businesses and organizations (Dychtwald, et al., 2006). The voluntary turnover of workers seeking to find better jobs further exacerbates the shortage of skilled laborers (Dychtwald, et al, 2006; Jamrog, 2004). Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals are in a position to ready their organizations for these changes by ensuring the organizational culture is conducive to employee retention and employee engagement. Even within the context of higher education, HRD professionals may be useful in encouraging retention by creating an engaging environment, thus softening the blow of the nearly 50% of faculty speculated to retire before 2015 (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006).

Findings

The current study had a number of findings that were of importance, some revealing of the faculty and the organization for which they work others contradictory to findings in the related literature. Simple means were rather revealing of the faculty surveyed. While all the means for Employee Engagement items were positive (i.e., faculty agreed with the statements), none were particularly high with several approaching mid-range (e.g., Recognition, Progress/Appraisal, Opinions Count, Mission, and Development). Suggestions are made below under "Recommendations for Practice" for techniques that can be used to improve these scores. As far as the more positive scores, these included Expectations, Best friend, and Learn and Grow.

Even more revealing were the scores for both Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intent. For Job Satisfaction, the mean was 2.27 indicating that overall faculty agreed with the statement but leaned toward a mid-range response. This finding could be considered fairly positive as some researchers have reported that employees are disclosing some of the highest levels of dissatisfaction in years (Jamrog, 2004).

Concerning Turnover Intent, faculty was mid-range in their response. With a mean of 3.04 on a 5 point Likert-type scale, this response was somewhat troubling to the researcher. It is important to note that data collection occurred before the recent recession and tightening of the purse springs at this university. Therefore, the question remains as to how many employees have disengaged themselves from their job because they want to move to a new job but are unable to do so given today's current economic conditions.

For the measurement model for Employee Engagement (Buckingham et al., 1999), an 11-item model was accepted that eliminated the variable Best Friend as measured by the GWA item “I have a best friend at work”. This finding was not entirely surprising when the related job characteristics of a faculty member were considered. While faculty are hired to work with students (i.e., teaching, advising, etc.), there are other components of their job, such as research and service, that offer opportunities for faculty to develop friendships. For example, attending academic conferences and workshops across the academy (not university) and reviewing works for publication—interprofessional collaboration—allows these friendships occasion to grow. This networking across the U.S. for the purposes of research and service is essential to the success of American faculty in academia and further differentiates academic faculty from those in higher education. Second, faculty in higher education may transfer several times across the length of their career from institution to institution of higher education necessitating relocations—many of great distance—of their families. Faculty who relocate any significant distance are likely to have no (or few, at best) friends at their new location. Therefore, because faculty are focused on students and may relocate in order to maintain employment (or improve employment status) having a best friend at work may not be as important a characteristic as it would be for someone in a non-academic career who may choose to apply for a new job across town in order to be with his or her friends.

For this same measurement model for the latent construct Employee Engagement, manifest variables Care (i.e., “My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about

me as a person"), Development (i.e., "There is someone at work who encourages my development"), and Opinions Count (i.e., "At work my opinions seem to count") were found to load consistently high across all 4 target age groups as evidenced by their standard regression weights (see Table 5, Appendix C). This finding seems to imply that, for faculty, whether they "matter" to someone and have "meaning" to others in their role as faculty is important to them (Kahn, 1990; Ledford & Lucy, 2002; May et al., 2004). Since faculty spend time supporting the academic growth and development of their students, it is surmised that it is important that someone show them support on a personal level (Smith & Stevens, 1992), support for training and growth (Greenhaus, et al., 1990), and support for their ideas (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

For hypothesis 1a (i.e., Employee Engagement is inversely related to Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 1b (i.e., Compensation Fairness is inversely related to Turnover Intent), it was concluded that both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness are both inversely related to Turnover Intent. That is, as Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness go up, Turnover Intent for faculty goes down. This finding was consistent with previous theory (i.e., one's evaluation of current job is inversely related to Turnover Intent; see Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980) as well as decades of research (Ross & Zander, 1957; Ferguson, 1958; Youngberg, 1963; Hulin, 1968; Tell et al, 1971; Gupta & Beehr, 1979; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Buckingham & Coffman, 1999; Tekleab et al, 2005; Heckert & Farabee, 2006; EKim & Lee, 2007). And, with standardized regression weights at -.42 and -.16

respectively, Employee Engagement is a much stronger antecedent of Turnover Intent than Compensation Fairness for this population of faculty in higher education. Or, said another way, for this population, salary is not nearly as important as the characteristics of the work environment that encourage them to become engaged in what they do. These results are somewhat consistent with the Segal Group's (2007) Rewards of Work study involving faculty in higher education which determined that compensation was cited less often than work content (i.e., meaningfulness, feedback, and variety; see Ledford & Lucy, 2002; The Segal Group, Inc., 2006d) and affiliation (i.e., work environment, trust, and variety) as important for retention.

For hypothesis 2a (i.e., Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 2b (i.e., Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between the antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent), it was concluded that Job Satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent or between Compensation Fairness and Turnover Intent. This finding was quite unexpected as Job Satisfaction is presented as a precursor to Turnover Intent in both theory (see Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Mobley et al., 1979; Muchinsky & Morrow, 1980) and the general research literature (see Youngblood, et al., 1983; Shulz, et al., 1987; Weiberg, et al., 1991; Hellman, 1997; Lum, et al., 1998; Bernthal, et al., 2000). The author speculated this finding could be due to several reasons. First, the failure of the variable Job Satisfaction to mediate the relationship may be due to the current study's

investigation into a unique population—faculty as an occupational group—whose satisfaction with their job is based on their work environment (i.e., their work environment is conducive to them doing what they do best—research, instruction, service—and they are satisfied with this) and the fairness of their pay. They do not intend to turnover when their perceptions of the engagement climate and fairness of pay are positive. But, they do not choose to stay or go based simply on their level of Job Satisfaction. Second, the failure of the variable Job Satisfaction to mediate the relationships between both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent may be due to the specificity of the wording (of the lack, thereof) of the survey item assessing Job Satisfaction (i.e., "Overall, I am satisfied with *the* University as a place to work"). The definite article "the" may be misleading to participants who perhaps read the survey item as "Overall, I am satisfied with *any University* as a place to work" as opposed to the implied "Overall, I am satisfied with *this particular University* as a place to work." For participants who are satisfied with their career choice of faculty at a university, their response to their intent to leave this university is understandably unrelated.

For both hypothesis 3a (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Employee Engagement and outcome variable Turnover Intent) and hypothesis 3b (i.e., Age moderates the relationship between antecedent Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent), it was concluded that Age does not moderate the relationship between Employee Engagement and Turnover Intent nor between Compensation Fairness

and Turnover Intent. This finding was also unexpected as the hypothesized relationship was built on both theory and research. Theoretically, both Super's Life-Span, Life-Space Theory and Generational Cohort Theory were used to offer support for the argument that Age would moderate the relationship through both age effects and cohort effects respectively. Super's theory (also called Theory of Career Development) has put forward that at the various career stages (i.e., Growth, Exploration, Establishment, Maintenance, and Decline), an individual can be characterized by particular attitudes and behaviors (Pietrofesa & Splete, 1975). Generational Cohort Theory described ways in which social cohorts could impose age-related effects on cross-sectional data through social cohorts based on birth years, size, structure, social events, leaders, and values (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Zemke et al., 2000; Deal, 2007). With regards to research, several researchers (Rhodes, 1983; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; for example) have suggested that there are certainly age-related differences in the work attitudes and behaviors of workers. Based on their work with the GWA, Jones and Harter suggested that age could be a potential moderator. Additionally, researchers such as Lachman and Diamant (1987) have suggested that age is a restraining factor that keeps employees on the job and, therefore, decreases turnover intent. Finally, Dychtwald et al. (2006) reported that mature workers had the highest levels of engagement. Yet, in spite of the backing of both theory and research, age-related differences were not seen.

In an effort to better understand the failure of age to moderate the prescribed relationships, a post hoc ANOVA was conducted comparing means across target age

groups for both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness scales as well as Job Satisfaction and outcome variable Turnover Intent. Results indicated that Age was not a factor influencing any of these variables as all F Scores were non-significant. (See Table 10 in Appendix C). Therefore, it was concluded that age was not a factor influencing these variables for faculty in higher education. Explanations for this failure to find the expected age-related differences may be in the instrumentation's lack of sensitivity to the variable Age.

Significance of the Study

While the study found no evidence for the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction nor the moderating effects of Age, the study did prove significant in several ways. First, it extended previous conceptualizations of turnover intent by incorporating both employee engagement and compensation fairness as an antecedent of turnover intent and demonstrated evidence for the same. Little research has done this, especially with a unique population like faculty. Second, the study confirmed the use of the Gallup Workplace Audit with faculty, albeit with minor alterations.

Objectives of the Study Satisfied

The study satisfied the objectives of the study by:

- Testing the measurement models for both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness. (See Figures 3 and 4 in Appendix B).

- Testing the prediction of the outcome variable Turnover Intent by antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).
- Testing the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).
- Testing the moderating effect of Age on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. (See Figure 5 in Appendix B).

Improvements Made to Employee Engagement Literature

One improvement for better understanding the Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) is the link between the 12 items of the GWA with related concepts in the literature. This task was not satisfactorily presented when the GWA was first published in Buckingham and Coffman (1999). The current study addressed this problem linking the 12 items to several prominent concepts and surveys commonly used in the literature. See Table 2 in Appendix C.

Study LimitationsThere are a number of limitations to the current study. The limitations of the study are addressed below:

The study utilized secondary data, which has its limitations including lack of control over methodological concerns such as selection of sample from the population and instrumentation. First, the study was limited by the selection of the sample. While a

random sample could have been drawn, instead a convenience sample was used which certainly could have impacted the types of responses received from respondents. For example, employees that were concerned that information may be used against them may have chosen not to respond.

Next, the study was limited by instrumentation. The Gallup Workplace Audit has appeared relatively recently in the literature (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999) and for use among non-Gallup researchers. The latent construct Compensation Fairness was assessed with only three items resulting in just identification. Turnover Intent and Job Satisfaction were assessed with only one item. Hence, more grounded instrumentation would have been desirable, like the Utrecht which will be further discussed later under the section "Recommendations for Future Research."

While these are certainly valid concerns, secondary data can be a useful source of information. Much research has been conducted on turnover in the past 30 years with the general conclusion that affect influences subsequent behavior (Clegg, 1983). This conclusion is evident in the various theories developed to explain turnover with most theories or models generally falling into two categories (Maertz & Campion, 2004): first, process models of turnover (i.e., Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979) endeavor to explain how people quit via a linear decision sequence frequently involving job satisfaction and, second, content models of turnover (Maertz & Campion, 2004) endeavor to explain why people quit (i.e., their motivations for quitting). While Maertz and Campion cautioned that the reliance on the use of any single model to explain

turnover risks deficiency, the researcher acknowledges that the current study's general adherence to a process model of turnover (e.g., Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action) is a limitation of the current study.

Responses of subjects limited the results of the study. Particularly, the freedom that subjects felt in disclosing their beliefs about their work climate may have limited the responses of the subjects and, therefore, the results of the study.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, recommendations were made for both future research and practice. Recommendations follow.

Recommendations for Future Research

While every study has its strengths, weakness, limitations, and findings, this study is no different. Recommendations for future research are included that address needs regarding the Gallup Workplace Audit, measurement of job satisfaction, and measurement of turnover intent including such measurement during times of various economic conditions.

The first recommendation for future research is to further examine The Gallup Workplace Audit (GWA) should be further examined. There are several reasons for this. First, the GWA lacks significant scholarly research yet appears rather extensively in the consulting literature. Therefore, the psychometric properties of the GWA should be examined in scholarly research. Second, the GWA should be confirmed for use with a number of different population groups (i.e., career, demographic, etc.) as the current

study demonstrated the 12-item employee engagement scale could not be confirmed to be used with faculty in this study without first omitting the variable best friend. Third, the relationships between employee engagement and other variables should be explored and expanded.

The second recommendation is to incorporate an instrument that assesses employee engagement (i.e., vigor and absorbency of employees into their work). While the current study focused on employee engagement as measured by the Gallup Workplace Audit which assesses workplace characteristics that are purported to encourage employee engagement, employee engagement (i.e., the passion one has for his or her job) is frequently assessed using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), a self-report instrument measuring engagement across vigor (e.g., "When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work" [p. 302]), dedication (e.g., "I am enthusiastic about my job" [p. 302]), and absorption. (e.g., "When I am working I forget everything else around me" [p. 302]) (Schaufeli et al., 2004). The UWES has demonstrated good internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha ranging from .80 to .90 (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Future research may benefit from using both the GWA and the UWES together as it has proven to be a meaningful and grounded instrument (Schaufeli, et al., 2004; Schaufeli, et al., 2006). Specifically, future studies could examine the relationship between the 12 items of the GWA and the UWES. Differences in responses to the GWA across various demographic groups (i.e., gender, age, etc.) as well as between satisfied

and engaged employees and dissatisfied and unengaged employee (i.e., “time bandits;” see Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008) may also be examined.

A third area for suggested future research (also practice) is the application of the employee engagement scale to other institutions such as churches, volunteer organizations, marriages, families, and even schools. For example, concerning schools, can the Gallup Workplace Audit be rewritten for research and application in schools to address attendance and dropout issues? For students, questions could be rephrased as follows: “Do you know what is expected of you at school in the classroom?” “Do you have the clothes, transportation, materials, and supplies to come to school and do your work?” “In the last week, have you received recognition for doing good work?” “At schools, does someone seem to care about you as a person?” With the advent of No Child Left Behind, many schools are scrambling to reduce dropout rates in order to increase graduation rates. Engaging hard-to-reach students in the learning process is a difficult task that could potentially benefit from reframing the Gallup Workplace Audit to fit the academic domain.

A fourth recommendation made is to repeat the current study in order to better understand the failure of Job Satisfaction to mediate the relationship between manifest variables Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and outcome variable Turnover Intent as this finding was contrary to both theory and research and, therefore, unexpected. One explanation of this unexpected finding involved the use of the particular item assessing job satisfaction that may be misleading to participants. Future research

may benefit on the use of a different single-item measure of job satisfaction or on the use of a scale assessing the multidimensionality of job satisfaction such as Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Index.

Finally, it was recommended that the job satisfaction-turnover intent relationship be examined in light of economic conditions. The turnover model proposed by Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) predicted that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is moderated by economic conditions of the time. Specifically, in times of plenty, employees are more likely to turnover if they are not satisfied with their job. And, in times of recession or high unemployment, employees are more likely to maintain their present employment. While the American economy has taken a turn for the worse in recent months, the data collected for this study was just prior to this downward turn. However, this change in economic conditions is suggestive of some interesting research questions. For example, how do economic turns (i.e., positive or negative) affect the prediction of turnover intent by employee engagement and compensation fairness?

Recommendations for Practice

The problem of turnover is not always addressed effectively even though human resource professionals consider it problematic. Bernthal and Wellins (2000) reported that greater than 1/3 of human resource professionals they surveyed saw retention as a pressing issue, and almost half of organizations interviewed had no formal strategy for addressing the problem of retention. On the practical side, the examination of an employee's turnover intent allows the opportunity for human resources to take a

proactive approach to increasing retention and delaying turnover in an organization as opposed to gleaning the same information from an exit interview associated with a voluntary turnover.

Based on the findings of this study, Employee Engagement is a much larger antecedent of Turnover Intent than Compensation Fairness for faculty in the current study. Therefore, it stands to reason that human resources and management at all levels can decrease turnover intent by increasing employee engagement, at least among faculty. The following paragraphs take the 12 variables of the employee engagement scale (i.e., Gallup Workplace Audit) in reverse rank order (i.e., lowest scored to highest scored) and make recommendations for increasing employee engagement in each of the areas as it stands to reason that the biggest differences in increasing employee engagement can occur when the poorest scores are raised.

Recognition

Recognition (i.e., "In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work") had the lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean. Therefore, improving Recognition can be important in increasing the overall Employee Engagement score. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Recognition:

- Recognize faculty formally in celebratory events. Do so frequently (Seigts & Crim, 2003).
- Recognize faculty at the university, college, and departmental level.

- Congratulate faculty in university, college, and/or departmental newsletters for professional achievements.
- Offer tangible rewards for service and professional achievements such as preferred parking, sporting events tickets, etc.
- Recognize in faculty meetings things that employees do well, both small and large (Trivette, 1990).
- Informally acknowledge faculty successes in conversations, phone calls, emails, etc. (Campion, 1988) by offering praise for jobs well done (Oldham & Cummings, 1996).
- Recognize workers weekly.
- Nominate faculty for awards when appropriate.

Progress/Appraisal

Holding the second lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean, Progress/Appraisal (i.e., "In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress") can also be a critical factor in increasing the overall Employee Engagement score. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Progress/Appraisal:

- Complete job evaluations twice a year. One may be formal, the other more informal. Document both meetings.
- Tell faculty exactly where they stand (Roznowski, 1989) but provide constructive feedback rich in content and delivered in a timely manner

(Michael et al., 2006) in an effort to move them to where you want them to go.

- Provide performance coaching for faculty. That is, provide both formal and informal feedback from various individuals within an organization about performance on the job (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). Consider the use of a coach or mentor separate from one's direct report to whom the faculty member may ask questions or can discuss various issues without fear of disciplinary action.
- Allow employees to establish goals and benchmarks for achieving those goals and provide opportunities for self-evaluation and reporting.

Opinions Count

Opinions Count (i.e., "At work my opinions seem to count") had the third lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean but had one of the highest factor loadings on the variable Employee Engagement. Therefore, improving Opinions Count can also be important in increasing the overall Employee Engagement score. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Opinions Count:

- Give attention to employees' opinions (Cook et al., 1981), especially those that directly affect them (Kahn et al., 1964).
- Give all employees a chance to voice their concerns without retaliation or punitive action.

- Conduct Town Hall Forums, Focus Groups, and Communities of Practice to allow faculty to voice their opinion.
- Set ground rules for appropriate behavior in department meetings. Monitor collegiality in meetings to ensure all have equal voice and no one is publicly criticized for their opinion.

Mission

The fourth lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean was Mission (i.e., "The mission/purpose of the University makes me feel my job is important"). Improving the variable Mission can also be important in increasing the overall Employee Engagement score. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Mission:

- Include faculty in an effort to discuss, revise, and communicate the mission of the organization.
- Make the goals of the organization clear (Spector, 1997) by including them in various media (i.e., newsletters, email, and websites).
- Post these goals.
- Show faculty the significance of their job (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) in relation to organizational objectives (Ivancevich et al., 1980).
- Align mission statements with job duties and include on faculty's job description.

Development

Development (i.e., "There is someone at work who encourages my development") had the fifth lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean but had one of the highest factor loadings on the variable Employee Engagement. Therefore, improving Development can also be important in increasing the overall Employee Engagement score. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Development:

- Take the time to learn about the career goals and aspirations of faculty members.
- Make faculty aware of career opportunities within the university.
- Encourage faculty to develop new skills (Oldham & Cummings, 1996).
- Support faculty's attempts to obtain additional training and education by offering seed funding for workshops and new course preparation.
- Offer special projects to increase the faculty members' visibility within the university (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990).

Materials

The variable Materials (i.e., "I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right") had the next lowest score in a rank ordering of the variables comprising Employee Engagement based on mean. The author recommended the following to improve the score for Materials:

- Provide faculty with access to needed materials and equipment (Rentsch & Steel, 1992).
- Regularly ask faculty to consider what materials may help them better perform their jobs.
- Expose faculty to new technology and resources that they may be able to use in the classroom to say on the cutting edge.
- Offer support for materials and equipment use including specific training, if necessary.

Opportunity

Next was Opportunity (i.e., "At work I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day"). The author recommended the following to improve the score for Opportunity:

- Determine faculty's specific abilities and skills (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).
- Consult with faculty to identify barriers that hinder their ability to maximize their potential.
- Give faculty opportunities to use their abilities and skills (Weiss et al., 1967), but don't overwhelm faculty by imposing too many extra assignments on them.
- Create teams that include people with a variety of skills so that each will have a chance to contribute.

Quality Work

Although Quality Work (i.e., "My co-workers are committed to doing quality work") was the fifth highest score, the author recommended the following to improve the score for Quality Work:

- Ensure all faculty are pulling their weight (Spector, 1997).
- Offer support in the form of training to those with difficulty completing their job competently.
- Be open regarding responsibilities and tasks so that accurate assessments of workload are made.
- Offer seed funding for those faculty developing new courses or overhauling current courses to ensure quality education for students and quality performance on behalf of faculty.
- Initiate continuous improvement techniques in each department.
- Avoid the temptation to reward high quality work with additional responsibilities.

Care

While Care (i.e., "My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person") received the fourth highest score, it still deserves to be maintained and even improved upon as it had one of the highest factor loadings on the variable Employee Engaegment. The author made the following recommendations to improve Care:

- Support faculty by caring, listening, helping, and protecting them (Baruch-Feldman, et al., 2002).
- Affirm, support, respect, and trust faculty (Curran, 1983).
- Offer special favors from time to time if needed (i.e., time off, early leave, excused tardiness, etc.) (Eisenberger et al., 1986).
- Get to know your subordinates (BlessingWhite, 2008).
- Provide an ombudsman to mitigate differences between the university and faculty.

Learn and Grow

Learn and Grow (i.e., "This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow") was the third highest score. The following recommendation may improve or maintain this factor:

- Offer personal growth and development opportunities (Hackman & Oldham, 1974).
- Offer opportunities to learn new things (Frese et al., 1996) and opportunities to develop and strengthen new skills (Greenhaus et al. (1990).Communicate with faculty that it is acceptable to explore creative and less traditional outlets for personal growth and development.
- Offer seed monies for faculty to attend workshops and conferences to develop new skills associated with their position.

Best Friend

At second highest, Best Friend (i.e., “I have a good friend at work”) was removed from the Employee Engagement scale due to being a weak variable. Rationalizations for this occurrence have been offered. Nevertheless, steps can be made to improve the workplace for the employee. The author suggested the following:

- Endorse faculty’s need to interact (Sims et al., 1976).
- Allow time to make and maintain friendships through communication, showing care, and encouragement.
- Organize events outside the university setting to encourage friendships among faculty (for example, family picnics).

Expectations

Coming in with the highest mean, Expectations (i.e., “I know what is expected of me at work”) should not be overlooked. The author made the following suggestions to continue to maintain or even improve the Expectations score:

- Explain work assignments fully (Spector, 1997).
- Create clear goals and objectives for faculty (House, Schuler, & Levanoni, 1983).
- Expectations should be articulated from day one and reviewed periodically. Include information about expectations regarding time spent in the office to service-related duties to teaching to scholarly activities.
- Allow faculty to have input in creating their job descriptions.

Each of the before mentioned recommendations can be implemented rather easily in this university without adding significantly to their bottom line. Many of the recommendations can be implemented at no cost. Thus, in times of a dismal economy, actions can still be taken to improve employee morale and increase the retention rates of faculty, even without providing salary increases.

Summary

In sum, the current study assessed the moderating effects of Age and the mediating effects of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness and the outcome variable Turnover Intent. The theory of reasoned action and a theoretical framework for examining age-effects on employee attitudes were used as the theoretical underpinnings for the study. The study utilized a secondary data set including faculty (n = 1,229). Findings confirmed that 11 of the 12 items of the Gallup Workplace Audit loaded on the Employee Engagement factor. Findings also confirmed a 3-item solution for the Compensation Fairness factor. Both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness demonstrated an inverse relationship with Turnover Intent as expected. Job Satisfaction was found not to mediate the relationship between both Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness with the outcome variable Turnover Intent. Finally, Age was not found to moderate the relationship between antecedent variables and Turnover Intent. Recommendations were made for future research and practice.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intention to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl, & J. Beckman (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 179-211.

Albarracín, D., Johnson, B. T., Fishbein, M., Meullerleile, P. A. (2001). Theories of reasoned action and planned behavior as models of condom use: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(1), 142-161.

Alewweld, T., & von Bismarck, W. B. (2002/2003). Europe's different levels of employee 'engagement'. *EBF, 12*, 66-69.

Ambrose, S., Huston, T., & Norman, M. (2005). A qualitative method for assessing faculty satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education, 46(7)*, 803-830.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3): 411-423.

Armenia, A., Gerstel, N. (2006). Family leaves, the FMLA and gender neutrality: the intersection of race and gender. *Social Science Research, 35*(4), 871-891.

Arnold, H. J., & Feldman, D. C. (1982). A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*, 350-360.

Babbie, E. R. (1973). *Survey research methods*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Bacharach, S., Bamberger, P., & Conley, S. (1991). Work –home conflict among nurses and engineers: Mediating the impact of role stress on burnout and satisfaction with Work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 12*, 39-53.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B., Schreurs, P. J. G. (2003). A multigroup analysis of the job demands-resources model in four home care organizations. *International Journal of Stress Management, 10(*1), 16-38.

Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2007). An organizational and social psychological perspective on burnout and work engagement. In M. Hewstone, J. Schut, J. de Wit, K. van den Bos & M. Stroebe (eds.), *The Scope of Social Psychology: Theory and Applications*. (pp. 229-252). Andover, UK: Psychology Press.

Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Demerouti, E., Janssen, P. P. M., Van Der Hulst, R., & Brouwer, J. (2000). Using equity theory to examine the difference between burnout and depression. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping, 13,* 247-268.

Baldwin, T. T., & Ford, J. K. (1988) Transfer of training: A review and directions for future research. Personnel Psychology, 41, 63-105.

Balfour, D., & Wechsler, B. (1996). Organizational commitment: Antecedents and outcomes in public organizations. *Productivity and Management Review, 29*, 256-277.

Bannister, B. D., & Griffeth, R. W. (1986). Applying a causal analytic framework to the Mobley, Horner, and Hollingworth (1978) turnover model: A useful reexamination. *Journal of Management, 12*, 433-443.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

Bates, S. (2004). Getting Engaged. *HR Magazine, January*, 44-51.

Bell, M. P., Harrison, D. A., & McLaughlin, M. E. (2000). Forming, changing, and acting on attitude toward affirmative action programs in employment: A theory-driven approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(5), 784-798.

Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 238-246.

Bernthal, P. R., & Wellins, R. S. (2000). Retaining talent: A benchmarking study. *Development Dimensions International (DDI).* Retrieved February 15, 2007, from www.ddiworld.com/pdf/cpgn60.pdf.2000.

Bhuian, S. N. (2004). Career stage effects on job characteristic-job satisfaction relationships among guest worker salespersons. Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, June 22, 2004. Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.allbusiness.com/human-resources/employee-development/360282-1.html

Bland, C. J., & Bergquist, W. H. (1997). The vitality of senior faculty members: Snow on the roof—fire in the furnace. *Higher Education Reports, 25*(7), 1-139.

Bland, C. J., Center, B. A., Finstad, D. A., Risbey, K. R., & Staples, J. (2006). The impact of appointment type on the productivity and commitment of full-time faculty in research and doctoral institutions. *The Journal of Higher Education, 77*(1), 89-123.

BlessingWhite, Inc. (2008). The state of employee engagement 2008: North American overview. Retrieved September 28, 2009, from www.blessingwhite.com/research.

Bliss, W. G. (n.d.). Cost of Employee Turnover. *The Advisor*. Retrieved February 11, 2008 from http://isquare.com/turnover.htm

Bluedorn, A. C. (1982) A unified model of turnover from organizations. *Human Relations, 35*, 135-153.

Boswell, W. R., Boudreau, J. W., & Tichy, J. (2005). The relationship between employee job change and job satisfaction: The honeymoon-hangover effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(*5), 882-892.

Boyd, J. B. (1961). Interests of engineers related to turnover, selection, and management. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 45*, 143-149.

Branham, L. (2005). *The 7 Hidden Reasons Employees Leave: How to Recognize the Subtle Signs and Act Before It's Too Late*. New York, New York: American Management Association.

Breukelen, W. V., Van Der Vlist, R., & Steensma, J. (2004). Voluntary employee turnover: Combining variables from the 'traditional' turnover literature with the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*, 893-914.

Brief, A. P. (1998). *Attitudes In and Around Organizations.* Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA.

Bright, M. L. (2002). Job satisfaction as an indicator for retention of new community college instructional faculty. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 63*(05), 1635.

Brown, W. A., & Yoshioka, C. F. (2003). Mission attachment and satisfaction as factors in employee retention. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 14*(1), 5-18.

Buckingham, M., & Coffman, C. (1999). *First, Break All The Rules*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). *Structural Equation modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Application, and Programming.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Campion, M. A. (1988). Interdisciplinary approaches to job design: A constructive replication with extensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 467-481.

Carmeli, A., & Weisberg, J. (2006). Exploring turnover intentions among three professional groups of employees. *Human Resource Development International, 9(*2), 191-206.

Carnegie, D. (1936). *How to Win Friends and Influence People*. New York: Pocket Books.

Carsten, J. M., & Spector, P. E. (1987). Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(3), 374-381.

Casper, W. J., Fox, K. E., Sitzmann, T. M., and Landy, A. L. (2004). Supervisor referrals to work-family programs. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 9*(2), 136-151.

Clark, R. L., d'Ambrosio, M. B. (2005). Recruitment, retention, and retirement: Compensation and employment policies for higher education. *Education Gerontology, 31*, 385-403.

Clegg, C. W. (1983). Psychology of employee lateness, absence, and turnover: A methodological critique and an empirical study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(1), 88-101.

Clugston, M. (2000). The mediating effects of multidimensional commitment on job satisfaction and intent to leave. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*, 477-486.

Coaching, mentoring help retain employees. (2007). *Strategic Finance, 89*(6), 17.

Coffman, C., & Harter, J. (1999). A hard look at soft numbers: The relationship between employee perceptions and business outcomes. *Linking Attitudes to Outcomes.* Retrieved February 15, 2007 from http://www.talentmattersct.com/A%20Hard%20Look%20at%20Soft%20Numbers

Cook, J. D., Hepworth, S J, Wall, T D., & Warr, P. B. (1981). *The experience of work: A compendium of 249 measures and their use.* London: Academic Press.

Couper, M. P. (2000). Web surveys: A review of issues and approaches. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 64,* 464-494.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cropanzano, R., Howes, J. C., Grandey, A. A., & Toth, P. (1997). The relationship or organizational politics and support to work behaviors, attitudes, and stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18*, 159-180.

Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Konovsky, M. A. (1993). Dispositional affectivity as a predictor of work attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*, 595-606.

Crossley, C. D., Bennett, R. J., Jex, S. M., & Burnfield, J. L. (2007). Development of a global measure of job embeddedness and integration into a traditional model of voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 1031-1042.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. New York: Harper.

Curran, D. (1983). *Traits of a Healthy Family*. Minneapolis: Winston Press.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(*6), 1241-1255.

Dalal, R. S., Brummel, B. J., Wee, S., & Thomas, L. L. (2008). Defining employee engagement for productive research and practice. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology,* 1, 52-55.

Dalessio, A., Silverman, W. J., & Schuck, J. R. (1986). Paths to turnover: a review of existing data on the Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth turnover model. *Human Relations, 39*, 245-263.

Daly, C. J., & Dee, J. R. (2006). Green pastures: faculty turnover intent in urban public universities. *The Journal of High Education, 77(5),* 776-803.

Deal, J. J. (2007). *Retiring the generation gap: How employees young and old can find common ground*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dee, J. R. (2004). Turnover intent in an urban community college: Strategies for faculty retention. Community College *Journal of Research & Practice, 28*(7), 593-607.

DeLong, T. J., Gabarro, J. J., & Lees, R. J. (2008). Why mentoring matters in a hypercompetitive world. *Harvard Business Review, January 2008*, 115-121.

Deluga, R. J. (1991). The relationship of subordinate upward-influencing behavior, health care manager interpersonal stress, and performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 21*(1), 78-88/

Demerouti, E. (2006). Job characteristics, flow, and performance: The moderating role of conscientiousness. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 11(*3), 266-280.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86(*3), 499-512.

Dessler, G. (2000). *Human Resource Management, 8th ed*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.Dickerson, B. R., (2004). Employee participation in defined benefit and defined contribution plans, 1985-2000. Retrieved July 26, 2007, from http://www.bls.gov

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method. (* 2nd ed.). New Work: John Wiley & Sons.

Dittrich, J. E., & Carrell, M. R. (1979). Organizational equity perceptions, employee job satisfaction, and departmental absence and turnover rates. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24,* 29-40.

Dormann, C., & Zapf, D. (2001). Job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of stabilities. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*, 483-504.

Dorman, P. (1995). Idaho benefits survey: implied compliance with the Pregnancy Discrimination Act. *Social Sciences Journal, 32(*1), 17-34.

Doyle, W. R. (2008). The Baby Boomers as Faculty: What will they leave behind? *Change, November –December.* Dychtwald, K., Erickson, T. J., & Morison, R. (2006). *Workforce Crisis: How to Beat the Coming Shortage of Skills and Talent.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Dychtwald, K., & Flower, J. (1989). Age Wave. Los Angeles, CA: Jeremy P. Tarcher.

Ecclesiastes 2:24. New International Version. (2007). Gospel Communications International. Retrieved July 27, 2007, from http://www.biblegateway.com

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(1), 51-59.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchinson, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 500-507.

Eisenstat, R. A., & Felner, R. D., (1984). Toward a differentiated view of burnout: Personal and organizational mediators of job satisfaction and stress. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 12*(4), 411-430.

Elçi, M., Kitapçi, H., & Ertürk, A. (2007). Effects of quality culture and corporate ethical values on employee work attitudes and job performance in Turkey: An integrative approach. *Total Quality Management, 18*(3), 285-302.

Elliot, R. L. (1993). Patient dumping, COBRA, and the public psychiatric hospital. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry, 44(*2), 155-158.

Ellis, C. M., & Sorensen, A. (2007). Assessing employee engagement: The key to improving productivity. *Perspectives, 15(*1).

Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.

Evan, W. M. (1963). Peer-group interaction and organizational socialization: A study of employee turnover. *American Sociological Review, 28*, 436-440.

Evans, M. G., Kiggundu, M. N., & House, R. J. (1979). A partial test and extension of the job characteristics model of motivation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24,* 354-381.

Farkas, A. J., & Tetrick, L. E. (1989). A three-wave longitudinal analysis of the causal ordering of satisfaction and commitment on turnover decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(6): 855-868.

Farris, G. F. (1971). A predictive study of turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 24*, 311-328.

Fazekas, A., Senn, C. Y., Ledgerwood, D. M. (2001). Predictors of intention to use condoms among university women: An application and extension of the theory of planned behavior. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 33*(2), 103-117.

Ferguson, L. W. (1958). Life insurance interest, ability and termination of employment. *Personnel Psychology, 11*, 189-193.

Fields, D. L. (2002). *Taking the measure of work: A guide to validated scales for organizational research and diagnosis.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior. An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fisher, W. A., Fisher, J. D, & Rye, B. J. (1995). Understanding and promoting AIDS-preventive behavior: Insights from the theory of reasoned action. *Health Psychology, 14*(*3*), 255-264.

Fleishman, E. A., & Harris, E. F. (1962). Patterns of leadership behavior related to employee grievances and turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 15*, 43-56.

Frank, F. D., Finnegan, R. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2004). The race for talent: Retaining and engaging workers in the 21st century. *Human Resource Planning, 27*(3),12-25.

Frese, M., Kring, W., Soose, A., & Zempel, J. (1996). Personal initiative at work: Difference between East and West Germany. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(1), 37-64.

Garson, G. D. (2008a). Factor Analysis. Retrieved February 11, 2008, from www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/factor.htm

Garson, G. D. (2008b). Structural Equation Modeling. Retrieved February 11, 2008, from www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/factor.htm

General Electric Company, Behavioral Research Service. *Attitudes associated with turnover of high regarded employees*. Crotonville, N.Y.: Author.

Gerbasi, J. B. (2003). Managed care an ERISA: Synopsis and case law review. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the law, 31(*3), 364-371.

Gladding, S. T. (1995). *Family Therapy: History, Theory, and Practice*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Glandon, S., & Glandon, T. A. (2001). Faculty turnover and salary compression in business schools: Comparing teaching and research missions. *The Journal of Applied Business Research, 17*(2), 33-40.

Glick, N. L. (1992). Job satisfaction among academic administrators. *Research in Higher Education, 33(5)*, 625-639.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Doubleday Anchor.

Goffman, E. (1961a). *Encounters: Two studies in the sociology of interaction* .Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.

Goffman, E. (1961b). *Asylums*. New York: Doubleday Anchor.

González-Romá, V., Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. & Lloret, S. (2006). Burnout and engagement: Independent factors or opposite poles? *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68,* 165-174.

Grawitch, M. J., Trares, S., Kohler, J. M. (2007). Healthy workplace practices and employee outcomes. *International Journal of Stress Management, 14*(3), 275-293.

Greenhaus, J. J. (1987). Career management. Chicago: Dryden Press.

Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, A., & Wormley, W. M. (1990) Effects of race on organizational experiences, job performance evaluations, and career outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*(1), 64-86.

Gubman, E. (2003). *The Engaging Leader: Winning with Today's Free Agent Workforce.* Chicago, IL: Dearborn Trade Publishing

Gubman, E. (2004). From engagement to passion for work: The search for the missing person. *Human Resource Planning.*

Gupta, N., & Beehr, T. A. (1979). Job stress and employee behaviors. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 23*, 373-387.

Gupta-Sunderji, M. (2004). Employee retention and turnover: The real reasons employees stay or go. *FMI Journal, 15*(2), 37-40, 48.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1974). *The Job Diagnostic Survey: An instrument of the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects (Tech. Rep. No. 4).* New Haven, CT: Yale University, Department of Administrative Sciences.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham. G. R. (1980). *Work Redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hackman, J. R., Oldham, G., Janson, R., & Purdy, K. (1975). A new strategy for job enrichment. *California Management Review, 17*(4), 57-71.

Hakanen, J., Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2005). How dentists cope with their job demands and stay engaged: The moderating role of job resources. *European Journal of Oral Sciences, 113,* 497-487.

Hakenen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology, 43,* 495-513.

Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2003). Assessing the construct validity of alternative measures of burnout: Investigating the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory and the Utrecht Engagement Scales. Paper presented at the Southern Management Association Conference in Clearwater Beach, FL, November 15.

Hall, D. T., & Nougaim, K. E. (1968). An examination of Maslow's need hierarchy in an organizational setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 3*, 12-35.

Hallberg, U. E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). “Same same” but different: can work engagement be discriminated form job involvement and organizational commitment? *European Psychologist, 11(*2), 119-127.

Hammelgarn, A. L., James, L. R., Ladd, R. T., & Mitchell, T. R. (1995). Testing for cross-situational-consistency: A confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Management, 21*(1),121-139.

Harman, H. H. (1976). *Modern Factor Analysis.* Chicago, IL: Univ. Chicago Press.

Harrison, D. A., Newman, D. A., Roth, P. L. (2006). How important are job attitudes? Meta-Analytic comparisons of integrative behavioral outcomes and time sequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(2), 305-325.

Harrison, J. D., & Hargrove, M. J. (2006). Aging faculty: Workforce challenges and issues facing higher education. *Business Perspectives, 18*(2), 20-25.

Harrison, K. (2007). You can play a role in improving employee engagement. Retrieved January 31, 2007, from http://www.cuttingedgepr.com/articles/empcomm_employee_engagement.asp

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., Hayes, T. L. (2002) Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 268-279.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Keyes, C. L. (2002). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. In C. L. Keyes

& Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: The Positive Person and the Good Life* (pp. 205-224). Washington D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Heckert, T. M., & Farabee, A. M. (2006). Turnover Intentions of the Faculty at a Teaching-focused University. *Psychological Reports, 99*(1), 39-45.

Hellman, C. M. (1997). Job satisfaction and intent to leave. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 137*(6), 677-689.

Henderson, S. J. (2006). *A Study on Management Intervention and Retention using the Q12 Engagement Survey*. Thesis. Roosevelt University.

Hersey, J. C., Niederdeppe, J., Evans, W. D., Nonnemaker, J., Blahut, S., Holden, D., Messeri, P., & Haviland, M. L. (2005). The theory of "truth": How counterindustry media campaigns affect smoking behavior among teens. *Health Psychology, 24*(1), 22-31.

Hessing, D. J., Elffers, J., & Weigel, R. H. (1988). Exploring the limits of self-reports and reasoned action: An investigation of the psychology of tax evasion behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(3), 405-413.

Highhouse, S., & Becker, A. S. (19930. Facet measures and global job satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 8*(1), 117-127.

Hiles, A. (2006). It's time to rethink employee benefits. *Benefits Quarterly, 4th Quarter,* 62-66.

Hinsz, V. B., & Nelson, L. C. (1990). Testing models of turnover intentions with university faculty. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 20*(1), 68-84.

Hirschfeld, R. R., & Thomas, C. H. (2008). Representations of trait engagement: Integration, additions, and mechanisms. *Industrial and organizational Psychology, 1*, 63-66.

Hochschild, A. R. 1983. *The managed heart: Commercialization of human feeling.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Holton III, E. F., Bates, R. A., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2000). Development of a generalized learning transfer system inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 11,* 333-365.

Hom, P. W., Caranikas-Walker, F., Prussia, G. E., & Griffeth, R. W. (1992). A meta-analytical structural equations analysis of a model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(6), 890-909.

Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(3), 350-366.

Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1995). *Employee Turnover*. Cincinnati, OH: Southwestern.

Hom, P., Griffeth, R. & Sellaro, C. (1984). The validity of Mobley's (1977) model of employee turnover. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 34*, 141-174.

Houkes, I., Janssen, P. P. M., de Jonge, J., & Bakker, A. B. (2003). Specific determinants of intrinsic work motivation, emotional exhaustion and turnover intention: A

multisample longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76*, 427-450.

House, J. S., McMichael, A. J., Wells, J. A., Kaplan, B. J., & Landerman, L R. (1979). Occupational stress and health among factory workers. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 20*, 139-160.

House, R. J., & Rizzo, J. R. (1972). Role conflict and abmiuity as critical variables in a model of organizational behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 7*, 467-505.

House, R. J., Schuler, R. S., & Levanoni, E. (1983). Role conflict and ambiguity scales: Reality or artifacts? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(2), 334-337.

Huang, X., & Van de Vliert, E. (2003). Where intrinsic job satisfaction fails to work: National moderators of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*, 159-179.

Huczynski, A., & Lewis, J. W. (1980). An empirical study into the learning transfer process in management training. *Journal of Management Studies, 17*, 227-240.

Hulin, C. L. (1966a). Effects of community characteristics on measures of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 50*(2), 185-192.

Hulin, C. L. (1966b). Job satisfaction and turnover in a female clerical population. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 30*(4), 280-285.

Hulin, C. L. (1968). Effects of changes in job-satisfaction levels on employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 52*(2), 122-126.

Hulin, C. L., Roznowski, M., & Hachiya, D. (1985). Alternative opportunities and withdrawal decisions: Empirical and theoretical discrepancies and an integration. *Psychological Bulletin, 97*(2), 233-250.

Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Integrating Motivational, Social, and Contextual Work Design Features: A meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(5), 1332-1356.

Idaszak, J. R., & Drasgow, F. (1987). A revision of the Job Diagnostic Survey: Elimination of a measurement artifact. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(1), 69-74.

Igalens, J., & Rousel, P. (1999) A study of the relationship between compensation package, work motivation and job satisfaction, *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*, 1003-1025.

International Survey Research. (n.d.) *Retention Matters: A proactive strategy to address turnover.* Retrieved February 15, 2007, from http://www.isrinsight.com/pdf/insight/retentionmatters.pdf

Irwin, S. D., (2007). The Fair Labor Standards Act: The high cost of non-compliance. *Employee Relations Law Journal, 33(*1), 41-52.

Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1997). *Handbook in research and evaluation for education and the behavioral sciences, 3rd ed*. San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services.

Ivancevich, J., & Matteson, M. (1980). *Stress and work: A managerial perspective.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Jackson, L. T.B., Tothman, S. R., & Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2006). A model of work related well-being for educators in South-Africa. *Stress & Health, 22*, 263-274.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36*, 16-78.

Jamal, M. (1981). Shift work related to job attitudes, social participation and withdrawal behavior: A study of nurses and industrial workers. *Personnel Psychology, 34*, 535-547.

Jamal, M. (2007). Job stress and job performance controversy revisited: An empirical examination in two countries. *International Journal of Stress Management, 14*(2), 175-187.

Jamal, M. (1990). Relationship of job stress and type-A Behavior to employees' job satisfaction, organiationzl commitment, psychosomatic health problems, and turnover motivation. *Human Relations, 43*, 727-738.

Jamrog, J. (2004). The perfect storm: The future of retention and engagement. *Human Resource Planning, 27*(3), 26-33.

Jang, H. (2008). Supporting students' motivation, engagement, and learning during an uninteresting activity. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*(4): 798-811.

Jones, J. R., & Harter, J. K. (2005). Race effects on the employee engagement-turnover intention relationship. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 11*(2), 78-88.

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Thoresen, C. J., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualititative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin, 127(*3), 376-407.

Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D. S., & Brymer, R. A. (1999). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment: A comparison of two scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 59*(6), 976-994.

Kacmar, K. M., & Ferris, G. R. (1989). Theoretical and methodological considerations in the age-job satisfaction relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 201-207.

Kahn, R. L, Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., & Snoek, J D. (with Rosenthal, R. A.). (1964). *Organizational Stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity.* New York: John Wiley.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*(4), 692-724.

Karsh, B., Booske, B.C., & Sainfort, F. (2005). Job and organizational determinants of nursing home employee commitment, job satisfaction, and intent to turnover. *Ergonomics, 48*(10), 1260-1281.

Kaye, B. L., & Jordan-Evans, S. (1999). Love 'em or Lose 'em: Getting Good People to Stay. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Kelloway, E. K., & Barling, J. (1993). Members' participation in local union activities: Measurement, prediction, and replication. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(2), 262-279.

Kenny, D. A., & Judd, C. M. (1984). Estimating the nonlinear and interactive effects of latent variables. *Psychological Bulletin, 96*, 201-210.

Kerlinger, F. N, & Lee, H. B. (2000). *Foundations of behavioral research. (4th ed.).*

Ketchen, D. J., Craighead, C. W., & Buckley, M. R. (2008). Time bandits: How they are created, why they are tolerated, and what can be done about them. *Business Horizons, 51*(2), 141-149.

Kim, M. (1999). Where the grass is greener: Voluntary turnover and wage premiums. *Industrial Relations, 38,* 584.

Klenke-Hamel, K. E., & Mathieu, J. E. (1990). Role strains, tension, and job satisfaction influences on employees' propensity to leave: A multisample replication and extension. *Human Relations, 43*(8), 791-807.

Kim, S. E., & Lee, J. W. (2007). Is mission attachment an effective management tool for employee retention? An empirical analysis of a nonprofit human services agency. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 27*, 227-248.

Koch, J. L., & Steers, R. M. (1978). Job attachment, satisfaction, and turnover among public sector employees. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 12*, 119-128.

Konrad, A. M. (2006). Engaging employees through high-involvement work practices. *Ivey Business Journal, March/April*, 1-7.

Krauss, J. B. (2003). A matter of privacy. *Archives of Psychiatric Nursing, 17(*3), 99-100.

Kraut, A. I. (1975). Predicting turnover of employees from measured job attitudes. Organizational Behavior and Human performance, 13, 233-243.

Kristensen, N., & Westergaard-Nielsen, N. (2007). Reliability of job satisfaction measures. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 8,* 273-292.

Lachman, R, & Aranya, N. (1986). Job attitudes and turnover intentions among professionals in different work settings. *Organization Studies, 7*(3), 279-293.

Lachman, R., & Diamant, E. (1987). Withdrawal and restraining factors in teachers' turnover intentions. *Journal of Occupational Behavior, 8*, 219-232.

Laker, D. R. (1991). Job search, perceptions of alternative employment and turnover. *Journal of Applied Research, 7*, 6-16.

Lambert, E. G., Hogan, N. L., & Barton, S. M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: A test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. *The Social Science Journal, 38*, 233-250.

Lancaster, L. C., & Stillman, D. (2002). *When Generations Collide: Who They Are. Why They Clash. How to Solve the Generational Puzzle at Work*. New York: Harper Collins.

Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T A. (2002). An investigation of personal learning in mentoring relationships: Content, antecedents, and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(4), 779-790.

Lax, J. (2007). Do employer requests for salary history discriminate against women? *Labor Law Journal, 58(*1), 47-52.

Learning Theories Knowledgebase (2008, June). *Erikson's stages of development at learning-theories.com.* Retrieved June 18th, 2008 from http://www.learning-theories.com/eriksons-stages-of-development.html

Ledford, G., & Lucy, M. (2002). The Rewards of Work: The employment deal in a changing economy. *Perspectives: Insights for Today's Business Leaders, 9*(3). Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.sibson.com/publications/perspectives/Volume_11_Issue_3/e_article000187025.cfm

Lee, R. T., & Ashforth, B. E. (1993). A further examination of managerial burnout: Torward an integrated model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*. 3-20.

Lee, T. W. (1988). How job dissatisfaction leads to employee turnover. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 2*, 263-271.

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. J., & McKee, B. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. New York: Ballentine Books.

Levinson, D. J., with Levinson, J. (1997). *The seasons of a woman's life*. New York: Knopf.

Ley, R. (1966). Labour turnover as a function of worker differences, work environment, and authoritarianism of foremen. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 50*, 497-500.

Light, P. C. (1988). *Baby Boomers*. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Llorens, S., Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W., & Salanova, M. (2006). Testing the robustness of the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management, 13*(3), 378-391.

Lockwood, N. R. (2007). Leveraging employee engagement for competitive advantage: HR's strategic role. *2007 SHRM Research Quarterly.*

Lowerre, G., & Brazzell, B. (2007). A look at how employers view benefits. *National* Underwriter, February 26, 2007, 16-30.

Lum, L., Kervin, J., Clark, K., Reid, F., & Sirola, W. (1998). Explaining nursing turnover intent: job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, or organizational commitment? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19,* 305-320.

Luthans, F. & Peterson, S. J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy: Implications for managerial effectiveness and development. *Journal of Management Development, 21*(5), 376-387.

Lyons, T. (1971). Role clarity, need for clarity, satisfaction, tension and withdrawal. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 6*, 99-110.

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1, 3*-30.

Maccoby, E., & Jacklin, C. (1974). The *Psychology of Sex Differences.* Oxford University Press: London.

Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (2004). Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 566-582.

Martin, C., & Tulgan, B. (2006). *Executive summary: Managing the generation mix.* Retrieved July 12, 2007, from www.rainmakerthinking.com

Martin, T. N., Jr. (1979). A contextual model of employee turnover intentions. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*, 313-324.

Maslach, C. (1993). Burnout: a multidimensional perspective. In W. B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 19-32). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1986). *Maslach Burnout Inventory: Manual* (2nd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., & Leiter, M. (1996). *Maslach Burnout Inventory: Manual* (3rd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M.P. (1997). *The truth about burnout: How organizations cause personal stress and what to do about it.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Maslach, C., & Schaufeli, W. B., (1993) Historical and conceptual development of burnout. In W. B. Schaufeli, C., Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds.), *Professional Burnout: Recent developments in theory and research* (pp. 1-16). Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52,* 397-422.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 77*, 11-37.

Mayeske, G. W. (1964). The validity of Kuder Preference Record scores in predicting forester turnover and advancement. *Personnel Psychology, 17*, 207-210.

McCauley, C., & Wakefield, M. (2006). Talent management in the 21st century: Help your company find, develop, and keep it strongest workers. *The Journal for Quality & Participation, Winter 2006*, 4-7.

McFarlin, D. B., & Rice, R. W. (1992). The role of facet importance as a moderator in job satisfaction processes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*, 41-54.

McGregor, S. E. (2005). Jackson chastises Bush over the Davis-Bacon Act. *New York Amsterdam News, 96(*41), 20.

Michael, J. H., Leschinsky, R., & Gagnon, M. A. (2006). Production employee performance at a furniture manufacturer: The importance of supportive supervisors. *Forest Products Journal, 56*(6), 19-24.

Michaels, C. E., & Spector, P. E. (1982). Causes of employee turnover: A test of the Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*, 53-59.

Milkovich, G. T., & Newman, J. M. (2005). Compensation, 8th ed. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Miller, D. C., & Form, W. J. (1951). *Industrial sociology* (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

Miller, J. E., Katerberg, R., & Hulin, C. L. (1979). Evaluation of the Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64*, 509-517.

Millstein, S. G. (1996). Utility of the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior for predicting physician behavior: A prospective analysis. *Healthy Psychology, 15*(5), 398-402.

Mitchell, T. R., & Lee, T. W. (2001). The unfolding model of voluntary turnover and job embeddedness: Foundations for a comprehensive theory of attachment. *Research in Organizational Behvioar, 23*, 189-246.

Mobley, W., H. (1977). Intermediate Linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*(2), 237-240.

Mobley, W. H., Griffeth, R. W., Hand, H. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*(3), 493-522.

Mobley, W. J., Horner, S. O., & Hollingsworth, A. T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 63*, 408-414.

Moncur, M. (2007). The Quotations Page. Retrieved September 17, 2009, from ww.quotationspage.com

Morison, R. Erickson, T., & Dychtwald, K. (2006). Managing middlescence. *Harvard Business Review, March 2006,* 78-86.

Morris, M. L., & Blanton, P. W., (1994). The influence of work-related stressors on clergy husbands and their wives. *Family Relations, 43(*2), 189-195.

Motowidlo, S. J. (1983). Predicting sales turnover from pay satisfaction and expectation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(3), 484-489.

Muchinsky, P. M., & Morrow, P. C. (1980). A multidisciplinary model of voluntary employee turnover. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 17*, 263-290.

Muchinsky, P. M., & Tuttle, M. L. (1979). Employee turnover: An empirical and methodological assessment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14*, 43-77.

Mullen, M. R. (1995). Diagnosing measurement equivalence in cross-national research. *Journal of International Business Studies, 26*(3): 573-596.

Nagowski, M. P. (2006). Associate professor turnover at America's public and private institutions of higher education. *The American Economist, 50*(1), 69-79.

Nesbary, D. K. (2000). *Survey research and the world wide web*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Netemeyer, R. G., Johnston, M. W., & Burton, S. (1990). Analysis of role conflict and role ambiguity in a structural equations framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(2), 148-158.

Newman, D. A., & Harrison, D. A. (2008). Been there, bottled that: Are state and behavioral work engagement new and useful construct "wines"? *Industrial and Organzational Psychology, 1*, 31-35.

Newman, J. E. (1974). Predicting absenteeism and turnover: A field comparison of Fishbein's model and traditional job attitude measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59,* 610-615.

O'Driscoll, M. P., & Beehr, T. A. (1994). Supervisor behavior, role stressors and uncertainty as predictors of personal outcomes for subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*(2), 141-155.

O'Keeffe, J. (1993). Disability, discrimination and the Americans with Disabilities Act. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 45(*2), 3-9.

Oldham, G. R., & Cummings, A. (1996). Employee creativity: Personal and contextual factors at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(3), 607-634.

Oldham, G. R., & Hackman, J. R. (1981). Relationships between organizational structure and employee reactions: Comparing alternative frameworks. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 26*, 66-83.

Olsen, D., Maple, S. A., & Stage, F. K. (1995). Women and minority faculty job satisfaction: Professional role interest, professional satisfactions, and institutional fit. *The Journal of Higher Education, 66*(3), 267-293.

O'Reilly, C.A., III, Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*(3), 487-516.

Osipow, S. H. (1968). *Theories of career development*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Osipow, S. J., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1996). *Theories of Career Development, Fourth Edition.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Palmer, D. (2006). Delivering the right package. *The Lawyer, April 17, 2006,* 23.

Patten, Jr., T. H. (1988). *Fair Pay: The Managerial Challenge of Comparable Job Worth and Job Evaluation.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Peters, L. H. Jackofsky, E. F., & Salter, J. R. (1981). Predicting turnover: A comparison of part-time and full-time employees. *Journal Occupational Behavior, 2*, 89-98.

Peterson, E. S., & Trout, T. (2007). Improving employees' benefits decisions—A holistic approach. Benefits Quarterly, 1st Quarter, 11-15.

Peterson, M .F., Smith, P. B., Akande, A., Ayestaran, S., Bochner, S., Callan, V., Cho, N. G., Jesuino, J. C., D'Amorim, M., Francois, P., Hofmann, K., Koopman, P. L, Leung, K., Lim, T. K, Mortazavi, S., Munene, J., Radford, M., Ropo, A., Savage, G., Setiadi, B., Sinha, T. N., Sorenson, R., & Viedge, C. (1995). Role conflict, ambiguity, and overload: A 21-nation study. *Academy of Management Journal, 38(*2), 429-452.

Phillips, J. J. (1997). *Return on investment in training and performance programs.* Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing Company.

Piper, B. (2006). Retention tune up. Professional Builder. Retrieved February 4, 2007, from www. Probuilder.com

Pietrofesa, J. J., & Splete, H. (1975). *Career Development: Theory and Research*. New York, NY: Grune & Stratton.

Pope, S., & Stremmel, An. J. (1992). Organizational climate and job satisfaction among child care teachers. *Child & Youth Care Forum, 21*(1), 39-52.

Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1973). Organizational, work, and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. *Psychological Bulletin, 80*(2), 151-176.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59*(5), 603-609.

Prestholdt, P. H., Lane, I. M., & Mathews, R. C. (1987). Nurse turnover as reasoned action: Development of a process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72,* 221-227.

Pritchard, R. D. (1969). Equity theory: A review and critique. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4,* 176-211.

Pugh, S. D., & Dietz, J. (2008). Employee engagement at the organizational level of analysis. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1*, 44-47.

Price, J. L. (1977). *The Study of Turnover*. Ames: Iowa State University Press.

Rath, T. & Clifton, D. O. (2004). *How Full is Your Bucket? Positive Strategies for Work and Life.* New York: Gallup Press.

Rego, A., Souto, S., & Cunha, M. (2009). Does the need to belong moderate the relationship between perceptions of spirit of camaraderie and employees' happiness? *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 14*(2): 148-164.

Remondet, J. H., & Hansson, R. O. (1991) Job-related threats to control among older employees. *Journal of Social Issues, 47*, 129-141.

Rentsch, J. R., & Steel, R. P. (1992). Construct and concurrent validation of the Andrews and Withey Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 52*, 357-367.

Rhodes, S. R. (1983). Age-related differences in work attitudes and behavior: a review and conceptual analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 93*(2), 328-357.

Rizzo, J., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and role ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 15*, 150-163.

Romans 12:1. The Message. (2002). NavPress Publishing Group. Retrieved September 17, 2009, from http://www.biblegateway.com

Ross, I. C., & Zander, A. (1957). Need satisfaction and employee turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 10*, 327-338.

Rosser, V. (2004). Faculty members' intentions to leave: A national study on their work-life and satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education, 45*(3), 285-309.

Rousseau, D. M. (1978). Characteristics of departments, positions, and individuals: Contexts for attitudes and behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*, 521-539.

Roznowski, M. (1989). An examination of the measurement properties of the Job Descriptive Index with experimental items. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 805-814.

Ruhland, S. K. (2001). Factors that influence the turnover and retention of Minnesota's technical college teachers. *Journal of Vocational Education Research, 26*(1), 56-76.

Rush, M. C. , Scheol, W. A., & Barnard, S. M. (1985). Psychological resiliency in the public sector: "Hardiness" and pressure for change. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 46*, 17-39.

Russ-Eft, D. (2002). A typology of training design and work environment factors affecting workplace learning and transfer. *Human Resource Development Review, 1,* 45-65.

Sagie, A. (1998). Employee absenteeism, organizational commitment and job satisfaction: Another look. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 52*(2), 156-171.

Ryan, L. (2005). Making benefits worth the trouble. Retrieved August 18, 2005, from http://www.BusinessWeekOnline.com

Ryan, N. E. (1992). Complying with the WARN (Worker Adjustment and Retraining) Act. *Employee Relations Law Journal, 18(*1), 169-176.

Saleh, S. D., Lee, R. J., & Prien, E. P. (1965). Why nurses leave their jobs—An analysis of female turnover. *Personnel Administration, 28*, 25-28.

Sanford, B. (2003). Building a highly engaged workforce: How great managers inspire virtuoso performance. *The Gallup Management Journal*. Retrieved February 15,

Scarpello, P. & Campbell, J. P. (1983). Job satisfaction: Are all the parts there? *Personnel Psychology, 36,* 577-600.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25,* 293-315.

Schein, E. J. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individual and organizational needs.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling, Second Edition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwab, D. P. (2004). Research Methods for Organizational Studies, 2nd ed. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Schwartz, L. (1983). U.S. contracts wage law target for amendment. *Daily News Record, 13(*1), 14.

Seigts, G. H., & Crim, D. (2006). What engages employees the most or, the ten c's of employee engagement. *Ivey Business Journal, March/April*, 1-5.

Sheehy, G. (1976). *Passages: Predictable crises in adult life*. New York: Dutton.

Sheppard, B. J., Harwick, J., & Warshaw, P. R. (1988). The theory of reasoned action: A meta-analysis of past research with recommendations for modifications and future research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*, 324-343.

Shikiar, R., & Freudenberg, R. (1982). Unemployement rates as a moderator of the job dissatisfaction-turnover relation. *Human Relations, 35*, 845-856.

SHRM Research. (2003). Work/Life Balance Tool Kit. Society for Human Resource Management.

Shulz, J. T., McGraw, V. M., Steenbergen, M. R. (1992). Will taxpayers ever like taxes? Responses to the U.S. Tax Reform Act of 1986. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 13(*4), 625-656.

Shulz, R. M., Bigoness, W. J., & Gagnon, J. P. (1987). Determinants of turnover intentions among retail pharmacists. *Journal of Retailing, 63(1),* 89-98.

Siegfried, R. L. (2008). Mapping a career path for retaining & keeping talent. *Financial Executive, November*, 52-54.

Sims, H. P., Szilagyi, A. D., & Kelller, R. T. (1976). The measurement of job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal, 19*, 195-212.

Singh, J. (1995). Measurement issues in cross-national research. *Journal of International Business Studies, 26*(3): 597-619.

Smart, J. C. (1990). A causal model of faculty turnover intentions. *Research in Higher Education 31,* 405-424.

Smith, C. S., & Brannick, M. T. (1990). A role and expectancy model of participative decision-making: A replication and theoretical extension. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11*(2), 91-104.

Smerek, R. E, & Peterson, M. (2007). Examining Herzberg's theory: Improving job satisfaction among non-academic employees at a university. *Research in Higher Education, 48*(2), 229-250.

Smith, R. L., & Stevens, P. W. (1992). A critique of healthy family functioning. *Topics in Family Psychology and Counseling, 1*, 6-14.

Smola, K. W., & Sutton, C. D. (2002). Generational differences: Revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*, 363-382.

Spector, P. E., (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 13*(6), 693-713.

Spector, P. (1997). *Job satisfaction*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Steel, R. P., & Rentsch, J. R. (1997). The dispositional model of job attitudes revisited: Findings of a 10-year study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 873-879.

Steel, R. P., & Ovalle, N. K. (1984). A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(4), 673-686.

Stinnett, N., & DeFrain, J. (1985). 1985). *Secrets of Strong Families*. Boston, MA: Little, Brown, & Co.

Summers, T. P., & Hendrix, W. H. (1991). Modeling the role of pay equity perceptions: A field study. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 64,* 145-157.

Sutton, S., McVey, D., Glanz, A. (1999). A comparative test of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior in the prediction of condom use intentions in a national sample of English young people. *Health Psychology, 18*(1), 72-81.

Super, D. E. (1994). A life span, life space perspective on convergence. In M.L. Savikas & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Convergence in Career Development Theories: Implications for Science and Practice*. Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Syptak, J. M., Marsland, D. W., & Ulmer, D. (1999). Job satisfaction: Putting theory into practice. Retrieved April 9, 2007, from http://www.aafp.org/fpm/991000fm/26.html

Tekleab, A. G., Bartol, K. M., & Liu, W. (2005). Is it pay levels or pay raises that matter to fairness and turnover? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26,* 899-921.

Telly, C. S., French, W. L., & Scott, W. G. (1971). The relationship of inequity to turnover among hourly workers. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*, 164-172.

Tett, R., & Meyer, J. (1993). Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology, 46*(2), 259-294.

The Segal Group, Inc. (2006a). How employee gauge the rewards of their work. *Rewards of Work Study*. Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.sibson.com/publications/surveysandstudies/2006ROWno1.pdf

The Segal Group, Inc. (2006b). Insights into employee engagement. *Rewards of Work Study.* Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.sibson.com/publications/surveysandstudies/2006ROWno2.pdf

The Segal Group, Inc. (2006d). Sales force findings: Rewards and engagement. *Rewards of Work Study.* Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.sibson.com/publications/surveysandstudies/2006ROWno4.pdf

The Segal Group, Inc. (2007). In search of summa: Maximizing rewards for employees in higher education. *Rewards of Work Study*. Retrieved March 10, 2008, from http://www.segalsibson.com/publications/compass/nov07.pdf

Tomaskovic-Devey, D., & Stainback, K. (2007). Discrimination and desegregation: Equal opportunity progress in the U.S. private sector workplaces since the Civil Right Act. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 609(*1), 49-84.

Torraco, R. J. (2005). Writing integrative literature reviews: Guidelines and examples. *Human Resource Development Review, 4*(3), 356-367.

Towers Perrin HR Services. (2003). Working today: Understanding what drives employee engagement. The 2003 Towers Perrin Talent Report.

Trivette, C. M., Dunst, C. C. J., Deal, A. G., Hamer, A. W., & Propst, S. (1990). Assessing family strengths and family functioning style *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, 10,* 16-35.

Twenge, J. M. (2006). *Generation Me: Why Today's Young American's Are More Confident, Assertive, Entitled—and More Miserable Than Ever Before*. New York: Free Press.

U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2007) Employment Cost Trends. Retrieved April 9, 2007, from http://data.bls.gov/cgi-bin/surveymost

U.S. Department of Labor. Center for Faith-Based and Community Initiatives. (2008). *Cost-of-turnover worksheet*. Retrieved February 11, 2008, from www.dol.gov/cfbci/turnover.htm

Vandenberghe, C., & Tremblay, M. (2008). The role of pay satisfaction and organizational commitment in turnover intentions: A two-sample study. *Journal of Business Psychology, 22*, 275-286.

Van Herpen, M., Van Praag, M., & Cools, K. (2005). The effects of performance measurement and compensation on motivation: an empirical study. *De Economist, 153,* 303-329.

Van Ummersen, C. A. (2005). No talent left behind. *Change, 37*(6), 26-31.

Van Yperen, N. W., Hagedoorn, M., & Geurts, S. A. E. (1996). Intent to leave and absenteeism as reactions to perceived inequity: The role of psychological and

social constraints. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 69*, 367-372.

Vecchio, R. P. (1993). The impact of differences in subordinate and supervisor age on attitudes and performance. *Psychology and Aging, 8*(1), 112-119.

Walsh, J. P., Ashford, S. J., & Hill, T. E. (1985). Feedback Obstruction: The influence of the information environment on employee turnover intentions. *Human Relations, 38*, 23-46.

Waters, L. K., & Roach, D. (1971). Relationship between job attitudes and two forms of withdrawal from the work situation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 55*, 92-94.

Waters, L. K., Roach, D., & Waters, C. W. (1976). Estimates of future tenure, satisfaction, and biographical variables as predictors of turnover. *Personnel Psychology, 29*, 57-60.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*(1) 82-111.

Weisberg, J., & Kirschenbaum, A. (1991). Employee turnover intentions: Implications from a national sample. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 2*(3), 359-375.

Weiss, D., Dawis, R. England, G., & Lofquist, L. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center.

Westman, M. (1992). Moderating effects of decision latitude on stress-strain relationship: Does organizational level matter? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13*(7), 713-722.

Weitz, J. (1956). Job expectancy and survival. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 40*, 245-247.

White, A. T., & Spector, P. E. (1987). An investigation of age-related factors in the age-job satisfaction relationship. *Psychology and Aging, 2*, 261-265.

Wiatrowski, W. J. (2000). The national compensation survey: Compensation statistics for the 21st century. Compensation and Working Conditions, Winter.

Williams, M. L, McDaniel, M. A., & Nguyen, N. T. (2006). A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of pay level satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91(*2), 392-413.

Wright, J. (2006). Crisis and opportunity: Coaching older workers in the workplace. *Work, 26,* 93-96.

Wrobel, K., Raskin, P., Marazano, V., Frankel, J. L., & Beacom, A. (2003). *Career stages.* Retrieved June 18, 2008, from http://wfnetwork.bc.edu/encyclopedia_entry.php?id=222&area=All

Xie, J. L. (1996). Karasek's model in the People's Republic of China: Effects of job demands, control, and individual differences. *Academy of Management Journal, 39*(6), 1594-1619.

Yancey, D. L. (2005). *The Predictability of Performance using the Q12 Engagement Survey.* Thesis. Roosevelt University.

Yohalem, M. R. (1977). Employee benefits plans—1975. *Social Security Bulletin, 40(*11), 19-28.

Youngberg, C. F. (1963). *An experimental study of "job satisfaction" and turnover in relation to job expectancies and self expectations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, New York University.

Youngblood, S. A., Mobley, W. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1983). A longitudinal analysis of the turnover process. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(3), 507-516.

Zemke, R., Raines, C., & Filipczak, B. (2000). *Generations at work: Managing the clash of veterans, boomers, xers, and nexters in your workplace*. Boston: American Management Association.

Zey-Ferrell, M. (1982). Predictors of faculty intent to exit the organization: Potential turnover in a large university. *Human Relations, 35*, 349-372.

Zhou, Y., & Volkwein, J. F. (2004). Examining the influences on faculty departure intentions: A comparison of tenured versus nontenured faculty at research universities using NSOPF-99. *Research in Higher Education, 45*(2), 139-176.

(2005) Firms indifferent toward employee retention. *Expansion Management, 20*(2), 2.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Employee Satisfaction Survey

Please take a moment to complete this questionnaire. Your answers will guide the _____ _____ _____ efforts to retain our employees and will be reported in statistical form only. Thank you for your assistance.

For questions, please send an e-mail to _____.

SA = Strongly Agree **A** = Agree **N** = Neither agree or disagree **D** = Disagree **SD** = Strongly Disagree

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I know what is expected of me at work.	○	○	○	○	○
2. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.	○	○	○	○	○
3. At work I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.	○	○	○	○	○
4. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.	○	○	○	○	○
5. My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person.	○	○	○	○	○
6. There is someone at work who encourages my development.	○	○	○	○	○
7. At work my opinions seem to count.	○	○	○	○	○
8. The mission/purpose of the University makes me feel my job is important.	○	○	○	○	○
9. My co-workers are committed to doing quality work.	○	○	○	○	○
10. I have a good friend at work.	○	○	○	○	○
11. In the last six months, someone at work has talked to me about my progress.	○	○	○	○	○
12. This last year, I have had opportunities at work to learn and grow.	○	○	○	○	○
13. At the University my performance on the job is evaluated fairly.	○	○	○	○	○
14. Compared to other people doing similar work <u>at</u> the University, I think I am paid fairly.	○	○	○	○	○
15. Compared to other people doing similar work <u>outside</u> the University, I think I am paid fairly.	○	○	○	○	○
16. The University's benefit programs meet my needs.	○	○	○	○	○
17. The University does an excellent job of keeping employees informed about matters affecting us.	○	○	○	○	○
18. At the University we can speak our minds without fear of reprisal.	○	○	○	○	○
19. I have given serious thought to leaving the University in the past six months.	○	○	○	○	○
20. Overall, I am satisfied with the University as a place to work.	○	○	○	○	○

21. I have worked at the _____ _____ _____

0-2 years
3-5 years
6-10 years
11-20 years
21-30 years
31 – or more years

22. I supervise other employees:

No
Yes

23. I am staff:

Exempt
Non-exempt

24. I am faculty:

Non-tenure Track
Tenure Track
Tenured

25. I am employed by: _____

26. Gender:

Female
Male

27. Age:

18 – 25
26 – 35
36 – 45
46 – 55
56 or over

28. Race:

American Indian/Alaskan
Asian/Pacific Islander
Black/Not Hispanic
Hispanic
White/Not Hispanic
Other

Comments:

APPENDIX B

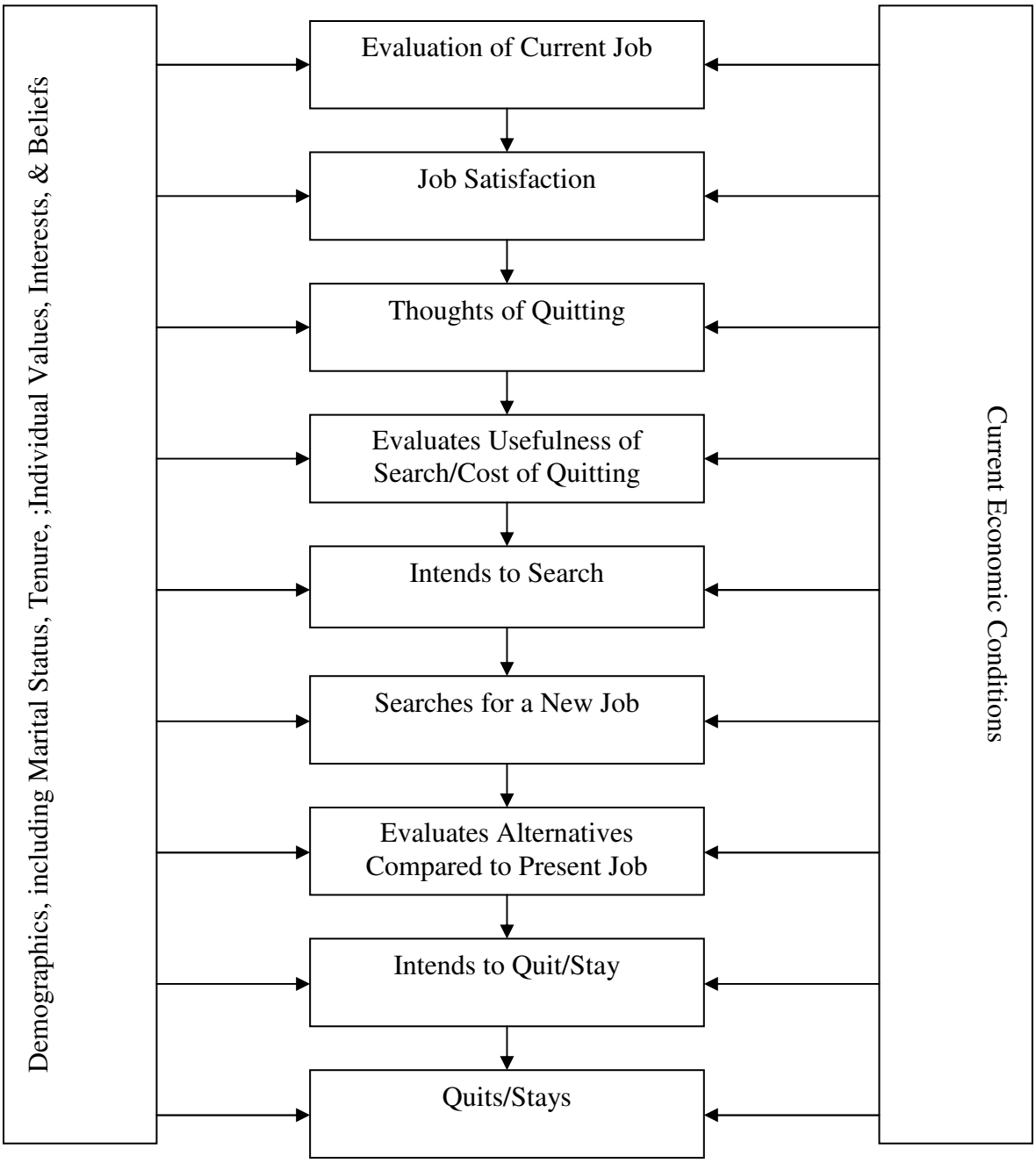

Figure 1. Turnover Model Based on Mobley (1977), Mobley et al. (1978), Mobley et al. (1979), and Muchinsky and Morrow (1980).

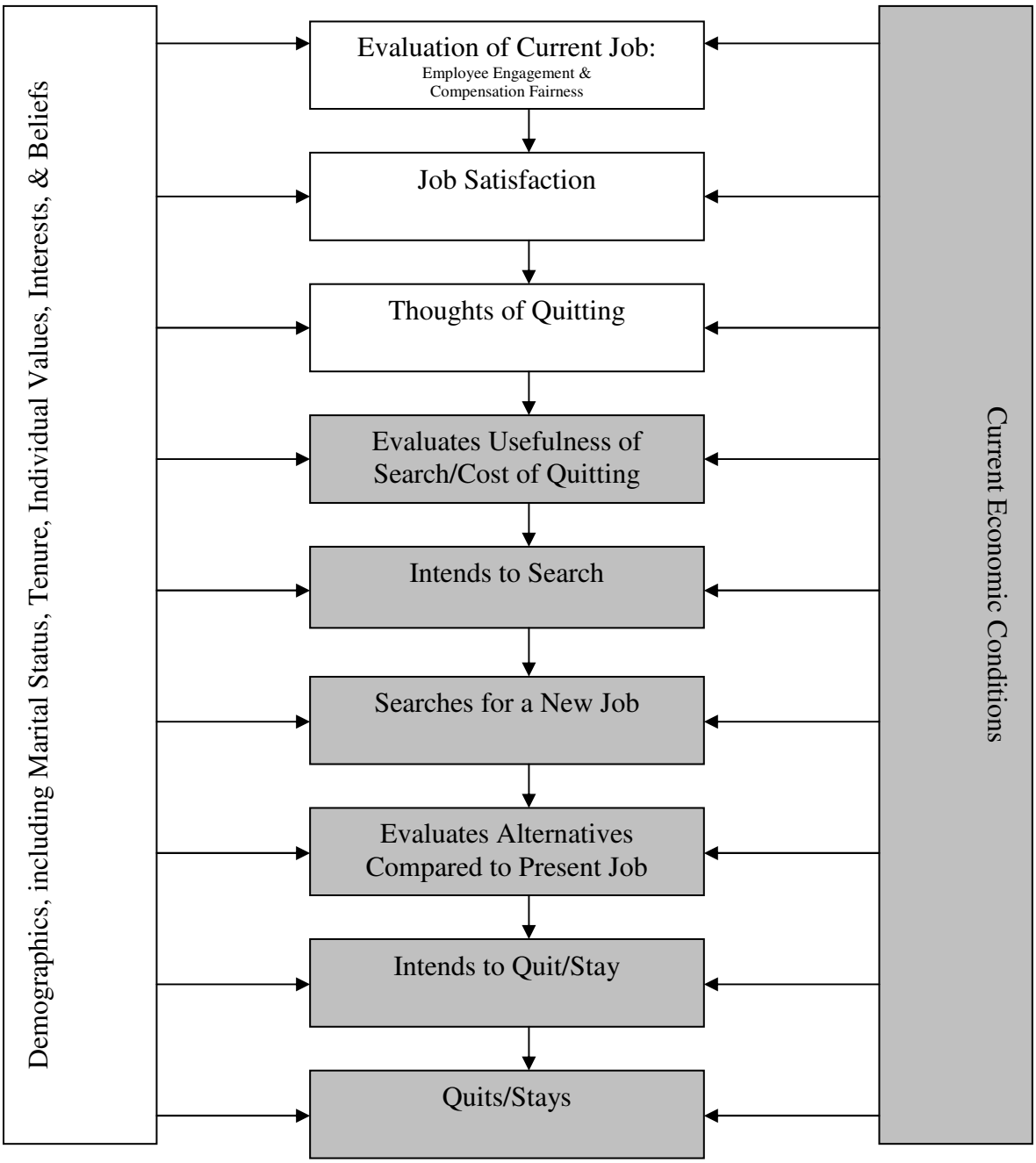

Figure 2. Current Model: Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction and Moderating Effects of Age on the Relationship between Antecedents Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness (Evaluation of Job) and Outcome Variable Turnover Intent (Thoughts of Quitting)

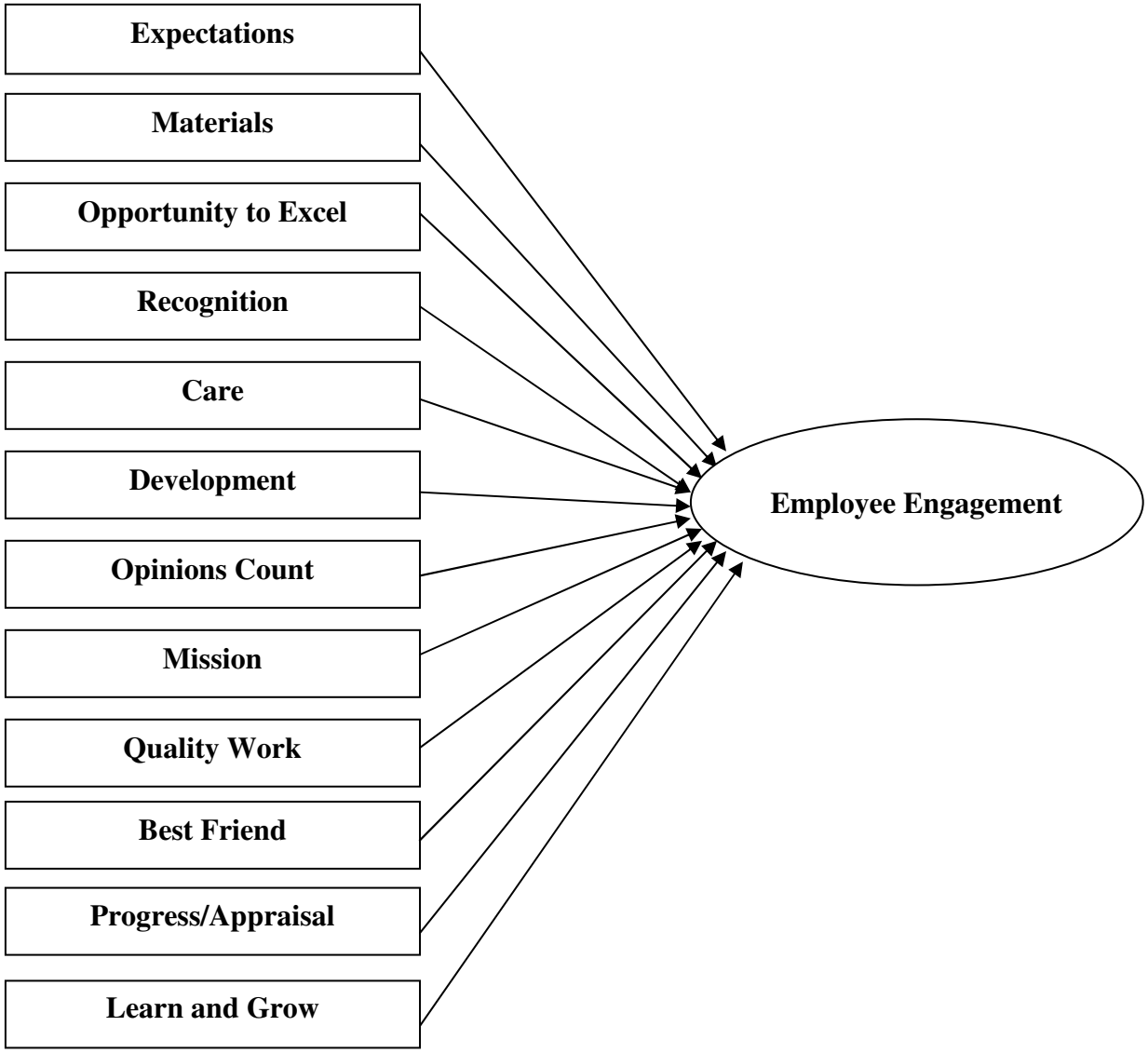

Figure 3. Measurement Model for Employee Engagement.

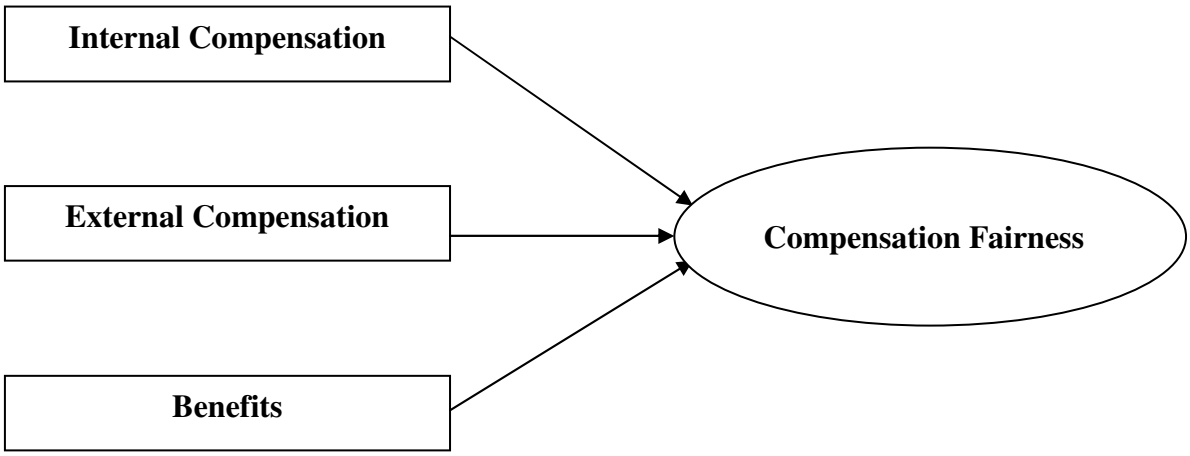

Figure 4. Measurement Model for Compensation Fairness.

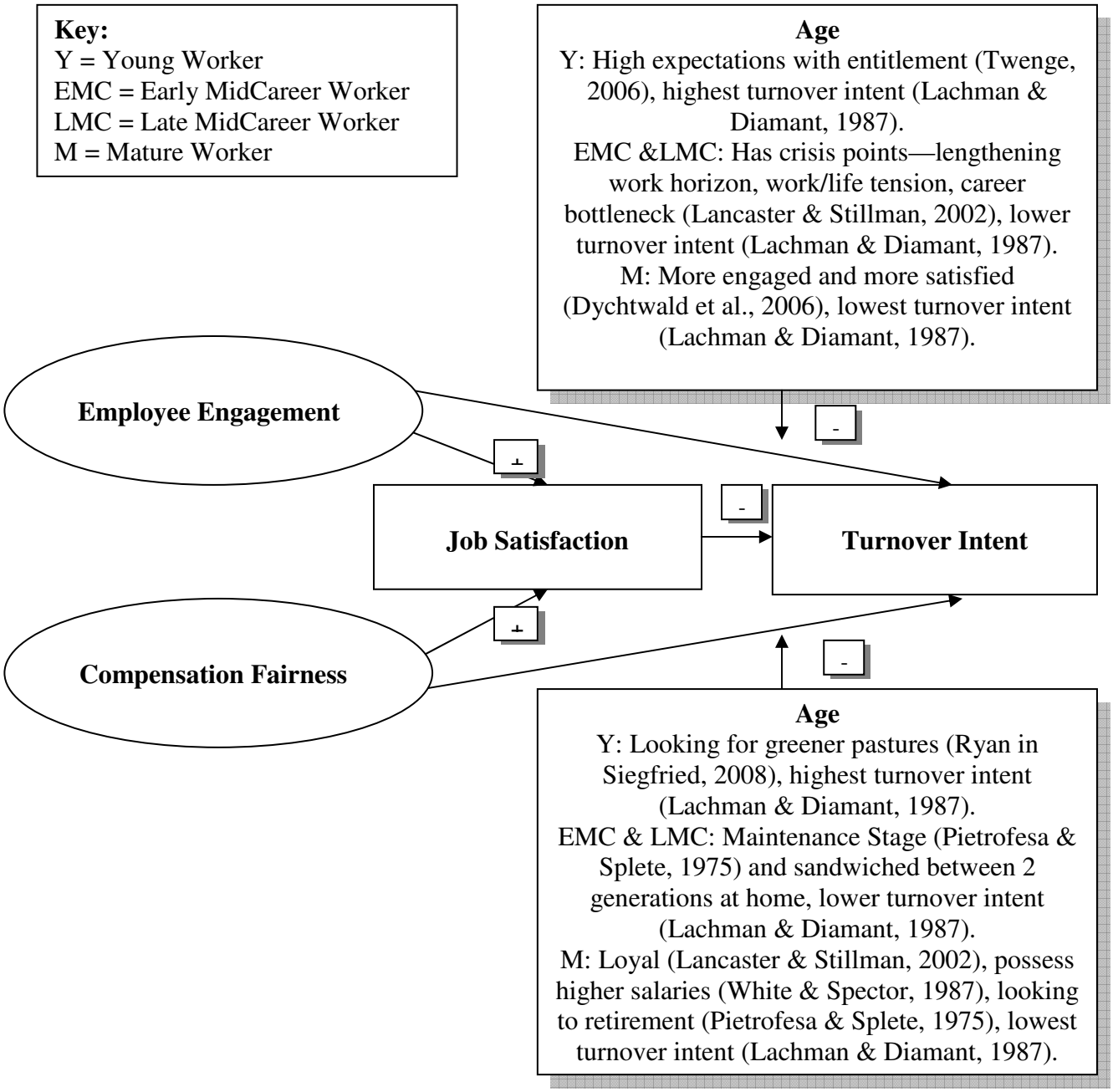

Figure 5. Structural Model showing Prediction of Turnover Intent by Employee Engagement and Compensation Fairness with Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction and Moderating Effects of Age.

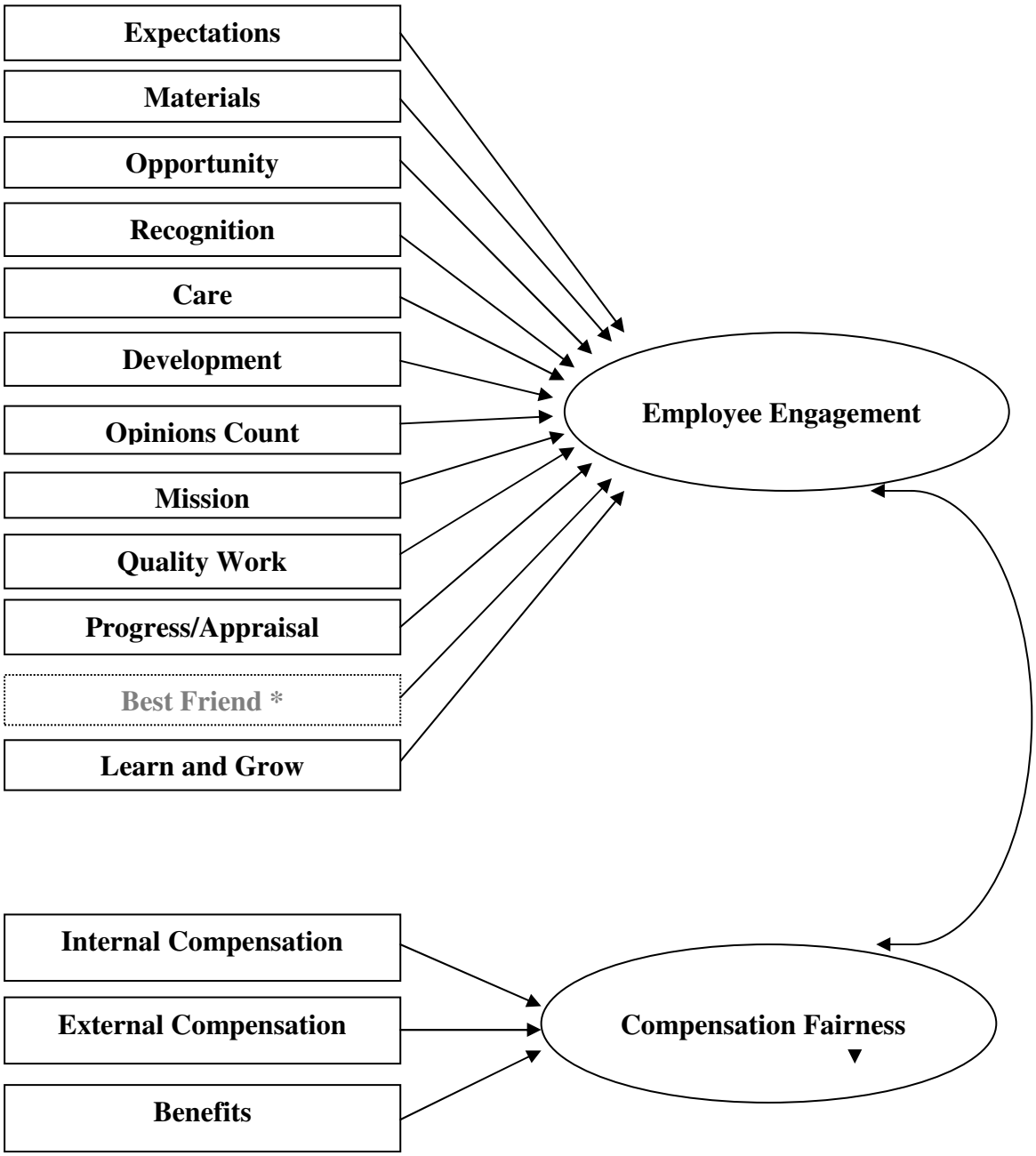

Figure 6. Accepted Measurement Model for Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness. (Note: Best Friend was eliminated from measurement model).

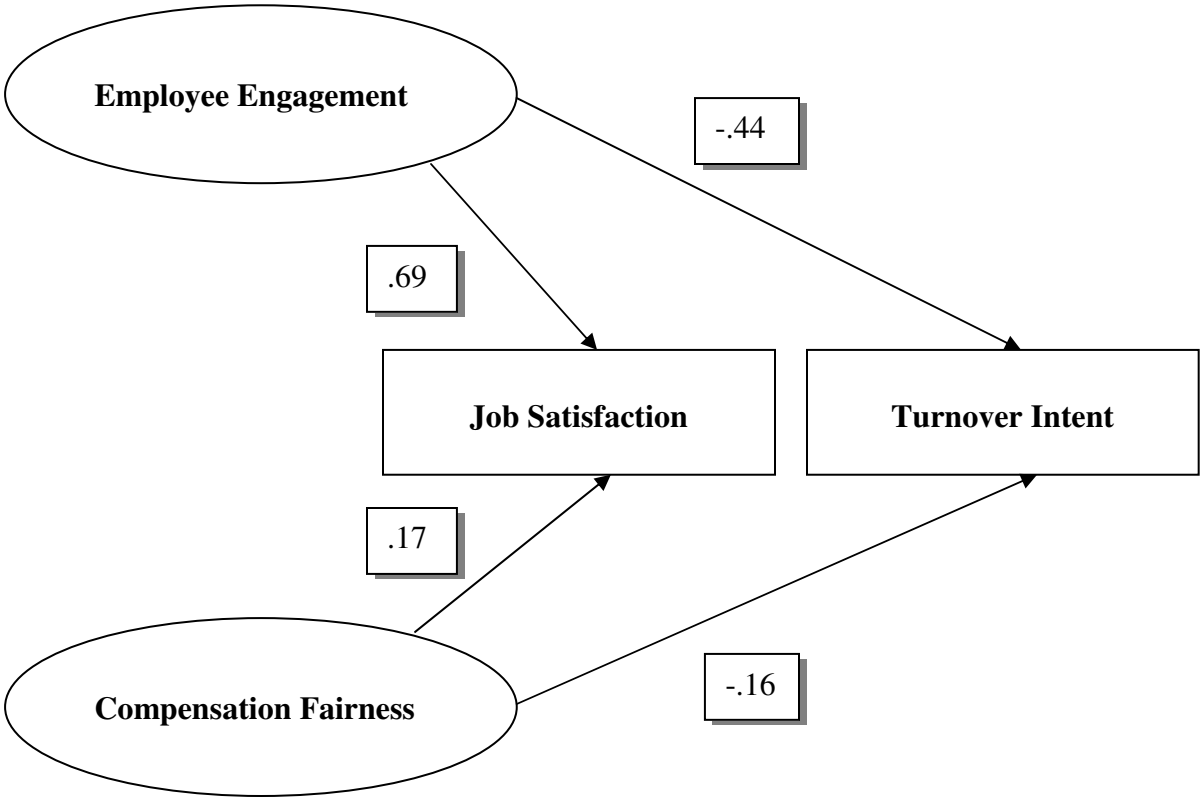

Figure 7. Accepted Model for Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent.

APPENDIX C

Table 1. Employee Engagement Items (Gallup Workplace Audit), Variable Names of Predictor Variables, and The Four Camps of the Gallup Workplace Audit (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999).

Item	Variable Names of Predictor Variables	GWA Camps
Do I know what is expected of me at work?	Expectations	Base Camp or "What do I get?)
Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?	Materials	
At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?	Opportunity	Camp 1 or "What do I give?"
In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?	Recognition	
Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?	Care	
Is there someone at work who encourages my development?	Development	
At work, do my opinions seem to count?	Opinions Count	Camp 2 or "Do I belong here?"
Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?	Mission	
Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?	Quality Work	
Do I have a best friend at work?	Best Friend	
In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?	Progress/Appraisal	Camp 3 or "How can we all grow?"
This last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?	Learn and Grow	

Table 2. Gallup Workplace Audit Items, Parallel Items in the Literature, Name of Measure, Source, Relationship with Turnover Intent and/or Age.

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
Expectations: Do I know what is expected of me at work?	Work assignments are often not fully explained. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 6-point Likert-type scale.	Job Satisfaction Survey	Spector (1997)	NA	15
	Task/goal clarity. The job duties, requirements, and goals are clear and specific. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale	Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire	Campion (1988)	NA	79
	My job duties and work objectives are unclear to me. I am unclear about whom I report to and/or who reports to me. I do not fully understand what is expected of me. Respondents rate amount of stress of a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Stress Diagnostic Survey	Ivancevich & Matteson (1980)	Job tension correlated positively with intention to quit (Deluga, 1991; Rush, Scheol, & Barnard, 1985).	130
	Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job are. Respondents rated frequency on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Job-Related Tension Index	Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek (with Rosenthal) (1964)	NA	125

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	I don't know what is expected of me. My responsibilities are clearly defined. I know what my responsibilities are. I have clear planned goals and objectives for my job. The planned goals and objectives are not clear. I know what is expected of me. Explanations are clear of what has to be done. Respondents rated agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Role Conflict and Ambiguity	House, Schuler, & Levanoni (1983)	Role ambiguity correlated positively with turnover intention (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994; Westman, 1992).	149
	I have clear planned goals and objectives for my job I know exactly what is expected of me. I know what my responsibilities are. I feel certain about how much responsibility I have. My responsibilities are clearly defined. Respondents rated agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Cross-Cultural Role Conflict, Ambiguity, and Overload	Peterson, Smith, Akande, Ayestaran, Bochner, Callan, Cho, Jesuino, D'Amorim, Francois, Hofmann, Koopman, Leung, Lim, Mortazavi, Munene, Radford, Ropo, Savage, Setiadi, Sinha, Sorenson, & Viedge, (1995)	NA	155

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	I know exactly what is expected of me. Explanation is clear of what has to be done. I know what my responsibilities are. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	Role Conflict and Ambiguity	Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman (1970)	Netemeyer, Johnston, and Barton (1990) found neither role conflict nor role ambiguity directly affected propensity to leave.	147
Materials: Do I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right?	How do you feel about what you have available for doing your job—I mean the equipment, information, good supervision, and so on? Respondents rate satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Satisfaction with Job Facets	Rentsch & Steel (1992)	Measure correlated negatively with intention to quit (McFarlin & Rice, 1992; Steel & Rentsch, 1997)	26
	Not having enough help or equipment to get the job done well. Respondents rate frequency on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Occupational Stress Scale	House, McMichael, Wells, Kaplan, & Landerman (1979)	NA	135
	I receive assignments without adequate resources and material to execute them. Respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Role Conflict and Ambiguity	Rizzo et al. (1970)	Netemeyer et al.(1990) found neither role conflict nor role ambiguity directly affected propensity to leave.	147
Opportunity: At work, do I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day?	The chance your job gives you to do what you are best at. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 4-point Likert-type scale.	Job Satisfaction Relative to Expectations	Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley (1991)	NA	6

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, (1967)	Overall Job Satisfaction found negatively correlated to propensity to leave (Klenke-Hamel & Mathieu, 1990; Smith & Brannick, 1990) and negatively correlated with intention to quit (Sagie, 1998)	8
	Your opportunity to use your abilities. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Global Job Satisfaction	Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr (1981)	NA	27
	Can you use all your knowledge and skills in your work? End-point anchors are 1 = very little, 5 = very much.	Control and Complexity	Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel (1996)	NA	98
	I feel that my work utilizes my full abilities. I feel competent and fully able to handle my job. My job gives me a chance to do the things I feel I do best. I feel that my job and I are well matched. I feel I have adequate preparation for the job I now hold. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Perceived Ability-Job Fit	Xie (1996)	Xie (1996) found that perceived ability-job fit was correlated positively with age.	233

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
Recognition: In the last seven days, have I received recognition or praise for doing good work?	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. There are few rewards for those who work here. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 6-point Likert-type scale.	Job Satisfaction Survey	Spector (1997)	NA	15
	The recognition you get for good work. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Global Job Satisfaction	Cook et al. (1981)	NA	27
	This organization appreciates my accomplishments on the job. This organization does all that it can to recognize employees for good performance. My efforts on the job are largely ignored or overlooked by this organization. Respondent rate agreement on a 4-point Likert-type scale.	Organizational Commitment Scale	Balfour & Wechsler (1996)	NA	60
	Recognition. The job provides acknowledgment and recognition from others. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire	Campion (1988)	NA	79

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	My supervisor praises good work. My supervisor rewards me for good performance. Respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Supportive and Non-Controlling Supervision	Oldham & Cummings (1996)	Supportive supervision correlated negatively with intentions to quit (Oldham, & Cummings, 1996).	106-107
	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice Respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Perceived Organizational Support	Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa (1986)	Perceived organization support correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1993).	118
	Offers praise for good performance. 1 of 54 Q-sort items	Organizational Culture Profile	O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991)	O'Reilly et al. (1991) found person-organization fit negatively correlated with intention to leave and turnover.	223

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
Care: Does my supervisor, or someone at work, seem to care about me as a person?	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization. I feel like "part of the family" at this organization. The people I work for do not care about what happens to me. Respondents rate agreement on a 4-point Likert-type scale.	Organizational Commitment Scale	Balfour & Wechsler (1996)	Affiliation was negatively related to age (Kacmar, Carlson, & Brymer, 1999).	60
	The organization really cares about my well-being. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor. The organization shows very little concern for me. Respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Perceived Organizational Support	Eisenberger et al. (1986)	Perceived organization support correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Cropanzano et al, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lee & Ashforth, 1993).	118
Development: Is there someone at work who encourages my development?	The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.	Job Diagnostic Survey	Hackman & Oldham (1974)		
	My supervisor encourages me to develop new skills. Respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Supportive and Non-controlling Supervision	Oldham & Cummings (1996)	Supportive supervision correlated negatively with intentions to quit (Oldham, & Cummings, 1996).	106

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations. My supervisor cares about whether or not I achieve my goals. My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization. My supervisor supports my attempts to acquire additional training or education to further my career. My supervisor assigns me special projects that increase my visibility in the organization. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Supervisory Support	Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley (1990)	NA	108
Opinions Count: At work, do my opinions seem to count?	The attention paid to suggestions you make. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Global Job Satisfaction	Cook et al. (1981)	NA	27
	The organization cares about my opinions. Respondents rated agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Perceived Organizational Support	Eisenberger et al. (1986)	Perceived organization support correlated negatively with turnover intentions (Cropanzano et al, 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lee & Ashforth, 1993).	118

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you. Respondents rated frequency on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Job-Related Tension Index	Kahn et al. (1964)	NA	125
Mission: Does the mission/purpose of my company make me feel my job is important?	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. The goals of the organization are not clear to me. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 6-point Likert-type scale.	Job Satisfaction Survey	Spector (1997)	NA	15
	In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people? Respondents circle a number on a continuum. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things. Respondents rate the accuracy of the statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Job Diagnostic Survey, with revisions	Hackman & Oldham (1974) Idaszak & Drasgow (1987)	NA	73
	Task significance. The job is significant and important compared with other jobs in the organization. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire	Campion (1988)	NA	79

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	I do not understand the part my job plays in meeting overall organizational objectives. Respondents rate amount of stress of a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Stress Diagnostic Survey	Ivancevich et al. (1980)	Job tension correlated positively with intention to quit (Deluga, 1991; Rush et al, 1985).	130
	My job is meaningless. Respondents rate items in terms of frequency and degree on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Work-Specific Control Problems	Remondet & Hansson (1991)	NA	141
Quality Work: Are my co-workers committed to doing quality work?	I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with. Respondents rate satisfaction on a 6-point Likert-type scale.	Job Satisfaction Survey	Spector (1997)	NA	15
	People on your present job: Stimulating Boring Slow Ambitious Stupid Responsible Intelligent Smart Lazy Active Loyal Work well together Respondents rate as Y or N.	Job Descriptive Index	Roznowski (1989)	The composite measure was negatively correlated with turnover intentions in Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993).	25

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
Best Friend: Do I have a best friend at work?	How much opportunity is there to meet individuals who you would like to develop friendship with? To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work? Friendship from my co-workers. The opportunity in my job to get to know other people. The opportunity to develop close friendships in my job. Respondents rate amount using a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Job Characteristics Survey	Sims, Szilagyi, & Kelller (1976)	NA	76-78
	Developing friends at work. 1 of 54 Q-sort items.	Organizational Culture Profile	O'Reilly et al. (1991)	O'Reilly et al. (1991) found person-organization fit negatively correlated with intention to leave and turnover.	223
Progress/Appraisal: In the last six months, has someone at work talked to me about my progress?	Supervision on present job: Tells me where I stand. Respondent rates as Y or N.	Job Descriptive Index	Roznowski (1989)	The composite measure was negatively correlated with turnover intentions in Cropanzano et al. (1993).	25

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job? Respondents circle a number on a continuum. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback about how well I am doing in my work. Respondents rate accuracy using a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Job Diagnostic Survey, With Revisions	Hackman & Oldham (1974) Idaszak & Drasgow (1987)	NA	74
	To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working? To what extent do you receive information from your superior on your job performance? The feedback on how well I'm doing. The opportunity to find out how well I am doing on my job. The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly. Respondents rate amount on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Job Characteristics Survey	Sims et al. (1976)	NA	76-78

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	Extrinsic job feedback. Other people in the organization, such as managers and co-workers, provide information as to the effectiveness (e.g., quality and quantity) of your job performance. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Multimethod Job Design Questionnaire	Campion (1988)	NA	79
	My supervisor gives me helpful feedback about my performance. My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Supervisory Support	Greenhaus et al. (1990)	NA	108
Learn and Grow: This last year, have I had opportunities at work to learn and grow?	The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.	Job Diagnostic Survey	Hackman & Oldham (1974)		
	Can you learn new things in your work? End-point anchors are 1 = very little, 5 = very much.	Control and Complexity	Frese et al. (1996)	NA	98
	My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills. Respondents rate agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale.	Supervisory Support	Greenhaus et al. (1990)	NA	108

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	In the positions that I have held at [company name], I have often been given additional challenging assignments. IN the positions that I have held at [company name], I have often been assigned projects that have enabled me to develop and strengthen new skills. Besides formal training and development opportunities, to what extent have your managers helped to develop your skills by providing you with challenging job assignments? Regardless of [company's names}'s policy on training and development, to what extent have your managers made a substantial investment in you by providing formal training and development opportunities? For first 2 items, respondents rate agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale. For items 3 and 4, respondents rate extent on a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Developmental Experiences	Wayne, Shore, & Liden (1997)	NA	109
	I have few opportunities to grow and learn new knowledge and skills in my job. Respondents rate amount of stress of a 7-point Likert-type scale.	Stress Diagnostic Survey	Ivancevich et al. (1980)	Job tension correlated positively with intention to quit (Deluga, 1991; Rush et al., 1985).	130

Predictor Variable: GWA Item	Parallel Item	Measure	Source	Relationship with Turnover Intent/Age	Page
	Opportunities for professional growth. 1 of 54 Q-sort items.	Organizational Culture Profile	O'Reilly et al. (1991)	O'Reilly et al. (1991) found person-organization fit negatively correlated with intention to leave and turnover.	223

Table 3. Employee Engagement by Career Stage.

Variable	Young Workers (Age 35 and under)	Early and Late Mid-Career Workers (Age 36-54)	Mature Workers (Age 55 and older)
Understand Expectations	Are learning expectations.	Know expectations.	May mentor others teaching them expectations.
Materials	Technologically savvy. Else, learning materials/equipment used on the job.	Has a fair knowledge of materials and equipment needed to do job.	New technology may present challenges.
Opportunity	Searching for opportunities to excel. This may necessitate lateral move or job change.	May be ready for leadership positions held by mature workers.	Likely have found a job where they have had the opportunity to do what they do best.
Recognition	May be recognized for growth, if demonstrated.	May not be recognized.	Likely receives recognition for years of service.
Care	May receive care based on marriage, pregnancy, becoming acclimated to the workforce (mentored).	May receive less care but in greatest need.	May receive care based on declining health (or spouse's declining health) or years/months left to retirement.
Development	May be encouraged to develop appropriate work skills.	May be overwhelmed by encouragement to continue development and take on additional responsibilities.	Since they are closer to retirement age, may not be encouraged to continue development of job-related skills.
Opinions Count	Opinions are likely valued least.	Opinions are likely valued.	If in leadership positions, opinions may have more weight than if not.

Table 3. Employee Engagement by Career Stage, continued.

Variable	Young Workers (Age 35 and under)	Early and Late Mid-Career Workers (Age 36-54)	Mature Workers (Age 55 and older)
Mission	If in entry-level position, may feel job is not important in mission of company.	May feel job is important to company's mission.	If in leadership position, may feel job is critical in mission of company.
Quality Work	See co-workers as doing quality work and aspire to do the same.	Feel sandwiched between younger workers who are improving and mature workers who are at the top of their careers.	See co-workers as doing less than quality work.
Best Friend	May not yet have a best friend at work.	May have a best friend at work.	Best friends may have retired.
Progress/Appraisal	Is mentored and evaluated frequently.	Is mentored less. Is evaluated less frequently.	Evaluated least. Mentors others.
Learn and Grow	Have plenty of opportunities. May be overwhelmed by all of opportunities but have the energy to put into them.	May be exhausted from trying to meet the demands of all opportunities that are available.	May not be challenged by opportunities that are available or see them as a waste of time.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Faculty for Employee Engagement Scale, Compensation Fairness Factor, Job Satisfaction, and Turnover Intent.

Scale	Variable	Rank	Mean*	Median	Mode	SD	Variance
Employee Engagement	Expectations	1	1.64	1.00	1	0.860	0.740
	Materials	7	2.22	2.00	2	1.067	1.138
	Opportunity	6	2.18	2.00	2	1.068	1.140
	Recognition	12	2.85	3.00	2	1.336	1.786
	Care	4	2.01	2.00	1	1.116	1.245
	Development	8	2.25	2.00	2	1.147	1.316
	Opinions Count	10	2.27	2.00	2	1.158	1.342
	Mission	9	2.26	2.00	2	1.092	1.192
	Quality Work	5	2.05	2.00	2	0.977	0.954
	Best Friend	2	1.96	2.00	2	0.961	0.924
	Progress/Appraisal	11	2.38	2.00	2	1.199	1.438
	Learn and Grow	3	1.99	2.00	2	0.959	0.920
Compensation Fairness	Internal Comp.	2	2.96	3.00	2	1.250	1.563
	External Comp.	3	3.60	4.00	5	1.229	1.510
	Benefits	1	2.23	2.00	2	0.939	0.881
	Turnover Intent	NA	3.04	3.00	2	1.171	1.372
	Job Satisfaction	NA	2.27	2.00	2	0.982	0.965

Table 5. Standardized Regression Weights for A Priori Two-Factor Measurement Weights Model.

Scale	Variable	Young Workers	Early Mid-Career Workers	Late Mid-Career Workers	Mature Workers
Employee Engagement	Expectations	.618	.543	.574	.580
	Materials	.571	.584	.582	.590
	Opportunity	.655	.638	.651	.615
	Recognition	.699	.696	.694	.703
	Care	.812	.795	.795	.781
	Development	.829	.820	.797	.801
	Opinions Count	.788	.807	.823	.795
	Mission	.629	.645	.615	.620
	Quality Work	.493	.540	.527	.527
	Best Friend	.358	.333	.353	.341
	Progress/Appraisal	.654	.624	.612	.586
	Learn & Grow	.721	.715	.673	.677
Compensation Fairness	Internal Compensation	.871	.871	.873	.918
	External Compensation	.787	.771	.781	.799
	Benefits	.450	.432	.456	.451

*All coefficients are $p < .001$.

Table 6. Standardized Regression Weights for Revised Two-Factor Measurement Weights Model.

Scale	Variable	Young Workers	Early Mid-Career Workers	Late Mid-Career Workers	Mature Workers
Employee Engagement	Expectations	.617	.541	.572	.578
	Materials	.572	.585	.583	.592
	Opportunity	.655	.638	.650	.614
	Recognition	.702	.698	.697	.706
	Care	.810	.795	.796	.781
	Development	.830	.820	.797	.801
	Opinions Count	.790	.809	.826	.796
	Mission	.629	.644	.614	.618
	Quality Work	.490	.536	.524	.523
	Progress/Appraisal	.653	.623	.610	.586
	Learn & Grow	.720	.714	.671	.674
Compensation Fairness	Internal Compensation	.871	.872	.874	.918
	External Compensation	.786	.770	.780	.799
	Benefits	.449	.431	.455	.450

* All coefficients are $p < .001$.

Table 7. Summary Table of Measurement Models.

Model	CMIN	DF	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
A priori--12 and 3 items					
Unconstrained	1110.368	356	.902	.042	1.000
Measurement Weights	1163.754	401	.901	.040	1.000
Δ	53.386	45	.001	.002	n/a
Revised--11 and 3 items					
Unconstrained	1019.798	304	.905	.044	.999
Measurement Weights	1073.579	346	.904	. 042	1.000
Δ	53.781	42	.001	.002	.001

Table 8. Summary Table of Structural Models.

Model	CMIN	DF	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
All Paths Model Assessing Direct Relationships	1182.286	396	.900	.41	1.000
Model Assessing Mediating Effects of Job Satisfaction	1456.804	464	.891	.042	1.000
No Job Satisfaction Effects	1457.659	465	.891	.042	1.000
Δ	0.855	1	<.001	<.001	n/a
Constrained Model with No Job Satisfaction Effects	1457.659	465	891	.042	1.000

Table 9. Summary Table of Hypotheses.

Hypothesis	Finding
1a: Turnover Intent Inversely Related to Employee Engagement	Supported
1b: Turnover Intent Inversely Related to Compensation Fairness	Supported
2a: Job Satisfaction Mediates Employee Engagement—Turnover Intent Relationship	Not Supported
2b: Job Satisfaction mediates Compensation Fairness—Turnover Intent Relationship	Not Supported
3a:Age Moderates Employee Engagement—Turnover Intent Relationship	Not Supported
3b:Age Moderates Employee Engagement—Turnover Intent Relationship	Not Supported

Table 10. Post Hoc ANOVA for Age Differences in Study Variables

Variable	Groups	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Employee Engagement	Between Groups	162.711	3	54.237	.959	.411
	Within Groups	68388.456	1209	56.566		
	Total	68551.167	1212			
Compensation Fairness	Between Groups	12.933	3	4.311	.736	.531
	Within Groups	7083.451	1209	5.859		
	Total	7096.384	1212			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	2.340	3	.780	.817	.485
	Within Groups	1154.637	1209	.955		
	Total	1156.977	1212			
Turnover Intent	Between Groups	4.774	3	1.591	.802	.493
	Within Groups	2398.371	1209	1.984		
	Total	2403.145	1212			

VITA

Mary Lynn Berry is a Family and Consumer Science teacher in Knoxville. She received her B.S. in Psychology at Mississippi State University in Starkville, Mississippi and her M.S. in Family Studies from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. While completing requirements for her PhD in Business Administration with concentration in Human Resource Development, Mary Lynn served as Graduate Teaching Assistant for HRD 350: Human Resource Development Training Systems: Strategies and Techniques. She is currently employed with Knox County Schools as a Family and Consumer Sciences Educator for high school career and technical education students.

Publications

Slayton, M. L. (1996) *Marital Satisfaction, Family Strengths, and Gender: Implications for Marriage Enrichment*. Thesis. The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Conference Presentations and Proceedings

Berry, M.L., & Morris, M.L. (2005). Organizational factors influencing sexual harassment prevention programs. Presented at the 14th Academy for Human Resource Development Conference, Estes Park, Colorado.

Berry, M.L., & Morris, M.L. (2004). Research and theory: A theoretical framework for addressing training needs associated with sexual harassment prevention programs. Presented at the 13th Academy for Human Resource Development Conference, Austin, Texas.

Whaley, H.M., **Berry, M.L**., & Morris, M.L. (2003). Exploring potential gender

differences in sexual harassment beliefs of pre-workforce participants: A descriptive study. Presented at the 12th Academy for Human Resource Development Conference, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Whaley, H.M., **Berry, M.L**., & Morris, M.L. (2003). Exploring potential gender differences in sexual harassment beliefs of pre-workforce participants: A descriptive study. Presented at the 65th National Council on Family Relations, Vancouver, B.C.

Morris, M. L., Roberts, L., **Slayton, M. L.,** & Carter, S. (1996, February). The B.E.S.T. (Building and Enriching Stronger Tennessee) Families Program. Proposal submitted for the 1996 National Council on Family Relations Annual Conference, Kansas City, Missouri.