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EFFECT OF TRAINING OPPORTUNITY AND JOB SATISFACTION ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG GEN X AND GEN Y

Regin Justin
University of Texas at Tyler

EFFECT OF TRAINING OPPORTUNITY AND JOB SATISFACTION ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG GEN X AND GEN Y

by

REGIN JUSTIN

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Greg G. Wang, Ph.D., Committee Co-Chair
Paul Roberts, Ph.D., Committee Co-Chair

Soules College of Business

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This is to certify that the Doctoral Dissertation of

Regin Justin

has been approved for the dissertation requirement on 07/07/2021

for the Human Resource Development Ph.D. Degree

Approvals:

DocuSigned by:
Greg Wang
C307E6AF0D36432...
Dissertation Co-Chair:

DocuSigned by:
Paul Roberts
062545B0D91B4AE...
Dissertation Co-Chair:

DocuSigned by:
Venugopal Gopalakrishna-Remani
8F8A5487E78C4F0...
Member:

DocuSigned by:
KIM NIXON
18CDC84E2CD9400...
Chair, Department of Human Resource Development

DocuSigned by:
krist Swinberghe
987D57C14D9F4AA...
Dean, Soules College of Business

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Abstract

EFFECT OF TRAINING OPPORTUNITY AND JOB SATISFACTION ON TURNOVER INTENTIONS AMONG GEN X AND GEN Y

Regin Justin

Dissertation Co-Chair: Greg G. Wang, Ph.D.
Dissertation Co-Chair: Paul Roberts, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Tyler
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Employee turnover costs billions of dollars for companies every year, and it has been increasing over the years. Multiple studies have explored the different antecedents that affect turnover intentions. However, there has been little focus on the effects of training opportunities on turnover intentions. This study examines the impacts of training opportunity on job satisfaction and turnover intention among the generation X and generation Y cohorts in the United States. A total of 252 respondents completed questionnaires that assessed the internal elements of the model among Amazon mturk workers. Data from the measurements of training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention supported the hypothesized model. Measurement invariance results between groups were discussed for the three-factor turnover intentions model. Latent mean analysis was conducted for the best fitting model. Structural equation modeling analysis indicated that training opportunity was positively associated with turnover intentions and job satisfaction was negatively related to turnover intentions for generation Y. Training opportunity, and job satisfaction had a negative association to turnover intention for generation X. Implications to research, practice, and future research directions were discussed.

Keywords: training, training opportunity, job satisfaction, turnover intention, measurement invariance

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter offers an overview of the background to the research problem. I then present the statement of the problem, followed by the purpose of the study. Next, the theoretical framework of the study is reviewed. I further discuss the significance of the study. An overview of the design is presented. Finally, the delimitations and the definition of terms used in the study are provided.

Background to the Problem

Human resources are the most important of all the resources in an organization (Ishida, 1986). Human capital is productivity-enhancing, and its loss causes adverse effects on the organization's performance (Wintrobe & Breton, 1986). Experienced employees possess tacit knowledge, and they have hard-to-replace skills, which leads to an expensive turnover (McKnight et al., 2009). In the United States, the overall turnover is at a very high level of 44.3%, and it slowly increased from 40% over the past five years (US Department of Labor, 2018). The main factors contributing to turnover include global issues, organizational changes, and employee concerns.

Global shock events such as Brexit, outsourcing, visa issues for foreign workers preventing worker movement across countries, the rise of populism, and increasing trade barriers are some of the global factors contributing to turnover. For example, in examining Brexit's impact on human resource practices, Ridgway (2019) found that the "war for talent" might increase because of the talent flow restriction into the United Kingdom. Outsourcing is another event that impacts the employees in an organization; it results in the loss of jobs for some employees and damages morale among the surviving employees, contributing to turnover intentions (Brooks, 2006).

Organizational level changes that contribute to turnover include mergers and acquisitions (Wanberg & Banas, 2000), corporate restructuring (Freese et al., 2011), leadership changes (James

et al., 2007), and reduction in the budget (Forrester & Adams, 1997). Turnover impacts all levels of employees in an organization. Different employees behave differently on turnover; therefore, it is critical to focus on all employee segments to improve retention (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). Past studies had shown that turnover was more visible in the upper management after a merger or an acquisition (Walsh, 1988; Chun, 2009). The mismatch between a manager's ethical values and those of an organization also caused turnover (Kangas et al., 2016).

Jacobs and Roodt (2008) posited that turnover intention was an accurate predictor of turnover. If the antecedents of turnover intention were interpreted accurately, it helped the employer influence turnover intention and eventually reduced turnover. The onset of the retirement of baby boomers was another area of concern, resulting in the organization's loss of critical skills (Harden et al., 2018). Generation Y is the largest generation in the US workplace, and research reveals that they change jobs fast, and it is challenging to motivate and retain them in the organization (Solomon, 2000; Rosli & Hassim, 2017). Studies had found varying outcomes on the turnover intention behavior of Generation X and Generation Y. Cassidy and Berube (2009) found that Generation Y exhibited a higher voluntary turnover rate when compared to members of Generation X. In contrast, another study revealed that Generation X and Generation Y cohorts had a higher turnover intention (Dudley et al., 2009). The contrasting findings in previous studies stressed the need for more research on turnover intentions from a generational cohort perspective (Davis et al., 2006; Kowske et al., 2010; Leiter et al., 2010).

In a Deloitte (2019) survey, only 49% of an organization's employees were satisfied with their job design, and only 43% of the employees believed that their organizations provided the right growth opportunities. Similarly, in a Gallup survey on the state of the global workplace, 82% of the employees were not satisfied with their jobs, causing seven trillion dollars in lost

productivity (Misra, 2018). The Gallup and Deloitte surveys' findings helped understand the urgency the organizations must show to improve the workplace environment. Lack of satisfaction with the workplace tools and technology was one reason for job dissatisfaction (Deloitte, 2019). Past research showed that generation X employees had a technical skill deficit compared to generation Y employees (Ahmed & Ibrahim, 2015). A significant factor that impacted turnover intentions and influenced job satisfaction in an organization included a lack of training opportunities (Hur & Ha, 2019; Kim, 2009; Rahayu et al., 2019).

Training opportunity impacted turnover across industries such as hospitality (Pang et al., 2015), nursing (Mahfod, 2014), information technology (Shah et al., 2001), and higher education (Berheide et al., 2020). Therefore, it becomes essential for the organization to envision training strategies that make the human resources they employ suit their purposes for achieving organizational goals while at the same time considering those employee's aptitudes and preferences (Uma, 2013). Training opportunities would have to be collaboratively developed, implying a broad consensus between trainers and trainees (Tweedie et al., 2019). Steiner (2001) had been vocal in stating that bureaucratized organizations were less amenable to change, negatively impacting the workforce. Similarly, Coram and Burnes (2001) argued that public sector organizations must affect organizational changes to respond to changing situations. Training was seen as an indispensable component to usher in organizational change. Thus, training has occupied strategic importance in the learning and development of work cycles of the staff/workforce, whether in staff or line functions in which they were engaged; for this reason, training was considered critical for the growth of the organizations as well (McCrindle, 2006). A stark reality that confronts the organizations is that the training or learning styles are not the same for the different generations (Cekada, 2012). Hence, organizations need to assess, formulate, and

implement training strategies that better suit each generation. However, recent research that explored training concerning the generational cohort had been limited in the United States, and even among those, there were methodological limitations.

Statement of the Problem

Turnover impacted organizations, employees, families, and the economy (Cosar et al., 2016). From an organizational perspective, turnover caused wastage of resources and loss of customers. Turnover caused employee health issues, impacted family life, and was directly linked to monetary losses (Lui & Johnston, 2019). Shortage of talent caused companies to move to different countries where affordable labor was available (Schuler et al., 2011). Other factors contributing to increased turnover included lack of training and development opportunities and pressure to prepare for certification exams during an employee's off-hours (Schuler et al., 2011). Lack of training and development opportunities lead to an increase in project failures (Kum et al., 2014), employee demotivation (Luthuli et al., 2019), and lack of career progression (Ackah & Heaton, 2003).

Individuals' work-related attitudes vary by generation; therefore, the focus was on generational cohorts' role in this study. Based on a labor participation study (Fry, 2018), Generation X and Generation Y contributed to 68% of the current workforce. Generation X's workforce participation had reduced from 50% in 1994 to 33 % in 2018. Most Generation X employees are now managers, and they have different work ethics contributing to conflict with their Generation Y peers and subordinates (Kerr & Gascoigne, 1996; Murphy & Gibson, 2010). The workplace conflict between generations could lead to a loss of productivity and profitability in organizations (Macon & Artley, 2009).

This research addressed the two problem areas in turnover intentions research: inconsistent results across empirical studies and inadequate measuring techniques for the various factors impacting turnover intentions. Reasons for inconsistent and inconclusive findings included methodological limitations as well as non-robust sample sizes. The issues with measurement methods included not conducting construct validity and discriminant validity tests for the constructs, performing group comparisons using mean and standard deviation instead of performing measurement invariance testing, and comparing latent mean differences (Boer et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this cross-sectional quantitative study was to investigate the effect of training opportunity and job satisfaction on turnover intentions among Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

The following hypothesized relationships were tested,

H1: Training opportunity is positively related to job satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H2: Training Opportunity has a direct and negative relationship to turnover intentions for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H3: Training Opportunity has an indirect relationship to turnover intention through job Satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

*H*4: Job Satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H5: Generational X and Generation Y Cohorts have significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Theoretical Framework

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1971) and the Generational cohort theory informed this study. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory supported the phenomenon that training caused job satisfaction, contributing to retention.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, also known as the 2-factor theory, explained an individual's job satisfaction level changes based on motivation and hygiene factors. Motivation factors helped create an environment of positive feelings and improved job satisfaction, whereas hygiene factors helped eliminate job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, lack of presence of motivational factors did not create job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1971). Motivational factors included rewards and recognition, growth in the organization, development opportunities, nature of the work, and roles and responsibilities. Hygiene factors included policies and practices in the organization, work benefits, environmental conditions, supervisory support, personal life, and job security (Herzberg, 1971).

Generational Cohort Theory

Generational Cohort theory stated that an individual's attitudes and values were shaped by the events and the societal changes during their early years (Nelson, 2012). Currently, in the workplace, there are four major generational cohorts: "Baby Boomers," born between 1946 and 1960; "Generation X," born between 1960 and 1980; "Generation Y," born between 1980 and 1995 and "Generation Z," born after 1995 (Ng & Parry, 2016).

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is its support for HRD literature on training opportunity, turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and generational cohort. Demonstrating the negative

relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions helps strengthen the existing research findings, which stated that training opportunity increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover intentions (Gebregziabher et al., 2020; Pang et al., 2015). In addition, this study helps researchers understand if turnover intentions differed across generational cohorts and whether job satisfaction mediated the relationship between training opportunity and turnover intention. This study uses advanced statistical techniques to address the inconclusive and inconsistent findings and the methodological issues in the generational cohort studies on turnover intention.

This study answers the call for research on Generation X to understand if Generation X's workplace values have remained stable or have changed over time (Jones et al., 2018; Popiel & Fairlie, 1996). Comparing the Generation X cohort to past research findings among Generation X and Boomers helps understand if the employees' work attitudes are related to their generational cohorts or just a function of age. This study responds to the call to use advanced methodologies such as structural equation modeling and measurement invariance to assess the relationship between the different work attributes (Hur & Ha, 2019).

Understanding the role of training opportunities for job satisfaction could help organizations implement workplace training programs that align with human resource development practices that aid employee retention (Schmidt, 2010). Suppose the causes of turnover from a generational cohort perspective were understood; in that case, employers could redesign management and employee training plans to accommodate employees' specific needs across different generations.

Overview of the Design

This quantitative study used a survey design by collecting anonymous data. The intended population was employees in Generation X and the Generation Y cohorts in the United States. The

rationale behind choosing the quantitative research method and survey design was that it enabled the researcher to use a large sample. Based on the recommendations for conducting confirmatory factor analysis, a sample size of 10 respondents per variable item was chosen for each of the cohorts (Munro, 2005). The Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTURK) website was used to conduct the survey. Qualtrics® was used to collect the survey responses. Amazon MTURK was used as the survey tool because MTURK provided the desired and diverse population of working individuals to study work-related outcomes based on the generational cohort (Mason & Suri, 2011).

Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software package for the R and IBM SPSS AMOS tool. First, data cleaning was done, followed by descriptive statistics analysis, and then construct validity testing was performed using R. Common method variance was examined using the single-factor Harman model. Measurement model analysis was done to identify the best fitting model. Measurement model analysis was done for generation X, generation Y and pooled sample (generation X and generation Y) data. Measurement invariance was conducted as a pre-requisite for the structural model analysis and latent mean difference analysis. The hypotheses were tested using the structural model and latent mean difference analysis.

Delimitations

There were four delimitations present in this study. First, the study was restricted to all individuals above the age of 18. Second, the study focused on individuals who have either worked or working in the United States. Third, the respondents may have had issues recalling the information accurately. Fourth, the data analysis was limited to the responses that belonged to the generation X and generation Y cohorts.

Definition of Terms

Training

Training is defined as “a process of systematically developing work-related knowledge and expertise in people for the purpose of improving performance” (Swanson & Holton, 2001, p.204).

Training Opportunity

Training opportunity is defined as an offer by an organization that provides access to a set of tools that helps to systematically improve an employee’s work-related knowledge and expertise to improve job performance (Swanson & Holton, 2001, p.204; Van et al., 2020, p.2).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined to be “an employee’s affective attachment to the job viewed as global satisfaction or with regards to certain aspects of the job” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 3).

Generational Cohort

Generational cohort is defined as a "group of people who share similar birth years and similar cultural and historic events that have influenced their attitudes, values and work and career preferences" (Nelson, 2012, p. 11).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention refers to the “conscious and deliberate willfulness of the employees to leave the organization” (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 4).

Measurement Invariance

Measurement invariance is defined as “the equivalence of measured constructs in two or more independent groups to assure that the same constructs are being assessed in each group” (Chen et al., 2005, p. 2).

Construct Validity

Construct validity is defined as *"*a set of procedures for evaluating a testing instrument based on the degree to which the test items identify the quality, ability, or trait it was designed to measure*"* (Gavazzi et al., 2011, p. 4*).*

Chapter Summary

Chapter one reviewed the background to the problem, elaborated on the statement of the problem, and provided an outline for the purpose of the study. Next, the theoretical framework and the significance of the study were discussed. Finally, an overview of the design of the study was provided, followed by the definition of the different terms used in the study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter reviews and analyzes the literature relevant to the constructs of training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. I first articulate the literature search criteria, followed by presenting the theoretical underpinnings. I further present the literature on the key constructs and variables in training and training opportunity, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and their relationships across generations X and Y. Research gaps and hypotheses are derived along with the review and analysis of the literature.

Literature Search Criteria

I searched the literature by using the Google Scholar search engine, and the following databases provided access to all the journal articles: Scopus, JSTOR, Research gate, Academia.edu, and ProQuest. For articles that I did not have access to in Google scholar, the UT Tyler online library was used. The keywords used in the search included turnover, turnover intention, technology, job satisfaction, training or training opportunity, and generational cohort theory, and all different combinations of the above keywords.

The first iteration of the search resulted in 1,030,000 articles when the keywords “job satisfaction” and “training” were used. Then the outcome variable “turnover intention” was included, and 34,400 articles were returned for that criterion. Since this study was focused on Generation Y and Generation X, the next criteria involved adding Generation Y and Generation X to the search condition, and the search query returned 1920 entries when the keyword “Generation Y” was included. The same query, when replaced with the keyword “Generation X,” returned 1480 articles. Finally, both the generational cohorts were included in the search, and it returned 980 articles.

The second iteration of the search yielded 2040 articles for "job satisfaction" and "training opportunity." Then, the variable "turnover intention" was included, and the search returned 233 articles. Incorporating the keyword "Generation X" to the previous search criteria resulted in 23 articles, and including the keyword, "Generation Y" resulted in 10 articles.

The following strategy was followed to select articles for the variables: turnover intention, job satisfaction, training, and training opportunity. The literature review was limited to peer-reviewed journals. Once the relevant article was identified, the article reference sections were examined to gain more insight into the original study and referenced critical information if it existed there. The following criteria were used in the selection of works that contributed to the theoretical framework of the study: the significance of the articles' empirical contribution based on the number of citations it has received in the Google scholar, the time during which the article was published, the industries in which a study was done, and the methodology used in the study.

Theoretical Underpinnings

This study was based on the Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory and the Generational cohort theory.

The basic premise of Herzberg's theory was that some factors lead to positive attitudes towards work, whereas others lead to negative attitudes. Positive attitudes can be referred to as job satisfaction and negative attitudes as job dissatisfaction. The factors influencing job satisfaction or dissatisfaction were categorized into motivational and hygiene factors (Chu & Kuo, 2015). The motivational factors identified by Herzberg's theory included: "Achievement," "Recognition," "Work itself," "Responsibility," "Advancement," and "Growth." The hygiene factors included: "Company policy," "Supervision," "Working Conditions," "Interpersonal relations," "Salary," "Status," "Job security," and "Personal life" (Pardee, 1990). Training opportunity falls under

Herzberg's two-factor theory's motivational realm as training helped an individual advance, grow, and achieve in his career. Herzberg posited that an individual responded to turnover intentions when factors playing a role in job satisfaction were negatively impacted. One of the factors that contributed to job satisfaction was high-quality training (Schmidt, 2007). If the employee believed that the job did not contribute to their development, the employee was highly likely to have turnover intentions.

Several studies had reviewed Herzberg's two-factor theory (Tamosaitis & Schwenker, 2002; Udechukwu, 2009). In a study on nurse practitioners, Herzberg's two-factor theory was used as a theoretical framework; the nurse practitioners were most satisfied with intrinsic factors and least satisfied with their jobs' extrinsic factors (Kacel et al., 2005). Kacel et al. (2005) found that professional development opportunities improved job satisfaction and reduced the cost associated with employee turnover. A significant criticism of Herzberg's two-factor theory was that participants' socially desirable responses caused dissatisfaction to be associated with external factors rather than internal factors (Wall & Stephenson, 2007).

Herzberg's theory could serve as a framework for employers to identify what motivated and satisfied an employee so that they could perform their jobs effectively (Rizwan et al., 2014). In addition, Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory underpinned that the availability of training opportunities increased job satisfaction, thereby reducing the turnover intentions, and improving the retention rate in an organization (Ronen & Kraut, 1980).

Generations in the U.S

Mannheim (1970) hypothesized that individuals born and brought up during the same period would share common experiences and shape their generations. Generational cohort theory explained that important historical events and social changes shaped individuals born during that

period, and people belonging to the same cohort shared similar styles and characteristics that affected their cognitive and work styles (Howe & Strauss, 2000). Mannheim stressed that generations were shaped by the notable historical experiences that occurred during their youth. This study focused on Gen X and Gen Y cohorts as they constitute 68% of the working population in the United States (Clark, 2017). Organizations cannot neglect Gen X and Y, as they are in line to fill the vacancies arising out of baby boomers' retirement (Reester, 2008). Another reason to include Generation X as part of this study was that their approach to learning new things shaped the training programs in their organizations (Lankard, 1995). Generation X will start retiring from the year 2025; therefore, it is imperative to focus on their intent to turnover (Christopher et al., 2018).

Generation X Characteristics

Generation X'ers were individuals born between 1965 and 1980 (Dimock, 2019). Culturally impactful events such as the "Challenger disaster, fall of the Berlin wall, MTV, internet boom, the AIDS epidemic, LA riots, recession, and high divorce rates" shaped the values of Gen Xers (Spiegel, 2013). Gen X employees exhibited the aspiration to be self-reliant, which could be extrapolated to understand that they prefer the training programs to have a hands-on approach rather than being lecture-based (Lankard, 1995). Gen X employees valued career advancement, and this characteristic explained that training opportunities to gain promotion were important for them (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Career advancement characteristics of Generation X'ers could also have a side effect of job-hopping, which was expensive for any organization (Waikar et al., 2016). Generation X employees were more concerned about work-life balance when compared to the Baby boomer generation (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008). Gender equality was

a less radical concept to Generation X'ers when compared to the prior generations (Lyons et al., 2005).

Generation Y Characteristics

Generation Y'ers were individuals born between 1981 and 1996. Some of the incidents such as 9-11 and school shooting incidents in their lifetime have shaped their values. Howe and Strauss (2000) identified that Generation Y individuals were protected, pampered, valued team spirit, and were success-oriented. Based on their trait of focus on achieving success, it could be deduced that they gave importance to career development. Eckleberry-Hunt and Tucciarone (2011), in their study among medical educators, found that Generation Y expected the "lines of communication" to be clear and explicit. This implied that Generation Y preferred the training to be unambiguous and detail-oriented.

Generation Y individuals were interactive, but at the same time, they could be aggressive and demanding (Schlitzkus et al., 2010). Smith (2010), in a study among marketing professionals, found that Generation Y employees valued work-life balance more when compared to the prior generations, and this was prevalent across the employees in nursing (Jamieson et al., 2013) and hospitality (Brown et al., 2015). Generation Y employees preferred to learn by practice, and they did not value reading and attending lectures (Eckleberry-Hunt & Tucciarone, 2011). "Trial and Error" and "Problem-solving" were the learning styles favored by this generation (Sternberg, 2012). So, it is imperative that organizations create training opportunities that foster learning by problem-solving rather than by providing recorded lecture videos.

Table 1

Comparison between the characteristics of the generation X and generation Y

Generation X	Generation Y
Loyal to individuals rather than companies (Jorgensen, 2003).	Conditionally loyal to their employers (Brown et al., 2015).
Prefers a dynamic work environment (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).	Prefers a structured environment (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).
Work life balance (Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 2008).	Life work balance (Anderson et al., 2016).
Saves money for the future (Tolani et al., 2020).	Eager to spend money, compulsive buyers (Valentine & Powers, 2013).
Distrusts authority (Hernández & Torres, 2018)	Respects authority (Gleeson, 2003)
Cynical (Hernández & Torres, 2018)	Optimistic (Hernández & Torres, 2018)
Self-reliant (Hernández & Torres, 2018)	Team-oriented (Hernández & Torres, 2018)

Training in the HRD Literature

Training is an important measure as it could negate the negative effects of age on workplace performance (Sparrow & Davies, 1988). Lynton and Pareek (1967) defined training as an organized opportunity to acquire new skills. Technology changes at the workplace warrant continued and constant training (Llorens et al., 2002). Training leads to improved job performance, thereby causing a significant effect on wage growth (Bartel, 1995). Providing regular training opportunities increased motivation levels which, in turn, impacted the performance of the employees in the workplace. Practical training was found to significantly impact employee performance levels (Haryono et al., 2020). It is imperative that employees get access to relevant

training rather than attend all available training opportunities as it made the employees lose interest in training and causes failure of training and loss of resources (Spitzer, 1984).

Human resource development is defined as "a mechanism in shaping individual and group values and beliefs and skilling through learning-related activities to support the desired performance of the host system" (Wang et al., 2017, p.12). Based on this definition, it could be stated that training played a critical role in skilling for achieving the optimal performance of an individual. In one of the earliest studies, it was found that the skill acquired by manually repeating the processes at work offered little room for transferring the skill to other processes at work. Instead, a skill gained by adequate instruction was found to get transferred seamlessly to other areas at work (Cox, 1933). Hemphill (2000) emphasized that for effective training to occur, employees must be engaged in "information, concepts and skills they need and want to learn."

The issues faced by organizations in job training could be gauged from the fact that even though organizations were focused on providing continuous training, what they did was make the employees more specialized (Maditinos et al., 2014). Turnover of specialized employees is very expensive as the company has invested heavily in employee training. Similarly, general training was not beneficial to the organization for the simple reason that those who were trained, even though they became better specialists in their field, might try to leave for better opportunities (Becker, 1975). Another issue that plagues organizations is not attending the proper training; attending irrelevant training makes it difficult for the employees to transfer their learning to work (Ho et al., 2019; Spitzer, 1984). Hence, it was necessary to understand the origin of training and the theories that governed it. Major learning and training theories included behaviorist learning theory, cognitive learning theory, constructivist learning theory, information processing theory,

adult learning theory, transformative learning theory, social learning theory, action theory, and connectivist learning theory.

Review of Training Theories

Behaviorist learning theory focused on repeating a task until perfection. This learning approach was mostly used in classroom settings with the basic tenets of behaviorism: Positive reinforcement, Negative reinforcement, Extinction, and Punishment (Zhou & Brown, 2015). Constructivist learning theory posited that learners constructed knowledge and new meanings from their personal experiences (Poplin, 1988). Therefore, the team-based learning approach in the health care education setting utilized the constructivist learning approach (Hrynchak & Batty, 2012). The constructivist learning theory's principles included that the learner was central to the learning process, problem-solving was critical, interaction with fellow learners contributed to learning, and reflection helped learners expand their knowledge (Hrynchak & Batty, 2012).

Industrial training was either structured or unstructured. Structured training referred to the formal training of an employee through a comprehensively developed training program. Unstructured training was the on-the-job training provided to a new employee by an experienced employee. Structured training was more effective as the time taken to train an employee was significantly less than in the unstructured training method. Loss of production was higher when the unstructured training method was used (Cullen et al., 1976).

Bandura (1971, 1977) was credited for advancing social learning theory, culminating in many studies on observational learning. This theory postulates that a training model is developed, and the employees use it to model their behavior and improve their performance. The training model helps the learner to understand the different techniques, attempting to reproduce them in their work. The outcome of the observational learning model was dependent on the attention level

of the employee, his ability to retain the information shared, and the capability to reproduce the work based on the instructions provided. In this training approach, the rewards were administered in three ways: direct rewards, a reward for emulating the model behavior, and reward self for adopting a behavior (Wilson, 1980). The modeling approach to learning has a wide range of applications from being used to teach kids on the spectrum to model behavior and solve problems in human relations at work.

Mezirow (1991) postulated that transformative learning is the "process of effecting change in a frame of reference." Transformative learning advocated that learning emanated from the deliberate inquiry when the learners displayed a conscious intention to obtain new information. The process of transformative learning occurs in ten phases that include: learner discovers that their past beliefs might not be accurate, learner understands that an alternative perspective might exist, learner open to new views, learner recognizes that others have gone through similar experiences, analyzing different options, create a unique learning strategy, gain knowledge and skills to implement the learning strategy, learner experiencing new things, practicing the new learning approach and applying the learning in their lives (Kitchenham, 2008). Transformative learning can be considered an act of discovery out of curiosity and self-reflection. Transformative learning could be defined as learning and doing what one loves from an employee's perspective; or, from a management perspective, the change one wants to introduce.

Collaborative learning theory provides a different perspective to training, and Dillenbourg (1999) defines it as "a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together." This learning technique is like the unstructured training method, with the only difference being the collaborators learn from each other. Collaborative learning is prevalent in team-oriented work environments. The drawbacks of this technique include team members not trusting each other

and conflict between the team members, poor coordination, and social loafing (Barak & Usher, 2019).

Becker (2002) refers to human capital as "the knowledge, information, ideas, skills, and health of individuals." Based on this premise, several scholars had defined human capital theories in different ways. Some explanations on human capital theory categorized the skills as general and firm specific. General skills can be used by employees across other firms, whereas specific skills can be used only in that firm (Flamholtz & Lacey, 1981). Fitz-Enz (2000) describes human capital as a combination of the following factors: "trait one brings to the job," "one's ability to learn," and "one's motivation to share information and knowledge." Schultz (1961) identified five categories that improve human capabilities, and one of those categories, "on-the-job training, including old-style apprenticeship organized by firms," was focused on training. Based on the review of the definitions of the human capital theory, it can be surmised that to make their investments work; the management should design training programs that would help their staff sharpen their skills and create value for the organization.

Training Opportunity

Training is the "process of systematically developing work-related knowledge and expertise in people for the purpose of improving performance" (Swanson & Holton, 2001, p.204). Opportunity refers to "the set of factors that lie outside the individual that make the behavior possible or prompt it" (Van et al., 2020, p.2). Combining both the definitions for training and opportunity, training opportunity can be defined as an offer by an organization that provided access to a set of tools that helped to systematically improve an employee's work-related knowledge and expertise to improve job performance.

Training encompasses diverse elements and components. Training could be reviewed from the perspective of the training opportunity, training methods, training functions, training outcomes, training application, and training frequency (Khanna & Kendall, 2015; Brandenburg & Smith, 1986). Rousseau (1998) stated that providing training opportunities for an employee is part of the "psychological contract" between the employer and the employee. Providing training opportunities to an employee fostered a sense of belonging for the employee with the organization (Barrett & O'Connell, 1997).

The training opportunity was considered an important component of an organization's benefits package (Armstrong & Stephens, 2005). Even though employees expected training opportunities, which was vital for their career growth, some organizations viewed it as an investment risk (Chen, 2014). For instance, Guest (1997) pointed out that training played a critical role in grooming and improving the employees' skills who, in turn, showed better work performance. The employees' individual traits, knowledge, and skills could be enhanced through training, which consciously developed their ability to meet the content of work in an ever-changing competitive landscape (Vroom, 1964). In short, a key challenge facing organizations in the 21st century related to their exploitation of the opportunities training offered in improving the satisfaction of their workforce and minimizing their turnover (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2016). Therefore, in some organizations, the training opportunity was provided to employees who are behind their peers or employees who need additional help (Yung et al., 2006).

In a research in the nursing industry by Bartlett (2001), employees with access to training programs tended to show more commitment to their organizations. They further established that training and development programs could decrease the turnover intentions of the employees. Lam and Zhang (2003) suggested that training was an opportunity to achieve employee retention by

promoting organizational commitment. Garrow (2004) viewed training to act as a "social exchange" between the employees and their organizations. The findings aligned with the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Dhanapal et al. (2013) researched baby boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y by focusing on intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Baby boomers were motivated by the opportunities offered by teaching and fringe benefits. At the same time, Gen X looked for job satisfaction and achievement. In contrast, Gen Y was interested in training opportunities that would advance their careers and improve family conditions. Understanding generations' training needs was important as the changing technological environment impacted their lives (Güngör & Alp, 2019; Lee, 2019).

Training Opportunity- Selection Criteria

Training Opportunity was created based on the organization's training needs and its employees (Taylor & O'Driscoll, 1998). Laird (1985, p.46) postulated that "A training need exists when an employee lacks the knowledge or skill to perform an assigned task satisfactorily." Pfau (2017) stated that there are three types of training needs assessments "problem-centered," "training request," and "formal assessments." Based on the training needs, the training opportunity was created, followed by sharing it with the organization's employees (Salas et al., 2012). In their research, Gelderblom and de Koning (1996) found that employers might select employees for training based on their performance; in some instances, they chose high performers to tie them to the organization. In contrast, some managers felt threatened when their direct reports were chosen for training, and they resisted it as they thought the training was for incompetent or low-performing employees (Didato, 1976). Therefore, organizations should sell the training as an opportunity for their employees (Salas et al., 2012).

One of the earliest methods of selecting training opportunities was performing general intelligence tests on individuals before they took training and assigning them to different training programs based on their intelligence level (Cowdery, 1922). The Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence test was used to perform the general intelligence test and intelligent quotient, and the individual's mental age was part of the evaluation (Cowdery, 1922). An individual descriptive report was created for each of the trainees, and the instructors provided a rating for the work done by everyone using the five-point scale with the values "excellent," "good," "fair," "poor," and "bad." Finally, an arithmetic average was calculated to identify the performance rating (Cowdery, 1922). In this century, this way of selecting and evaluating individuals may be considered biased, as the rating criteria depend on the individuals performing the evaluations.

Training as a Measure

In the early 1900s, training was not considered a benefit but rather a management tool that filled the knowledge gap among employees (Dooley, 1916). The management measured the training results not by requesting employees to fill questionnaires but based on how the line organization handled the production problem using the training they received (Dooley, 1916). In a review of the training methods developed at the Boston school of salesmanship, the trainer, also known as the teacher, measured her teaching's validity by performing a "follow-up" with her trainees. The teachers examined their trainees' salesmanship on the sales floor, as they considered this approach more effective than an examination (Norton, 1917). This way of measuring training could be attributed to the type of available jobs during that time.

As time progressed, the measurement scales became more sophisticated, and one such example was the scale used by the National Youth Administration (NYA) in Ohio. They developed an 11-point scale to evaluate the workforce readiness for the individuals who were part of their

work-project programs. The following traits were measured to evaluate the effectiveness of the program: “punctuality,” “better modes of dress,” “proper attitudes toward authority,” “proper attitudes toward fellow workers,” “adjustment to new assignments,” “habit of completing assignments,” “habit of working conscientiously,” and “initiative.” This was one of the first studies which reported using control variables such as an equal representation of both genders (McNassor, 1937). The variables used in the study implied that the training targeted both soft skills as well as technical skills.

In a study on the steel plant workers in Pennsylvania about the effectiveness of a human relations training program, training was measured three times. The first measurement happened before the training, the next measurement was 90 days after the training, and the final measurement was completed 18 months after the training. A control and an experimental group were selected randomly. Training effectiveness was measured using a combination of factors, attitudes among the group members, and ratings of the performance group members. The leadership opinion questionnaire, acceptance of self and others questionnaire, and a job performance questionnaire were used to perform evaluation (Hand et al., 1973). The job performance questionnaire focused more on the evaluation of knowledge that was derived from the training. In addition, trainees were rated on five different traits that included: “drive/aggressiveness,” “reliability,” “cooperation,” “organization ability,” and “technical knowledge.” Trainees were rated on a five-point scale: “superior,” “fully competent,” “competent,” “getting by,” and “poor.” This was one of the most comprehensive research that utilized multiple scales to evaluate an employee’s training from the period before the training started and how an employee performed 18 months into his job. This study utilized advanced statistical techniques such as calculating variance and correlation coefficient, which were lacking in prior studies reviewed (Hand et al., 1973).

From the 1980s, the method of measuring changed where instead of instructors rating the performance of trainees, the trainees rated how useful the training was. As per the previous review, the selection process for training opportunities was based on intelligence tests, and this selection process changed – opting for training programs became the choice of the trainees (Frayne & Latham, 1987). Pre-training and post-training methodologies to examine the effect of training became a norm in the late 1980s (Robinson & Robinson, 1989). Studies examining the perceptions of employees and employers on training were done to evaluate and update training strategies (Barron et al., 1997). Then, the training construct was split into multiple constructs, and each of the individual constructs, such as the content of training, training opportunity, method of training, time spent in training, employee satisfaction with training, and employee feelings about training and development, were studied (Schmidt, 2007). In this study, the focus was on investigating the construct of training opportunity. The survey questionnaire investigated if the department met the employees' needs related to training opportunities and how invested the organization was in an employees' training and development (Schmidt, 2010).

Job Satisfaction

One of the most widely used definitions for job satisfaction was provided by Locke (1976), who defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304). There were several mediating factors in the relationship between training and turnover intentions, but job satisfaction predicted turnover intentions more when compared to the other variables (Tett & Meyer, 1993). In the 1960s, job satisfaction/dissatisfaction was considered a predictor of turnover instead of turnover intentions. Research done by Atchison and Lefferts (1972) and Porter and Steers (1973) changed that

perspective; turnover intention was found to be an accurate predictor of turnover, and job satisfaction was found to be a predictor of turnover intention.

Major theories that explained the positive relationship between training and job satisfaction included Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory, McClelland's acquired needs theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, ERG (existence, relatedness, growth) theory, expectancy theory, value-percept theory, Kalleberg's theory of job satisfaction, and Cornell's model. Herzberg's motivational-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1971) was based on the premise that different sets of factors could influence an employee's job satisfaction. Some factors motivated an employee on their job, but some factors acted as hygiene elements whose presence might not improve job satisfaction, but their absence might demotivate employees and lead to job dissatisfaction. A review of Herzberg's theory by Sachau (2007) re-affirmed the basic tenets of the theory that employers should motivate their employees by offering them training and additional responsibility rather than focusing more on monetary benefits.

McClelland's acquired needs theory posited that any individual acquired three types of needs based on their life experiences. McClelland classified the needs as the need for achievement, the need for affiliation, and the need for power (Pardee, 1990). Past studies showed that job satisfaction was more related to the need for achievement (Orpen, 1985). Therefore, the individuals with the need for achievement tried to achieve their goals and objectives, which lead to job satisfaction (Sultan, 2012). Training helped individuals achieve their tasks by helping them gain knowledge and skills, which eventually lead to job satisfaction (Vasudevan, 2014).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs was another theory that explained the way an individual would be motivated by his needs which included: "psychological needs," "safety needs," "belongingness and love needs," "esteem needs," and "self-actualization needs" (Pardee, 1990).

Self-actualization was at the top of the basic needs pyramid. For an individual to be motivated by self-actualization, all the other lower-level needs must be met. According to Maslow (1968), "Self-actualization is defined as ongoing actualization of potentials, capacities, and talents, as a fulfillment of the mission, as a fuller knowledge of, and acceptance of, the person's own intrinsic nature" (p. 25). To reach their full potential, employees work hard to gain new skills and grow in the organization. This goal could be fulfilled by the training and development opportunities provided by the organization (Benson & Dundis, 2003; Kaur, 2013).

Job Satisfaction and Training Opportunity

According to Maier (2011), employers that provided training opportunities for their employees experienced increased retention and reduced employee turnover. Schmidt (2007) found a significant and positive relationship between employees' satisfaction with the training programs and their overall job satisfaction. In this study, a 55-item job training and job satisfaction survey questionnaire were distributed to a sample of 301 customer and technical service employees in nine organizations across the United States and Canada. The study revealed that job training contributed to 55 percent of the variance in overall job satisfaction. The study involved organizations from the manufacturing, technological, and service sectors. The results showed that the impact of training on job satisfaction was similar across industries.

Job satisfaction was crucial for employees in at-will employment positions, and this scenario was studied among Georgia state government employees in the US (Wilson, 2006). Around 2994 employees were given the opportunity to provide their feedback on perceptions of fairness and job training opportunities. The study found that employees' job satisfaction in at-will employment positions was positively related to job training opportunities, which led to career

development. The employees receiving job training opportunities believed that the organization deeply cared about them (Hur & Ha, 2019).

In addition, the relationship between job training and job satisfaction was dependent on when the training is offered. In a recent study, Popp et al. (2019) conducted an electronic survey of 140 sport ticket sellers across the United States and found no relationship between initial sales training and job satisfaction. In contrast, ongoing sales training provided to these employees had positive and significant impacts on their job satisfaction. Popp et al. (2019) explained the findings using Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory stated that job factors could motivate employees at their jobs (Herzberg, 1971). High-quality job training belongs to the Herzberg's categories of motivational factors as it helps an employee sharpen their skills and improve their confidence, thereby contributing to higher job satisfaction. In addition, a survey among 204 employees and managers of hotels in the states of Kansas and Missouri found that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between training provided to the employees and intent to quit. This study concluded that satisfaction with the training programs provided to employees had a significant influence on the employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Chiang et al., 2005). Other studies had also found that Generation Y employees had more expectations towards training and career development opportunities at work, and those factors played a critical role in their job satisfaction (Mencl & Lester, 2014).

In contradiction to the findings of the studies discussed above, McDermott et al. (2006) found that training adversely influenced job satisfaction levels. In a study of the impacts of graduate development programs (GDP) offered by the employers on the job satisfaction levels of their respective employees, the researchers compared the opinions of graduates from an organization that offered such a program with graduates from one that did not offer such a program.

A total of 89 questionnaires, 44 from the organization with GDP and 45 from the organization without GDP, were answered by the graduates of these two organizations. The findings showed that the organization with a GDP had employees who were less satisfied when compared to the organization that did not have a GDP. The researchers attributed this result to the increased expectations of the employees who attended GDP, which was not subsequently met by their jobs when compared to those who did not attend the GDP. This observation could be attributed to the Steers (1977) model, which argued that employees developed a psychological contract after receiving the training that reflected their psychological needs from the organizations. Thus, if this contract were not mutual, these psychological needs, which were one of the basic needs according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, could not be satisfied, and the employees could not be motivated (McDermott et al., 2006). Similarly, Hoekstra (2014) assessed the influence of training on the job satisfaction of online faculty members across the state of Iowa. In this study, the researchers invited 492 faculty members and got a sample of 148 respondents. After analyzing the data, the researchers found that there was no statistically significant relationship between training and job satisfaction.

In a study conducted to understand the millennials' career expectations, a sample of 1,612 students were surveyed before their graduation in 2006 and 2009, using a questionnaire that asked about the important determinants of their career choice and satisfaction. Analysis of the responses found a positive correlation between the students' expected levels of job satisfaction and the training opportunities provided to them on the job. The researchers also found a positive relationship between the training opportunities and their career development opportunities within the organization (De Hauw & De Vos, 2010). Based on the literature review performed and the insights gathered, the following hypothesis was proposed,

H1: Training opportunity is positively related to job satisfaction for Generation X and

Generation Y cohorts.

Turnover Intention

Turnover is defined as an employee leaving the organization (Allen, 2008). Employee turnover could be either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover refers to an employee leaving an organization on his or her own accord. Involuntary turnover refers to an employee leaving an organization due to a management decision (Shaw et al., 1998). Heneman and Judge (2009) had further categorized voluntary turnover into avoidable turnover and unavoidable turnover, and involuntary turnover into discharge turnover and downsizing turnover. Discharge turnover occurred due to a disciplinary or performance issue with the employee, whereas the downsizing turnover occurred due to a merger, organizational restructuring, or an acquisition. Unavoidable turnover refers to an employee leaving an organization due to health issues or death. Avoidable turnover refers to an employee leaving the organization for better job prospects and pay.

Lack of job satisfaction was an important factor contributing to employee turnover in different industries such as health care (Currie & Hill, 2012), hospitality (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010), and information technology (Korunka et al., 2007). Targeted development opportunities had been identified to reduce the high turnover in organizations (Currie & Hill, 2012). Some of the earliest theories that focused on turnover in organizations discussed the availability of development opportunities and lack of job satisfaction that affected employee turnover in an organization (Becker, 1975; Demerouti et al., 2001).

Some of the significant theories and models that discussed turnover included March and Simon (1958) model that focused on voluntary turnover, met expectations model (Porter & Steers, 1973), firm-specific human capital theory (Becker,1975), intermediate linkages model (Mobley, 1977), causal model (Price & Mueller, 1981; Price, 2001), cusp catastrophe model (Sheridan &

Abelson, 1983), integrated process model (Jackofsky, 1984), job embeddedness model (Mitchell & Lee, 2001), integrated mediated multi-routes model (Allen & Griffeth, 2001), and job-demands resource model (Demerouti et al., 2001). Some of the most recent turnover models included the comprehensive turnover intention model (Joseph et al., 2007), the turnover model developed by Hassan et al. (2012), and the turnover models developed by Sun and Wang (2017).

Most of the initial theories focused on the concepts such as job satisfaction and its impact on the turnover of an employee, but the more recent models had included how development opportunities could improve employee retention. According to the firm-specific human capital theory put forward by Becker (1975), an organization's incentive to provide training weakened if the employee quit the organization immediately after getting trained. The firm-specific human capital theory postulated that shifting some of the costs of training and returns to the employees helped maintain a balance, thereby reducing turnover and increasing productivity. The model developed by March and Simon (1958) elaborated on how the desire to move jobs was influenced by job satisfaction. Even though this model had career development opportunities as a predictor for turnover, the model did not discuss internal learning or training opportunities (Morrell et al., 2001).

One of the first studies that identified turnover intention as a predictor of turnover was by Atchison and Lefferts (1972), based on Herzberg's motivation theory. This was followed by several researchers (e.g., Porter and Steers, 1973; Mobley, 1977) who found turnover intention to be a better predictor of turnover when compared to job satisfaction. Porter and Steer's met expectation model discussed how an employees' expectations were met or not reflected on his job satisfaction, which in turn influenced him to leave or stay in the organization (Long et al., 2012). Price's causal model on turnover predicted that the availability of better job opportunities outside

the company caused employee dissatisfaction and created a propensity to quit (Price, 2001). Mobley's intermediate linkages model discussed the stages an employee went through before he quit his job, and this model did not explain the influence of training opportunities but did help understand that job satisfaction played a role in creating the employees' intent to quit (Mobley, 1977).

The heuristic model developed by Mobley (1977) had the following logical steps: "Evaluation of existing job," "Experienced Job satisfaction/dissatisfaction," "thinking of quitting," "Evaluation of cost of quitting," "intention to search for alternatives," "search and evaluation of alternatives," "comparison of alternatives to present job," and "intention to quit/stay." This was followed by the causal model on intention to leave developed by Martin Jr (1979), which postulated that an employee's behavior and his environment played a critical role in shaping turnover intentions.

The turnover intention/behavior model proposed by Joseph et al. (2007) was based on the meta-analytic review of over 33 research studies on turnover among information technology professionals. The initial model proposed was based on Simon and March's model. The final proposed model incorporated the link between turnover intention and the turnover behavior, used unfolding model and job embeddedness theories to explain turnover, and explained the antecedents specific to the different levels such as environmental level, firm-level, and individual level, which was one of the strengths of this model. In addition, the human capital theory was used to understand how education and experience rendered an employee vulnerable to turnover or intent to stay.

In a study by Messersmith & Guthrie (2010) on the turnover rate among the top management employees, it was found that an increase in turnover was associated with a reduction in return on assets. Therefore, it was a priority for organizations to focus on how employee

retention helped them retain skills and avoid financial impacts (Glen, 2006). Some studies showed that moderate levels of turnover were healthy for an organization as it helped to weed out the employees with low performance and improve innovation and coordination among the high performers. In addition, moderate levels of turnover could revitalize the organization to gain knowledge and skills by the influx of new employees, thereby positively affecting the organizational performance (Ransbotham & Kane, 2011; Shaw et al., 2005).

The turnover intention was chosen as the outcome variable instead of turnover because turnover was a dichotomous variable, and it required longitudinal data for accurate measurement, which in turn lead to ethical concerns as longitudinal data analysis will compromise the sanctity of anonymity of the survey respondents (Cohen et al., 2016).

Turnover Intention and Training Opportunity

To understand the link between training and job satisfaction for the generation Y members, Özçelik (2015) argued that providing ongoing job training and career development programs for generation Y employees was a vital factor that drove their retention. Hence, generation Y employees looked for organizations that provided them with relevant training opportunities rather than long-term employment. In addition, Generation Y employees also contributed as trainers for employees in other cohorts, as they had more experience in the latest computer technologies. This increased the level of satisfaction and gave them a sense of participation in the organization, contributing to increased retention (Barnes, 2009).

In a similar study, the expectations of Generation Y from their jobs were collected from a survey of university students at undergraduate programs in Canada and were analyzed using multivariate techniques. This study utilized a large sample size of 23,413 students. Through multivariate analysis, the researchers concluded that Generation Y placed great importance on

access to quality training and the ability to develop new skills in their future jobs. Consequently, training had a significant impact on their job satisfaction levels (Ng et al., 2010).

In contrast, Acton and Golden (2003) assessed the influence of training on the retention of employees across software companies in Ireland. In this study, the researchers mailed the questionnaires to the employees and got a sample of 200 respondents. The results revealed that employees who took part in well-designed and quality training programs had higher levels of job satisfaction. In contrast, the results of this study found that the training did not have any impact on the retention levels of the employees, even though the employees were happy with their organization. The findings by Acton and Golden (2003) did not conclude that training had no influence on retention. In a study by Lee et al. (2010) among the junior faculty members of pharmacy in the United States, it was found that lack of training caused dissatisfaction and eventually caused turnover intentions among faculty members.

The availability of training opportunities had been found to influence the retention levels of employees across different industries. A study done among the nurses in Ethiopia found that lack of training opportunities was one cause of job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (Ayalew et al., 2015). Research had found that there was a downside to providing extensive training opportunities. In a study done by Zheng and Lamond (2010) in multinational companies in Asia to understand organizational determinants of turnover, it was found that providing ample training opportunities made the employees an attractive target for competitors and increased voluntary turnover. This review served as a grounding for the following hypotheses:

H2: Training Opportunity has a direct and negative relationship to turnover intentions for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H3: Training Opportunity has an indirect relationship to turnover intention through job satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

Turnover Intention and Job Satisfaction

In a study on 90 foremen in British factories in the 1950s, labor turnover and absenteeism were correlated with job satisfaction. Therefore, it was deduced that job satisfaction and turnover were inter-related, as labor turnover was used as an indicator to measure job satisfaction as early as the 1950s (Argyle et al., 1958). As time progressed, more sophisticated questionnaires were used to study job satisfaction and turnover. For example, research among 290 female floor workers and 65 female shop floor workers of a large electric company found that 30% of the employees were dissatisfied with their job, which resulted in turnover (Wild et al., 1970). From the 1970s, studies separated the intention component from turnover and examined the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction (Mobley et al., 1978). One of the first studies that investigated the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction was done among hospital employees. In this study, Mobley et al. (1978) found that the outcome of a lack of job satisfaction was the intention to quit instead of actual turnover. This study laid the foundation for the research on the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intention. Next, the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction was reviewed from the perspective of Generation X and Generation Y. Studies that investigated the correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention with a focus on generation X were done only in the early 2000s, which was more than 20 years after some of the generation X employees entered the workforce (Hardin et al., 2001).

Multiple studies helped explain the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention behavior of an employee. For example, in an international study done among four manufacturing companies in Korea, Joo and Park (2010) found a high negative correlation between

job satisfaction and turnover intentions. In contrast, when developing a turnover model for the information technology industry based on a meta-analytic review of 33 studies among researchers, Joseph et al. (2007) found that job satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between the various organizational factors such as employee attributes and turnover intention. This contradiction could arise from the fact that the samples belong to different industries. These findings led to the following hypotheses:

H4: Job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

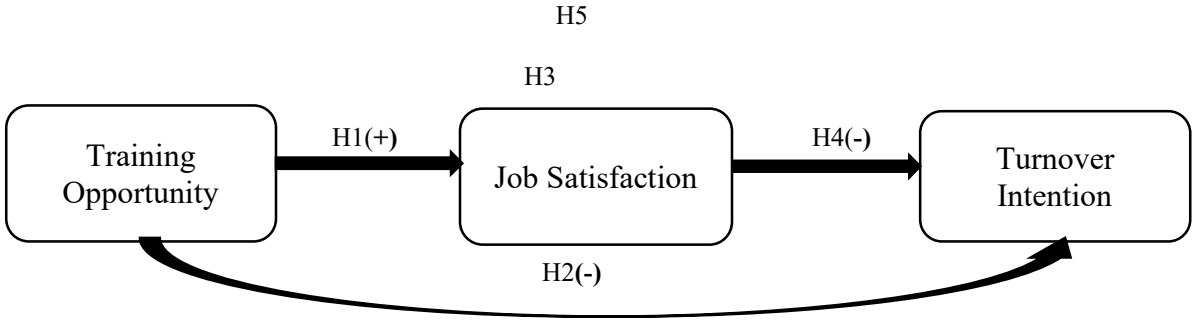
H5: Generational X and Generation Y have significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Conceptual Model

The study aimed to evaluate the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions and investigate the differences in turnover intentions across Generation X and Generation Y. The proposed hypotheses could be captured by the conceptual model presented in Figure 1. In this conceptual framework, training opportunity created a connection that directly impacted the employee job satisfaction and turnover intention manifested by the hypotheses H1 and H2. Similarly, the employee's job satisfaction played a vital role in turnover intention, as shown by hypothesis H4. In addition, H3 hypothesized the indirect link between training opportunity and turnover intention. Finally, hypothesis H5 indicated the differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention among generation X and generation Y cohorts.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model of Hypothesized Relationships between Training Opportunity, Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention



Analysis of the Literature

The literature review found two research gaps: one was the inconsistency in results among the different empirical studies, and the other was the methodological limitations in the empirical studies. Some of the methodological issues included low sample size, non-homogenous sample, non-response bias, lack of methodological rigor, lack of discriminant validity among constructs due to the survey instruments, and ambiguous items in survey instruments. First, the inconsistent findings across different studies were reviewed, and then the methodological limitations were examined.

Inconsistent Findings

Inconsistent findings refer to the contradictory results that different researchers had found in their research studies. Inconsistencies in generational cohorts' studies could be due to the design methodology used, sample size limitations, and industry-specific factors. In multiple studies

reviewed, it was found that there were similarities as well as contradictions among generational cohorts. A meta-analytic review of generational cohort-related articles provided insights on the lack of differences between the generations on work variables (Constanza et al., 2012).

In a study on U.S employees with a sample size of 115,044 over a period of 18 years, it was found that Gen Y employees had higher job satisfaction than the Gen X'ers (Kowske et al., 2010). In contrast, a study across different industries showed no differences between Gen X and Gen Y cohorts on job satisfaction (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008). In addition, Joseph et al. (2007) found that turnover intention among younger workers was higher when compared to the older workers due to lower job satisfaction. This finding was further strengthened by Benson and Brown's (2011) study on the employees of an organization in the public sector. However, the inconsistent findings made it difficult for HRD scholars and practitioners to understand whether there was a difference in work-related attitudes and behaviors of employees across different generational cohorts.

Methodological Limitations

Based on the literature review, it was found that the research from the perspective of the generational cohort was limited, and there were methodological limitations in those studies. This section reviews the methodological issues found in some of the studies. For example, in one of the studies conducted to explore the effects of work-family conflict/synergy across generational cohorts, separate ANOVAS were conducted instead of a MANOVA, and conducting a MANOVA would improve the statistical power and reduce the Type 1 error rate (Beutell, 2013). In another study on the impact of role ambiguity and work-family conflict among genders (Boles et al., 2003), the statistical power was limited due to the small sample size, the construct validity was not tested, and the small sample size also limited the ability to generalize the study results to a large

population. This study aimed to address the deficiencies by using a more representative sample of the population and employ advanced statistical techniques to improve statistical power and avoid Type 1 error.

In the cross-sectional study by Antonopoulou et al. (2017) on stress levels and retention problems among social workers in the United Kingdom, the discriminant validity and construct validity of the constructs were not tested, and the sample did not follow the minimum sample requirement of at least five responses per item in each of the constructs. The current study aimed to address these deficiencies. Mencl and Lester's (2014) research that examined the differences among the generations on workplace characteristics had some methodological issues. The number of items in the study was 40, and three generations were tested; based on the minimum sample size rule, the required sample size was 600 (40 x 3 x 5), whereas the study had only 505 valid responses, and the responses were not equal among the generations. 50% of the responses were from baby boomers, and the rest was made up of members of Generation Y and Generation X. This was not a robust sample; therefore, the results cannot be generalized.

Generation X employees believed that to acquire job security; they must continuously learn and develop; therefore, employers that want to appeal to Generation X'ers should have robust training programs (Bova & Kroth, 1999). Contrary to these theories that suggested that generation X employees put a higher emphasis on training and learning than their predecessors, Brunetto et al. (2012) found that this generation did not differ in its view towards training from its predecessors. In this study, a survey of 900 nurses from seven hospitals in Australia from three different generations (baby boomers, Generation Y, and generation X) found that all these generations viewed training as an important factor in their job satisfaction and commitment; yet, there was no statistical difference between these generations in the strength of this relationship. On the contrary,

Mencl and Lester (2014) argued that Generation X emphasized the value of training compared to Generation Y.

Lack of Peer-Reviewed Research Studies

As part of the literature review, the following combination of the keywords "job satisfaction" and "training" and “turnover intention” and "Generation Y" and "Generation X” was searched in google scholar to identify the research studies. The search returned 161 studies, and a review found that majority of them were either dissertations or studies published in trade journals, non-peer-reviewed journals, and several studies focused on a specific population in an organization or a geographical area. This finding necessitates the need for an additional inquiry into the turnover intention phenomenon.

Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the concept of generations, followed by the comparison between the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Next, the study’s conceptual framework was explained using the generational cohort theory and Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory. The chapter then discusses the theories and empirical studies that pertain to the constructs training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Finally, I synthesized the literature to identify the inconsistent findings and methodological limitations across studies.

Chapter 3

Method

This chapter reports the design and method of the study. After reiterating the purpose of the study, I present the research design, the overview of the research process, the research hypotheses, the population, sampling criterion, measurement scales, survey design, data collection procedures, and the data analysis procedures. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to assess the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions across the two generational cohorts: Generation X and Generation Y. The population of interest includes U.S. employees above 18 and working at organizations in the United States belonging to either the generation X or generation Y cohorts. A positive path was hypothesized between training opportunity and job satisfaction for the generation X and Y cohorts. A negative path was hypothesized between job satisfaction and turnover intention and training opportunity and turnover intention. Measurement invariance was performed to determine any significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions for the generation X and generation Y cohorts.

Research Design

The quantitative cross-sectional survey design was used to collect data to examine the differences in turnover intention among Generation X and Generation Y and to test all the statistical relationships specified in the hypotheses. IBM®SPSS®Amos 27.0 (SPSS) software package was used to analyze the relationship between the constructs of training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention using structural equation modeling (SEM).

The selection of the quantitative method with the survey design was based on the following considerations. First, it helped get a large sample quickly (Koh & Owen, 2000). A large sample provided a different array of perspectives, and therefore, it allowed the researcher to generalize the sample to the population. Therefore, a large sample was considered a vital factor in contributing to improving the quality of the research and extrapolating the results from the sample to the population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Second, the quantitative survey method provided a sense of anonymity compared to the interview or an observation in the qualitative method. It allowed the respondents to respond without fear of reprisal. The quantitative approach used statistical analysis tools to identify the correlations between the variables in the research, and therefore, the risk of bias and subjective interpretation by the research were minimized.

Third, this methodology allowed different types of respondents to provide their responses in the same manner as closed-ended questions were used for the surveys. The closed-ended questions provided responses that were easily analyzed using statistical analysis tools. In this quantitative survey design, the survey instruments used have been validated in past studies (Harrison & Gordon, 2014; Weng & McElroy, 2012). Therefore, the results were reliable, and there was no room for ambiguity or misinterpretation by the respondents. This study investigated the differences between the two groups Generation Y and Generation X, therefore, for comparison purposes, it required numerical data, and the quantitative approach satisfied that requirement.

Hypotheses

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the differences in turnover intention among Generation X and Generation Y. The purpose of the study was to test the statistical relationships, as applied to this study.

H1: Training Opportunity is positively related to job satisfaction for Generation X and

Generation Y cohorts.

H2: Training Opportunity has a direct and negative relationship to turnover intentions for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H3: Training Opportunity has an indirect relationship to turnover intention through job Satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

*H*4: Job Satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

H5: Generational X and Generation Y have significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

Participants and Sampling Process

The sampling population for the study was Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTURK) workers who were part of the Generation X and the Generation Y cohort and living in the United States. Qualtrics were used to collect the survey responses from Amazon MTURK workers. One of the advantages of using Qualtrics was that it provided the survey responses in a form that can be directly imported into the SPSS tool for analysis (Lau et al., 2015). Generation X and Generation Y cohorts were currently the largest cohorts in the American workforce, and therefore, they were included in this study (Clark, 2017). Buhrmester et al. (2011) found that MTURK can provide adequate samples as diverse as the U.S population and had a higher standard of data quality than traditional data collection methods. Amazon MTURK was chosen as the tool to conduct surveys as it helped recruit participants quickly, and it was the least expensive (Buhrmester et al., 2011). Another reason to choose the Amazon MTURK tool was that the data collected was comparable to data collected via other methods such as email surveys and survey monkey (Buhrmester et al., 2011).

The sample size was chosen per variable item as per the guidance provided by Stevens (2012), and the suggested number of participants per variable item was between 5 and 20. In this study, 10 participants were required per variable item as it was the recommended number of participants to perform confirmatory factor analysis (Munro, 2005). Therefore, the minimum number of participants for the desired sample was 220 respondents. The expectation was to get at least 110 responses for both generational cohorts. The 220-respondent survey count was based on the calculation of 10 minimum responses for each of the variables being studied and the 11 items associated with them, and it was multiplied by two for the two levels in the independent variable generational cohort (10 x 11 x 2).

Measures

To test the hypotheses, three sets of measures were used. The training scale (Schmidt, 2007) measured the training opportunity. The Job Satisfaction scale (Cammann et al., 1983) measured Job Satisfaction. The Turnover Intentions scale (Kelloway et al., 1999) measured turnover intentions. All the items for the measurement instruments are listed in Appendix A.

Training Opportunity

The training opportunity measurement scale consists of 4 items anchored on a 6-point scale, with 1 indicating "*Disagree very much*" and 6 indicating "*Agree very much*". Sample items include: ''My department provides training opportunities to meet the changing needs of the workplace''. Results of a validation study (Schmidt, 2004) indicated that the internal consistency (α) for the 4-item training scale was good (0.77). The validation study done by Schmidt, 2004 confirmed that the measurement scale had content validity and concurrent-criterion validity. The factor structure documented showed that all the items of the training opportunity scale loaded above 0.70 (Schmidt, 2004).

Job Satisfaction

Cammann et al. (1983) job satisfaction scale was used to measure the mediating variable job satisfaction. The job satisfaction scale consists of 3 items anchored on a 7-point scale, with 1 indicating "*very strongly disagree*" and 7 indicating "*very strongly agree.*" Sample items include: ''In general, I don't like my job''. Results of a validation study (Saks, 2006) indicated that the internal consistency (α) for the 3-item job satisfaction scale was high (0.84) across a sample study (N = 102).

The job satisfaction scale factor structure was validated by the CFA method (Guchait et al., 2016), and all the three items in the job satisfaction scale loaded on a single factor. The convergent validity of the job satisfaction Scale was measured using AVE estimates (Guchait et al., 2016). The discriminant validity was tested using the chi-square difference test as well as the AVE estimates method (Guchait et al., 2016). There was one negatively worded item in this survey instrument for the job satisfaction scale, and it was identified with the letter 'R' in the survey measures provided in Appendix A.

Turnover Intention

The Turnover Intentions scale (Kelloway et al., 1999) measured the outcome variable turnover intentions. The turnover intention scale consists of 4 items anchored on a 5-point scale, with 1 indicating "*strongly disagree*" and 5 indicating "*strongly agree.*" Sample items include: ''I am thinking about leaving this organization.''. Results of a validation study (Kelloway et al.,1999) indicated that the internal consistency (α) for the 4-item turnover intention scale was high (>0.90) across the sample study (N = 236). The turnover intention scale had convergent validity (AVE = 0.7), and the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) for the factors was found to be lesser than the correlations between individual factors showing evidence of discriminant validity (Maciel,

2020). The factor structure showed that all items except item 4 (0.66) had a factor loading greater than 0.85 (Maciel, 2020).

Data Collection Procedure

Before the data collection process was started, approval was obtained from the institutional review board (IRB) at the University of Texas at Tyler. The data was collected using the Qualtrics survey tool, and it was distributed through the Amazon MTURK tool. As this survey was being conducted through Amazon MTURK, the incentives were handled through Amazon MTURK based on the number of questions in the survey and the time taken for the survey (Fan & Yan, 2010). Every participant was provided with a payment code after the survey was completed, which helped the participant to collect the incentive for participating in the survey.

Mason and Suri (2011), in their research on Amazon MTURK workers, found that deploying surveys between 12:00 p.m. CST and 6 p.m. CST was the most effective. So, this survey was deployed between 12:00 p.m. CST and 6 p.m. CST. According to Buhrmester et al. (2011), the quality of the survey data was not affected when the compensation was low, whereas it had a minor impact on the response time for the surveys. Based on the time taken to complete the surveys, Buhrmester et al. (2011) suggested a compensation level of 2, 10, or 50 cents for a survey that took 5, 10, and 30 minutes to complete. Based on this research, this study used 40 cents as an incentive to complete one MTURK survey. To prevent the same survey respondent from responding to a survey twice, each respondent who had completed a survey was provided a qualification type to avoid duplication. Data was collected over a three-week period.

Controls

Common method variance occurred when a survey respondent provided consistent responses for the survey questions that were not related (Chang et al., 2010). Different Likert scale

levels and formats were used to measure the independent variables training and the dependent variable turnover intention to reduce the common method variance effects (Chang et al., 2010). To prevent manipulation of responses as per an individual's state of mind, there was no option provided to go back and change the response provided for a question on the different pages of the survey (Siegfried & Chowdhury, 2017). Items anchored on the same scale values influenced participant responses (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To reduce the method effect, the items in each of the constructs had different scale values. The dependent variables, independent variables, and demographic variables were grouped in separate blocks. This helped respondents easily recall the previous information before responding to the next question (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It also allowed the participants to provide consistent responses.

The control variables used in this study included race, ethnicity, gender, and generational cohort. The control variable generational cohort had birth year categories for identifying the different generational cohorts (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). The demographic questions were placed at the end of the survey questionnaire as participants would have responded to the previous survey questions without any fear of being identified. If the demographic survey items were placed at the beginning of the survey, the respondents might have been concerned about their anonymity, and they might have provided manipulative responses to the rest of the survey questions to prevent being identified (Teclaw et al., 2012). In this survey, the demographic questions were not sensitive; therefore, there was no concern about participants quitting the survey. As shown in the example survey in Appendix B, the directions for the survey items indicated that there were no right or wrong answers and that responses remain anonymous to reduce evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Survey Design

The survey was created in Qualtrics, and it was deployed in Amazon MTURK. To prevent respondents from providing a socially acceptable answer to the survey questions, the following instruction was provided for each of the question blocks "There are no right or wrong answers, we are interested in your honest opinion." To reduce the tendency to provide a response that falls within the social norms and prevent consistent responses, the anonymity for the survey participants was ensured in the informed consent and each question block in the survey (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Respondent anonymity was ensured by the following statement "There are no right or wrong answers and that responses remain anonymous.".

The importance of providing accurate and valid responses for the survey questions was emphasized by including an Instruction Manipulation Check (IMC) question, and if the respondent failed, the following feedback would be provided emphasizing the importance of data quality for this study "Data quality is crucial for the success of our project. Please pay more attention to the remaining questions" (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). IMC Check was done after the respondents had provided responses for the survey items related to the dependent variables. Fan and Yan (2010), in their review, found that surveys sponsored by the government or academic institutions had a higher response rate. This was accomplished by including The University of Texas at Tyler's name and logo in the header as well as on all the pages in the survey to improve response rate and avoid non-response bias. There were no marker variables in this survey as the effect of common method variance was reduced by providing anonymity for the survey responses (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The survey demonstrated topic salience as the survey questions were relevant to the survey respondents as they belong to the working population, and the variables being studied were relevant to HRD research. Topic salience and the smaller number of survey questions, along with

the time taken to complete the survey, helped address the non-response bias (Fan & Yan, 2010). The aesthetics and clarity of the survey questionnaire were improved by providing specific instructions for every page in the survey questionnaire, and the "NEXT" button was utilized at the end of every page to direct the respondents to the next page of the survey questionnaire.

According to De Leeuw (2001), missing data was addressed by including the forced response option on the survey questions. The forced response option referred to preventing a respondent from moving to the next question block without completing all the sub-questions in a question block. The optimal number of response choices to include a forced response was between 4 and 7, and this was implemented in this survey to ensure there was no missing data (De Leeuw, 2001). To elicit an accurate response from the respondents, the survey response options on demographic (generational cohort) did not require the respondents to provide a specific response but rather identify a category (De Leeuw, 2001).

Drop-off is a phenomenon in which the survey taker stops continuing with the survey after answering a few questions. In a meta-analysis, Villar et al. (2013) found that the constant progress bar in the Qualtrics tool did not reduce the survey respondent drop-off rate, so as a part of this study, the progress bar was not used. The response options for race and ethnicity information were sourced from the US census bureau.

Some companies or individuals utilized automated software to respond to surveys to gain monetary benefits. To reduce the impact of automated bots on data quality, a bot check was performed at the beginning of the survey before requesting consent. The bot check question used for this study was: "what is the third word in this question? How many stars in the American flag?" (Rouse, 2015). Failure to respond correctly to the bot check question prevented the respondents from taking the survey. Bot check helped improve the trustworthiness of the data by ensuring that

the respondents focus and fully read the questions asked in the survey. Ballot box stuffing refers to the concept of an individual respondent taking the survey multiple times. To prevent this phenomenon and to ensure data integrity "Prevent ballot box stuffing" option was checked in the Qualtrics tool.

Counterbalancing is a technique in which the questions were provided to the survey respondents in a different order. Counterbalancing was not adopted as it alters the logical order of the questions (Peterson, 2000). Demographic information such as gender, race, educational level, and ethnicity was collected per the American Psychological Association guidelines (APA, 2009).

Data Analysis

Data Cleaning and Verification

After the survey data was collected, it was exported from the Qualtrics tool, and then the data was analyzed to determine if there were any issues with the survey completed. Data were analyzed using the statistical analysis tool R. First, the responses that failed the bot check were eliminated (Rouse, 2015). Next, the responses that did not have the consent completed were excluded. Responses that failed the instruction manipulation check (IMC) were also eliminated (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). Next, the survey responses that were part of the preview of the survey and partial responses were removed. Using the forced response option and allowing only a single response option in the Qualtrics survey (example: generational cohort) for the survey items helped ensure that the responses were within a reasonable range and there were no extreme values.

Mean, Standard deviation, Min and Max information for the time taken to complete the survey were identified using the descriptive statistics function. The surveys completed more than one standard deviation from the mean completion time were excluded (Malhotra, 2008). According to Cole et al. (2012), straight-lined responses may be acceptable in some situations. In

their research, Cole et al. (2012) found that straight-lining increased with an increase in the length of the survey, but since this survey had fewer items with a total survey completion time of fewer than 10 minutes, straight-lining was not expected. To avoid poor data quality due to the straight-lining, the standard deviation of the responses for the survey items was calculated to identify and eliminate straight-lined responses. Common method variance was examined using Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to determine the construct and discriminant validity of the constructs.

A total of 477 individuals responded to the survey. Eighty-three individuals did not pass the "bot" check, which was evaluated using the user response to the question "What is the third word in this question: How many stars are in the American flag?". Eighty-six respondents did not pass the instructional manipulation check (IMC1, IMC2), and five did not provide consent. Additional responses were deleted because of being incomplete (1) and survey duration issues (2). Straight-lined responses (6) for the job satisfaction measure were excluded from the dataset as the job satisfaction measure had both positive and negative items. The second item in the job satisfaction measure was negatively worded, and therefore that item was reverse coded. Responses that did not belong to the generation X and generation Y cohorts were removed from the dataset. After cleaning the data, 252 usable responses were retained for the study.

Finally, measurement invariance was tested to ensure that the constructs were measured in the same way across the two generational cohorts. Measurement invariance by generational cohort was assessed in a three-step process, including configural, metric, and scalar invariance. The latent mean analysis was being done to determine the latent mean differences in the turnover intentions among Generation Y and Generation X cohort.

Construct Validity

Construct validity was performed to avoid measurement errors and informant bias (O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurka, 1998). Construct validity was performed using the R statistical software package 4.0.4. EFA was used to analyze construct validity as the number of observations, or sample size was more than 50 (Hair et al., 1992). An initial EFA was conducted where the items across all the variables were analyzed. The EFA on the full set of items for the variables training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention was performed to validate their existing theoretical structure. Factor analysis was performed using principal axis factoring with promax rotation. The factor structure was analyzed to see if all the pattern and structure coefficients loaded on their theoretical factor with all pattern coefficients greater than the minimum threshold of .32 (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Based on the results of the EFA, scale scores were computed based on the items retained, and descriptive statistics were computed. The validity of the constructs was tested by assessing the convergent validity and discriminant validity. Reliability helped ensure that the variables were measured consistently. Reliability coefficients for training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention were found and checked to ensure that they are consistent with the prior literature. Composite reliability was calculated for each of the construct's training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions for the Gen X sample, Gen Y sample, and the Pooled sample (Gen X and Gen Y). Composite reliability was assessed using the reliability co-efficient alpha. Average variance extracted (AVE) value was used to identify convergent validity. The correlations between the factors were compared to the square root of the AVE for individual factors, and if the correlations between the factors were less than the square root of the AVE for the individual factors, then there is discriminant validity between the constructs.

Measurement Model

IBM SPSS Amos 27 software was used to perform measurement model analysis. CFI was used to assess the fit of the best fitting measurement model. The special focus was on CFI and SRMR as RMSEA was less effective for small sample sizes (Hu & Bentler, 1998). CFI cut-off value close to .95 helped validate the fit between the model and the observed data. Measurement model analysis was performed on the pooled sample, generation X sample, and generation Y sample. For pooled sample, the cleaned data file achieved using the R cleanup process was used. The generation X and Y samples were obtained by filtering the data using the Generation field in the cleaned data.

Measurement Invariance

Measurement invariance is defined as "the equivalence of measured constructs in two or more independent groups to assure that the same constructs are being assessed in each group" (Chen et al., 2005, p. 472). There are two types of measurement invariance, which included multi-group invariance and longitudinal invariance. In this study, multi-group invariance was used to compare Generation X and Generation Y. Performing exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and calculating reliability estimates for each group were some of the techniques that could be used to compute measurement invariance. Measurement invariance testing is a prerequisite for conducting meaningful comparison between groups (L. Milfont & Fischer, 2010).

In this study, the CFA method was used to test for measurement invariance, and it was performed by computing configural (pattern) invariance, metric (weak) invariance, scalar (strong) invariance. The measurement invariance was conducted by demonstrating that each component

test configural invariance, metric invariance, and scalar invariance exhibited invariance with the previous test.

Configural Invariance. The configural invariance was tested by validating the factor structure across the two groups, Generation X and Generation Y, are equivalent. Ideally, the following values were used to ascertain the model fit CFI, PCFI, PCLOSE, and RMSEA for ensuring configural invariance. SRMR and CFI fit indices were used in this study to assess configural variance as the sample size was small (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). The difference in CFI between the models was the primary criteria for testing invariance.

Configural invariance was tested using the AMOS software. Two groups, Generation X and Generation Y, were created in the best fitting measurement model. The two groups were assigned the appropriate data file. Generation was chosen as the grouping variable, and "Born between 1965 and 1980" was selected as the grouping value for generation X, and "Born between 1981 and 1996" was selected as the grouping value for generation Y.

Metric Invariance. Consistency in the factor loadings across the generation X and generation Y groups showed evidence for the presence of metric invariance (Schuler et al., 2014). Metric invariance was estimated by removing the existing constraints and placing the constraints on the latent factor.

Regression weights were constrained (made equivalent) across both the groups' generation X and generation Y. The tools option "Name parameters" in AMOS graphics helped accomplish setting constraints for the regression weights across the groups. Since the sample size was small, a difference in CFI value with the configural model was used to assess the metric invariance (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Scalar Invariance. Scalar invariance was tested by constraining the mean and intercepts along with the regression weights. Estimate means and intercepts option was selected in the Analysis properties option in Amos graphics. Then the "Name parameters" plugin was used to constrain the means and intercepts.

Scalar Invariance was measured by comparing the model fit of the configural and metric models, and if the variance was significant, it was inferred that there was a measurement bias. The difference in CFI value less than or equal to -0.001 provided evidence for scalar invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Latent Mean Difference Analysis

Latent mean differences analysis was performed using the AMOS graphics software. Testing for latent mean differences across groups required that at least one measurement invariance test was valid for the groups under test (Geiser et al., 2014). If there was a lack of full invariance, the presence of partial invariance also satisfied the prerequisite criteria for testing latent mean differences (Geiser et al., 2014). After the scalar invariance test was complete, the scalar invariant model was used to test for latent mean differences across the two cohort's generation X and generation Y.

Latent mean differences refer to testing the differences in latent factor means (Byrne, 2010). Latent mean differences testing begins by constraining the intercepts to be equal across the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Analysis properties tab and the estimate means and intercepts option in the AMOS helped accomplish the task of constraining the intercepts. Choosing the estimate means and intercepts option constrained both the group's generation X and generation Y. As per the recommendations in Byrne, 2010, only one of the groups' must be constrained, whereas the other must be estimated freely. Generation Y cohort was estimated freely; therefore,

the mean constraints imposed by AMOS on the generation Y cohort were changed to dummy codes mn_tr, mn_js, and mn_ti. Critical ratio and the p-value were used to ascertain the latent mean differences for the constructs across the generation X and generation Y cohorts.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the research design and the justification for choosing the cross-sectional quantitative research method. Next, a review of the purpose and hypotheses was provided, followed by a discussion on the population to be studied and the sampling process. The data collection procedure was reviewed, and then the survey design was explained in detail, along with the measures and instruments used for the survey. Finally, construct validity, measurement model analysis, measurement invariance process, and latent mean differences analysis were explained.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter reports the results of the cross-sectional survey for this study. The results for reliability analysis, construct validity, and hypothesis testing are presented. Then the measurement and structural model results are analyzed. Finally, results of the measurement invariance analysis and latent mean differences analysis are reported.

Descriptive Statistics

The purpose of this study was to analyze the role of training opportunity on job satisfaction and turnover intentions among the Generation X and Generation Y cohorts. Qualtrics tool was used to develop the survey, and the survey participants were recruited using Amazon mturk. Across the valid respondents, 34.9% were female, 65.1% were male. Based on ethnicity, 84.9% of the participants were not Hispanic or Latino descent. Based on race, 77.8% were Caucasian,5.2% were Asian, and 13.1% were Black or African American. Among the valid respondents, 55.5% were Generation Y, and 44.5% were from Generation X.

From the perspective of Educational Level, the distribution of valid respondents was 7.1% had High School Diploma only, 8.7% had some college, 9.5% had an Associate's degree, 53.6% had a Bachelor's degree, and 21% had a Master's degree (see Table 1). Generation Y constitutes 47.5% of the working population. In contrast, Gen-X'ers constitute 52.5% of the United States working population when their population ratio is calculated based on the data provided by Statista (2021). The sample from the mturk survey resembled the US working population at 44.4% and 55.6% respectively (Table 2). Therefore, it was concluded that the sample was representative of the population being studied from the perspective of the generation cohorts gen X and gen Y. The

sample was not representative of the US working population from the gender, race, and ethnicity perspectives (Statista, 2021).

Table 2

Demographics (n = 252)

Characteristic	*N*	%
Gender		
Male	164	65.1
Female	88	34.9
Race		
American Indian or Alaska Native	1	0.3
Asian	13	5.2
Black or African American	33	13.1
White	196	77.8
Other	2	0.8
Two or more races	7	2.8
Ethnicity		
Not Hispanic or Latino	214	84.9
Hispanic or Latino	38	15.1
Generational Cohort		
Generation X	112	44.4
Generation Y	140	55.6
Education Level		
High School Diploma only	18	7.1
Some College	22	8.7
Associate Degree	24	9.5
Bachelor Degree	135	53.6
Master Degree	53	21.0

Construct Validity

An initial EFA was conducted where all the items across the three variables (i.e., training opportunity, job satisfaction, turnover intention) were analyzed. The EFA on the full set of items for the variables training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention did yield the expected theoretical structure, and there was a simple order factor structure with all pattern and structure coefficients (see Table 3) loading most heavily on their theoretical factor with all pattern coefficients greater than the minimum threshold of .32 (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

The two factors yielded eigenvalues greater than 1 (i.e., 5.74, 2.43). The third factor (i.e., 0.69) was included to honor the theoretical structure of the model, and all other remaining factors not used in the final analysis had an eigenvalue less than one (i.e., 0.45 or below). The extraction of three factors supported the proposed theoretical structure of the training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention measures. In combination, the three factors explained 74% of the common variance in the item correlation matrix analyzed. For all the items, the factors explained more than 50% of each item's variance (see h^2 in Table 3), and all items exceeded the threshold of 40% suggested by Costello and Osborne (2005). For the training opportunity construct, the item TO4 explained the most variance (81%), the item JS1 (85%) explained the most variance for the job satisfaction construct, the item TI1 explained the most variance for the turnover intention construct (81%).

Table 3

Standardized Path (P) and Structure (S) Coefficients for TO/JS/TI items

	Training Opportunity (TO)		Job Satisfaction (JS)		Turnover Intention (TI)		
Item	P	S	P	S	P	S	h^2
TO1	0.80	0.84	0.06	0.59	-0.00	-0.28	0.71
TO2	0.78	0.76	-0.06	0.48	-0.05	-0.26	0.57
TO3	0.70	0.78	0.14	0.59	0.02	-0.27	0.62
TO4	0.91	0.90	-0.01	0.59	0.01	-0.27	0.81
JS1	0.13	-0.51	0.81	0.92	-0.04	-0.51	0.85
JS2	0.20	-0.79	0.43	0.69	-0.58	-0.79	0.73
JS3	-0.08	-0.40	0.79	0.87	0.09	-0.40	0.79
TI1	-0.11	-0.28	0.08	-0.47	0.91	0.90	0.81
TI2	0.01	-0.26	0.05	-0.43	0.90	0.87	0.77
TI3	-0.02	-0.27	0.09	-0.40	0.90	0.85	0.73
TI4	0.04	-0.27	-0.05	-0.46	0.82	0.84	0.70
Trace	2.85		1.74		3.50		8.09
% of Variance	0.26		0.16		0.32		0.74

Note. TO = Training Opportunity. JS = Job Satisfaction. TI = Turnover Intention.

The correlation matrix for the 11-training opportunity/job satisfaction/ turnover intention items were retained; passed the statistical assumptions associated with EFA: (a) The determinant of the matrix was not zero (i.e., .00014) indicating the correlation matrix was not singular. (b) The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .88, above the acceptable limit of .5 suggested by Field (2013). (c) The Bartlett test of sphericity yielded a *p*-value (0) less than .001 indicating that the inter-item correlation matrix was statistically significantly different than an identity matrix.

Based on the results of the EFA, scale scores were computed based on the items retained, and descriptive statistics were computed. Training Opportunity had a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.89, consistent with the prior literature (Schmidt, 2004). Job Satisfaction had a reliability coefficient alpha value of 0.82, consistent with the past research findings (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Similarly, Turnover Intention had a reliability coefficient alpha value of 0.92, consistent with the past research findings (Harrison & Gordon, 2014).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics on Study Variables (n = 252)

Variable	1	2	3
1. Training Opportunity	0.89		
2. Job Satisfaction	0.63	0.82	
3. Turnover Intention	-0.29	-0.63	0.92
M	4.38	5.29	2.69
SD	1.14	1.48	1.24

Note. Coefficient alpha reported on diagonal. $p < .001$

The IBM SPSS Statistics 27 software was used to calculate the descriptive statistics measures for the individual items in the variables. The descriptive statistics for the study variables were reported for the sample (n = 252). Tables 5 through 7 displayed the descriptive statistics for the training opportunity variable, job satisfaction variable, and turnover intention variable. The mean, standard deviation, and variance were consistent across the items in the training opportunity, and the turnover intentions construct.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of the Training Opportunity variable (n = 252)

Statistic	TR1	TR2	TR3	TR4
Mean	4.32	4.40	4.43	4.37
Standard Deviation	1.26	1.33	1.34	1.31
Variance	1.59	1.76	1.79	1.72
Kurtosis	.41	.19	.03	.43
Skewness	-.77	-.83	-.75	-.92
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6	6	6	6

The job satisfaction construct item JS2r showed significant difference with the other items in that construct for the mean, standard deviation, and variance values (Table 6). This could be attributed to the negatively worded question for JS2r.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Job Satisfaction variable (n = 252)

Statistic	JS1	JS2r	JS3
Mean	5.52	4.74	5.61
Standard Deviation	1.51	2.05	1.50
Variance	2.27	4.22	2.24
Kurtosis	.96	-1.32	1.75
Skewness	-1.24	-.40	-1.50
Minimum	1	1	1
Maximum	7	7	7

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of the Turnover Intention variable (n = 252)

Statistic	TI1	TI2	TI3	TI4
Mean	2.58	2.70	2.86	2.63
Standard Deviation	1.34	1.38	1.40	1.41
Variance	1.79	1.91	1.95	1.99
Kurtosis	-1.34	-1.22	-1.37	-1.27
Skewness	.24	.22	-.03	.30
Minimum	1	1	1	1
Maximum	6	6	6	6

For the training opportunity scale, the standard deviation of 1.14 (Table 4) and the mean of 4.38 (Table 4) was consistent with the literature (Schmidt, 2004). The job satisfaction scale had a standard deviation of 1.48 (Table 4) and a mean of 5.29 (Table 4), which was consistent with the literature (Ferreira et al., 2017). The turnover Intention had a standard deviation of 1.24 (Table 4) and a mean of 2.69 (Table 4), consistent with the existing literature. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that items measured the construct accurately.

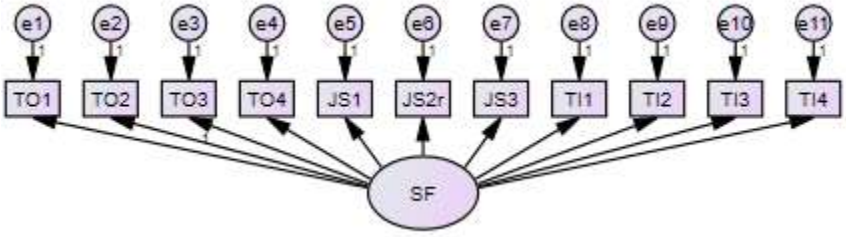
Measurement Model

Based on the recommendations from Schumacker and Lomax (2016), the data were fit to a measurement model prior to testing the theoretical and alternative models. In assessing the measurement model, all factors were allowed to correlate (i.e., three-factor correlated model). Harman's single-factor test was used as a preliminary examination of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The covariance data matrix of the raw data was positive definite and analyzed using IBM® SPSS® Amos 27.0.0. The estimation technique used was maximum likelihood which assumed multivariate normality, which was not met for the raw data (Mardia =

45.699, $p < .001$); therefore, bootstrapping with 2,000 resamples was performed. Bootstrapped estimates were not substantively different than non-bootstrapped estimates; therefore, point estimates were reported along with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. Initially, all items were allowed to correlate on a single factor as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Single Factor Measurement Model



In analyzing the model fit, the fit indices SRMR and CFI were used as they were less sensitive to small sample sizes when compared to commonly used fit indices such as RMSEA (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The goodness of fit was measured using the following criteria RMSEA ≤ 0.8, CFI ≥ 0.9, SRMR ≤ 0.08 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). The single factor measurement model was evaluated for the pooled sample (n = 252) and sub-samples Gen X and Gen Y. The single factor measurement model for the pooled sample M0 had a poor fit, and it was evidenced by the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) value of 0.296, which was above the acceptable range (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Similarly, the standardized root mean square (SRMR), Akaike information criterion (AIC), and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) values in Table 8 showed that the single factor model had a poor fit.

The single factor measurement model for the sub-sample Gen X M1 had a poor fit, and it was evidenced by the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) value of 0.307, which was

above the acceptable range (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Similarly, the standardized root mean square (SRMR), Akaike information criterion (AIC), and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) values in Table 5 showed that the single factor model had a poor fit. The single factor measurement model for the sub-sample Gen Y M1 had a poor fit, and it was evidenced by the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) value of 0.285, which was above the acceptable range (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Similarly, the standardized root mean square (SRMR), Akaike information criterion (AIC), and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) values in Table 8 showed that the single factor model had a poor fit. Testing the measurement model for the Gen X sample revealed that the single factor M0 model had a poor fit (RMSEA = 0.307, SRMR = 0.141, CFI = 0.624). Similarly, the Gen Y sample had a poor fit for the single factor model M0 (RMSEA = 0.285, SRMR = 0.213, CFI = 0.479). The relative chi-square value for all the models were above the range of acceptable fit.

Table 8.

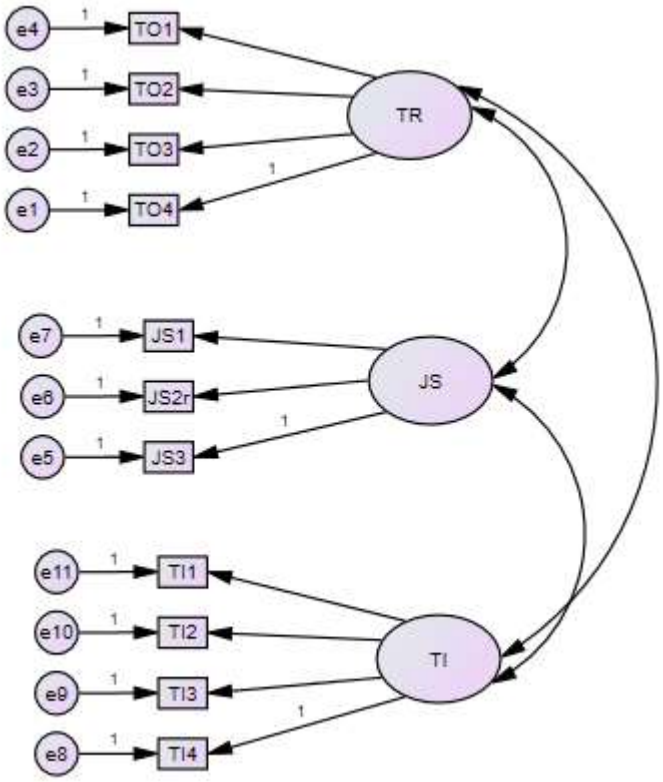
Fit Indices for Single Factor Measurement Models

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	χ^2 / df
Single factor(M0)	1012.588	44	.296	.182	.554	1056.588	1134.235	23.01
Single factor Gen X(M1)	505.540	44	.307	.141	.624	585.540	608.347	11.49
Single factor Gen Y(M2)	542.153	44	.285	.213	.479	585.153	650.869	12.32

Next, the three-factor correlated model M1 with the pooled sample (Figure 3) was tested and compared to the single-factor model, and it had a better fit, but still, the RMSEA value (0.142) was above the acceptable range of < 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). The 3-factor correlated model M1 did not have an adequate fit for the Gen X sample (RMSEA = 0.130, SRMR = 0.058, CFI = 0.937). Gen Y sample for the 3-factor correlated model M1 did not have an adequate fit (RMSEA = 0.166, SRMR = 0.118, CFI = 0.836).

Figure 3

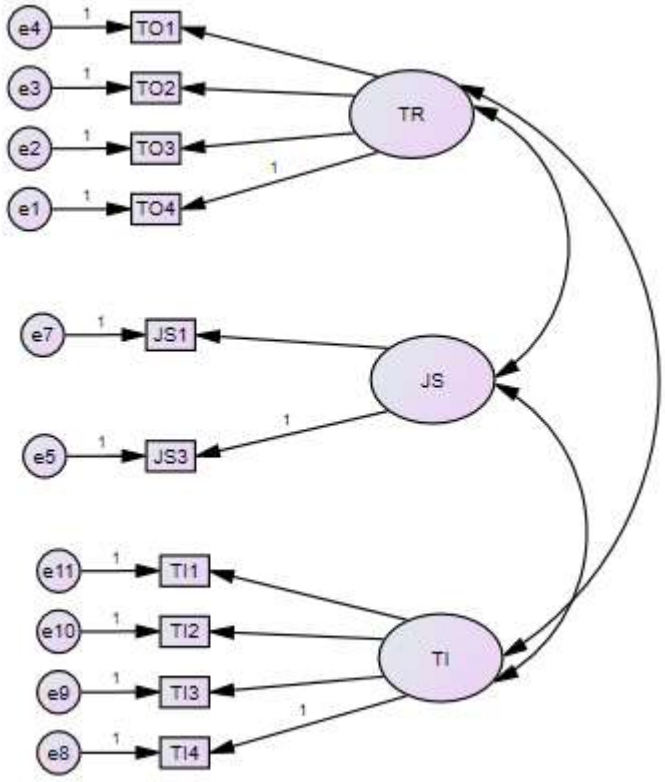
Three Factor Measurement Model (M1)



The factor loading for the item JS2r (0.69) was very low when compared to all the other items, and it could be attributed to the poor model fit. Therefore, to achieve a better fit, the negatively worded item (JS2r) was removed from model M1, and model M2 was created. Commonly used fit indices (cf. Schumacker & Lomax, 2016) indicated that the three-factor correlated model(M2) fit the data better than the single factor model(M0) and the three-factor correlated model M1 (see Table 9). Still, the fit indices RMSEA (0.086) and CFI (0.968) were not in the acceptable range. As shown in Tables 10 and 11, the 3-factor correlated model M2 did not have an adequate fit for the Gen X sample (RMSEA = 0.085, SRMR = 0.027, CFI = 0.976) and the Gen Y sample (RMSEA = 0.128, SRMR = 0.055, CFI = 0.912).

Figure 4

Three Factor Measurement Model (M2)



Next, Model M3 was created to account for the correlated errors, the errors for the items TI2 and TI3 (turnover intention) were correlated as they had similar wordings (Byrne et al., 1989). Model M3 has an RMSEA value of 0.79 and a CFI value of 0.974, and an SRMR of 0.030 and a relative chi-square value of 2.58. For the pooled sample data, Model M3 was found to be the best-fitting model. For the Gen X sample, the 3-factor correlated model M3 showed adequate fit (RMSEA = 0.034, SRMR = 0.021, CFI = 0.911) even though the Gen Y sample did not show an adequate fit for the 3-factor correlated model (RMSEA = 0.130, SRMR = 0.054, CFI = 0.911).

Figure 5

Three Factor Measurement Model (M3)

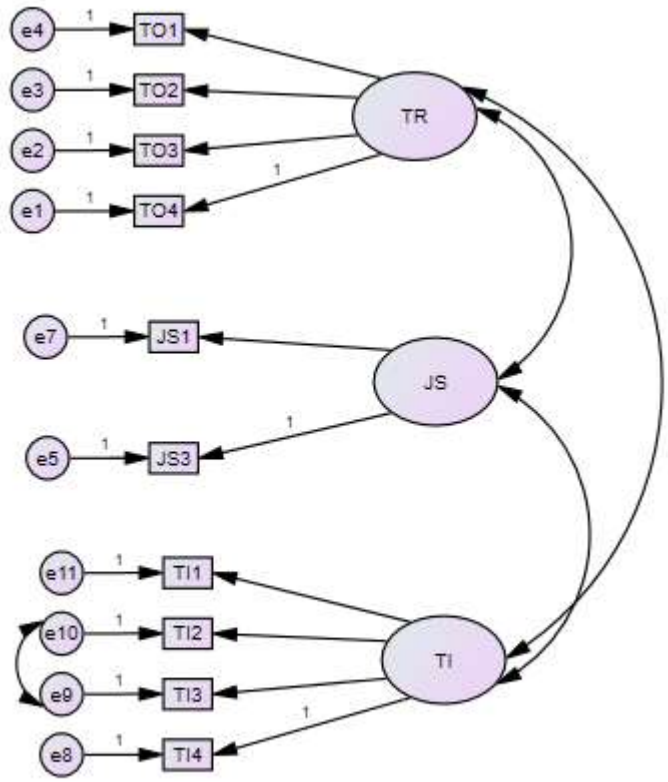


Table 9.

Fit Indices for Measurement Models – Pooled Sample

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	χ^2 / df
Single factor(M0)	1012.588	44	.296	.182	.554	1056.588	1134.235	23.01
3-factor correlated(M1)	249.757	41	.142	.095	.904	299.757	387.993	6.09
3-factor correlated(M2)	91.937	32	.086	.033	.968	137.937	219.113	2.87
3-factor correlated(M3)	79.841	31	.079	.030	.974	127.841	212.547	2.58

Table 10.

Fit Indices for Measurement Models – Gen X Sample

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	χ^2 / df
Single factor(M0)	505.540	44	.307	.141	.624	585.54	608.347	11.49
3-factor correlated(M1)	118.219	41	.130	.058	.937	168.219	236.182	2.88
3-factor correlated(M2)	57.805	32	.085	.027	.976	103.805	166.330	1.81
3-factor correlated(M3)	34.960	31	.034	.021	.911	82.960	148.204	1.13

Table 11.

Fit Indices for Measurement Models – Gen Y Sample

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	χ^2 / df
Single factor(M0)	542.153	44	.285	.213	.479	585.153	650.869	12.32
3-factor correlated(M1)	197.564	41	.166	.118	.836	247.564	321.105	4.82
3-factor correlated(M2)	104.530	32	.128	.055	.912	150.530	218.188	3.27
3-factor correlated(M3)	104.205	31	.130	.054	.911	152.205	222.805	3.36

As illustrated in Table 12, the standardized regression weights, in general, suggested an acceptable measurement model M3 for the pooled sample. Most of the factor loadings were above the minimum threshold of .5; most were above the more stringent threshold of .7 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Kline, 2016). Examination of structure coefficients (Graham et al., 2003; see Table 9) revealed that all manifest variables correlated most highly with their respective factors.

Table 13 shows the pattern and structure coefficients of the measurement model M3 for the Gen X sample. The factor loadings were above the minimum threshold and, they were comparatively higher than the factor loadings for the pooled sample. Similar to the pooled sample, the manifest variables correlated highly with their respective factors. A review of Table 14 shows the pattern and structure coefficients of the measurement model M3 for the Gen Y sample. Even

though the factor loadings were above the minimum threshold of 0.5, they were less when compared to the pooled and Gen X sample.

Table 12

Pattern (P) and Structure (S) Coefficients for the Pooled Sample Three-Factor Correlated Model

Construct Variable	Training Opportunity		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intention	
	P	S	P	S	P	S
Training Opportunity						
TO1	.857	.857		.667		-.289
TO2	.747	.747		.563		-.252
TO3	.789	.789		.612		-.266
TO4	.887	.887		.686		-.299
Job Satisfaction						
JS1		.715	.923	.923		-.462
JS3		.685	.886	.886		-.443
Turnover Intention						
TI1		-.308		-.457	.913	.913
TI2		-.286		-.424	.848	.848
TI3		-.280		-.415	.829	.829
TI4		-.281		-.416	.832	.832

Table 13

Pattern (P) and Structure (S) Coefficients for the Gen X Sample Three-Factor Correlated Model

Construct Variable	Training Opportunity		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intention	
	P	S	P	S	P	S
Training Opportunity						
TO1	.903	.903		.671		-.454
TO2	.833	.833		.618		-.419
TO3	.815	.815		.605		-.410
TO4	.925	.925		.687		-.465
Job Satisfaction						
JS1		.719	.968	.968		-.635
JS3		.680	.916	.916		-.600
Turnover Intention						
TI1		-.489		-.638	.972	.972
TI2		-.422		-.550	.839	.839
TI3		-.392		-.511	.779	.779
TI4		-.452		-.589	.899	.899

Table 14

Pattern (P) and Structure (S) Coefficients for the Gen Y Sample Three-Factor Correlated Model

Construct Variable	Training Opportunity		Job Satisfaction		Turnover Intention	
	P	S	P	S	P	S
Training Opportunity						
TO1	.790	.790		.693		-.155
TO2	.606	.606		.531		-.119
TO3	.796	.796		.698		-.157
TO4	.786	.786		.689		-.154
Job Satisfaction						
JS1		.715	.816	.816		-.264
JS3		.728	.830	.830		-.268
Turnover Intention						
TI1		-.169		-.277	.858	.858
TI2		-.167		-.275	.849	.849
TI3		-.171		-.282	.870	.870
TI4		-.148		-.243	.750	.750

As shown in Table 15, for the pooled sample, the range of composite reliability (CR; .89 - .92) and average variance extracted (AVE; .68 - .82), respectively, provided evidence of adequate reliability and convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The correlations between factors were lower than the square root of the AVE for individual factors, thus providing evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 15

Implied Correlations, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability (CR) the Pooled Measurement Model

Variable	1	2	3
1. Training Opportunity	.82		
2. Job Satisfaction	.77	.91	
3. Turnover Intention	-.34	-.50	.85
CR	.89	.90	.92
AVE	.68	.82	.73

Note. Square root of AVE along the diagonal

Similarly, Table 16 shows that the Gen X sample has composite reliability (CR; .93-.94) and average variance extracted (AVE; .76 - .89), which satisfied the fit of the internal structure of model criteria providing evidence of reliability and convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The square root of average variance extracted (AVE) for the factors was found to be lesser than the correlations between individual factors, thereby showing evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 16

Implied Correlations, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability (CR) the Gen X Measurement Model

Variable	1	2	3
1. Training Opportunity	.87		
2. Job Satisfaction	.74	.94	
3. Turnover Intention	-.50	-.66	.88
CR	.93	.94	.93
AVE	.76	.89	.77

Note. Square root of AVE along the diagonal

Table 14 shows that the Gen Y sample had composite reliability (CR; .81-.90) and average variance extracted (AVE; .56 - .69), which satisfied the fit of the internal structure of model criteria

providing evidence of reliability and convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The square root of average variance extracted (AVE) for the construct training opportunity was less (0.75) when compared to the correlation between training opportunity and job satisfaction (0.88), and this showed the lack of discriminant validity. Since the factor correlation was not greater than 0.90, it can be concluded that the discriminant validity is supported (Kline, 2016). Therefore, all training opportunity items were retained, and the measurement model was considered sufficient to continue.

Table 17

Implied Correlations, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and Composite Reliability (CR) the Gen Y Measurement Model

Variable	1	2	3
1. Training Opportunity	.75		
2. Job Satisfaction	.88	.82	
3. Turnover Intention	-.20	-.32	.83
CR	.84	.81	.90
AVE	.56	.68	.69

Note. Square root of AVE along the diagonal

Measurement Invariance

Performing measurement invariance testing was essential for conducting cross-group comparisons (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Measurement invariance helped ensure that the constructs or variables were measured in the same manner across different groups (Byrne & Watkins, 2003; L. Milfont & Fischer, 2010). The three-factor measurement model M3 identified after the analysis of the goodness of fit indices CFI and SRMR was used to assess the measurement variance.

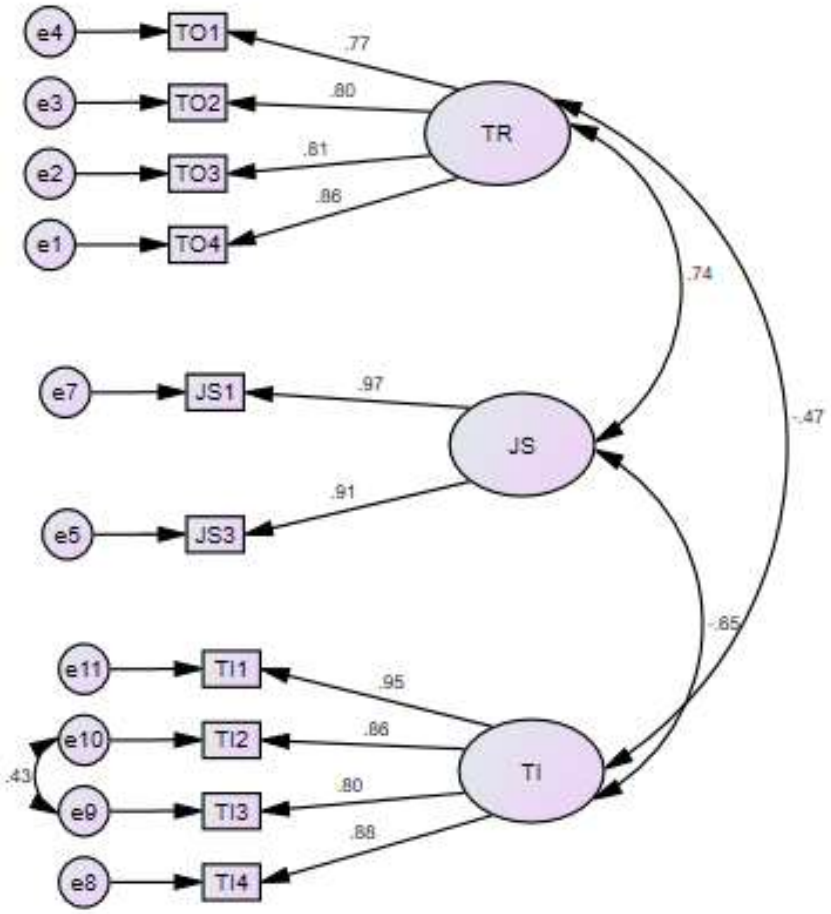
In most studies, the chi-square test was used for analyzing measurement invariance (Meade et al., 2008; French & Finch, 2006; Milfont & Fischer, 2010). Due to the relatively small sample size of generation X and generation Y samples, ΔCFI was used in determining the measurement

invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). A ΔCFI value less than or equal to -0.01 was used as the cut-off criterion for testing measurement invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002;Chen, 2007). CFI was used as the criterion for evaluation as it was independent of small sample sizes (Hu & Bentler, 1998). RMSEA was not used as a criterion as it falsely rejects models due to small sample sizes (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Model M3 identified from the three-factor measurement model testing was used to assess configural invariance. The output path diagram for the configural invariance was shown in Figure 6. Configural invariance was tested by creating two groups Gen X and Gen Y, based on the grouping variable Generation. Configural invariance was tested to analyze if the factor structure was the same across Gen X and Gen Y groups when there were no constraints in the model. Based on the fitness indices (RMSEA = 0.060, SRMR = 0.029, CFI = 0.966) the configural model showed adequate fit. This indicated that the variables across the two groups have the same factor structure, and there was configural invariance.

Figure 6

Configural Invariance Output Path Diagram (M4)

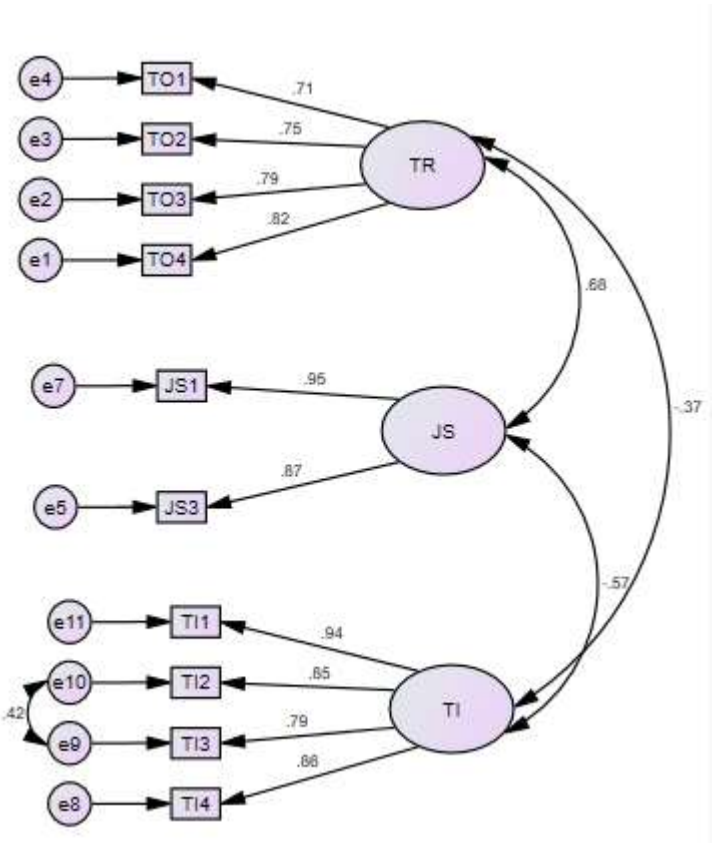


Metric invariance was tested by removing the existing constraints and placing the constraints on the latent variables. Then the regression weights were named the same for both groups Generation X and Generation Y. This ensured that the regression weights were constrained to be equal across both the groups. Based on the fitness indices (RMSEA = 0.069, SRMR = 0.079, CFI = 0.948) the metric model showed adequate fit. This indicated that the factor structure was invariant across the two groups. Comparing the fit indices between the configural and the metric

model indicated metric invariance (ΔCFI = -.01, ΔRMSEA = 0.009). Change in SRMR was not used as a criterion to test metric and scalar invariance as it was sensitive to small sample sizes (Chen, 2007).

Figure 7

Metric Invariance Output Path Diagram (M5)



Scalar invariance was tested by adding the constraints for mean and intercepts to be equivalent across the two groups Generation X and Generation Y, along with the constraints applied in the metric model. Based on the fitness indices (RMSEA = 0.072, SRMR = 0.089, CFI = 0.936) the scalar model showed adequate fit. This indicated that the mean level among the latent constructs was invariant across the two groups. Comparing the fit indices between the metric and

the scalar model indicated scalar invariance (ΔCFI = -.01, ΔRMSEA = 0.003). The measurement invariance testing showed that the measurement model was invariant across the Generation X and Generation Y groups and satisfied the prerequisite for structural model analysis.

Figure 8

Scalar Invariance Output Path Diagram (M6)

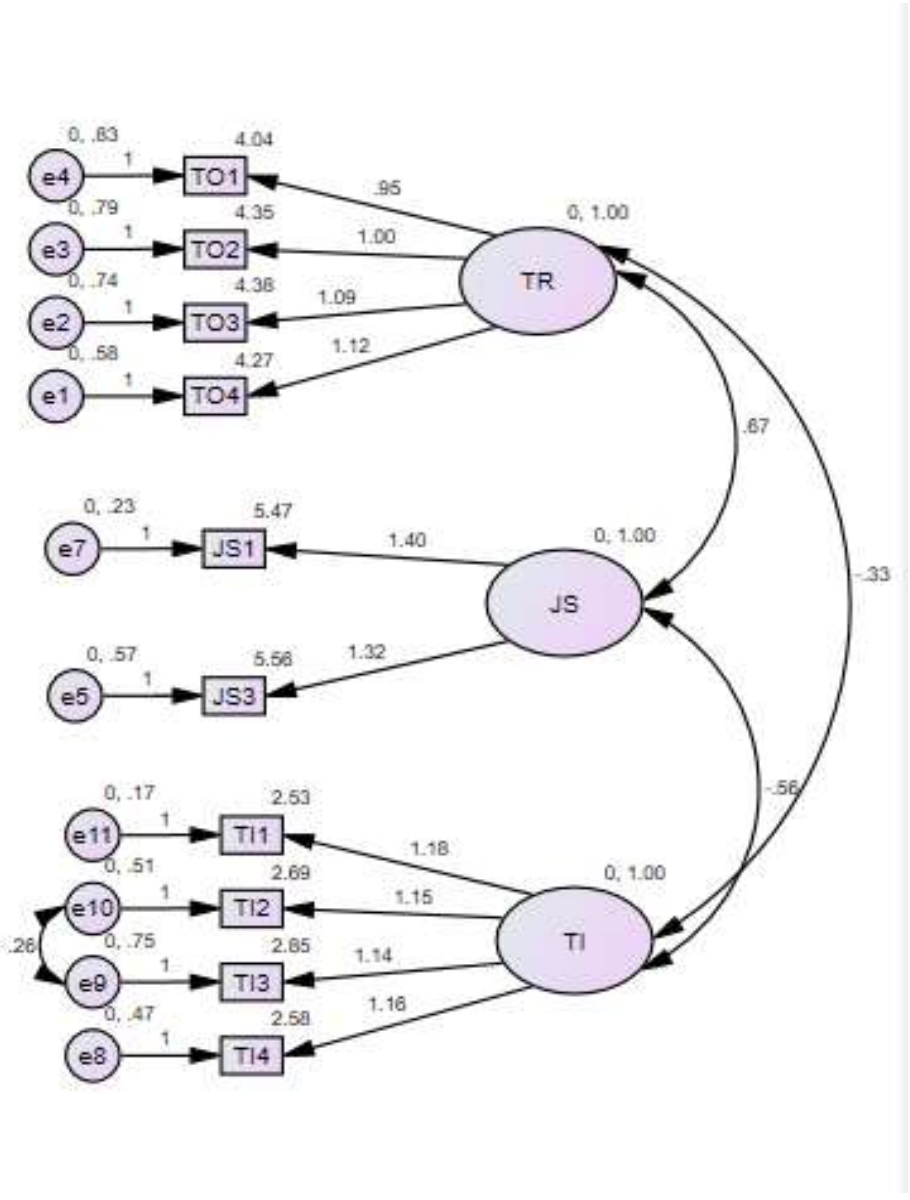


Table 18

Tests of Measurement Invariance

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	ΔCFI	ΔRMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
M4: Configural	117.789	62	.060	.029	.966	213.989				
M5: Metric	157.663	72	.069	.079	.948	233.663	-.018	0.009	39.874	10
M6: Scalar	188.090	82	.072	.089	.936	284.090	-.012	0.003	30.427	10

Note. df = degrees of freedom. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index. CFI = comparative fit index. AIC = Akaike information criterion.

Structural Model

Model 1 was based on the best fitting measurement model, which was also the theoretical model. Model 1 had the negatively worded job satisfaction item JS2r removed as the factor loading for the reverse coded item was low and the errors were correlated between the turnover intention items TI2 and TI3 as they had similar wordings. The fit indices of Model 1 were RMSEA = 0.079, SRMR = 0.030, CFI = .974 and there were zero absolute correlation residuals. To improve the model fit, Model 2 was created by removing the direct path between the training opportunity variable and the turnover intention variable. The fit indices of Model 2 were RMSEA = 0.079, SRMR = 0.039, CFI = .974 and there were zero absolute correlation residuals. Model 1 and Model 2 had similar fit indices, but Model 1 was chosen as the best fitting model as the effect size of Model 1 explained slightly more variance than Model 2 (Table 19).

Figure 9

Structural Model with standardized estimates(M7)

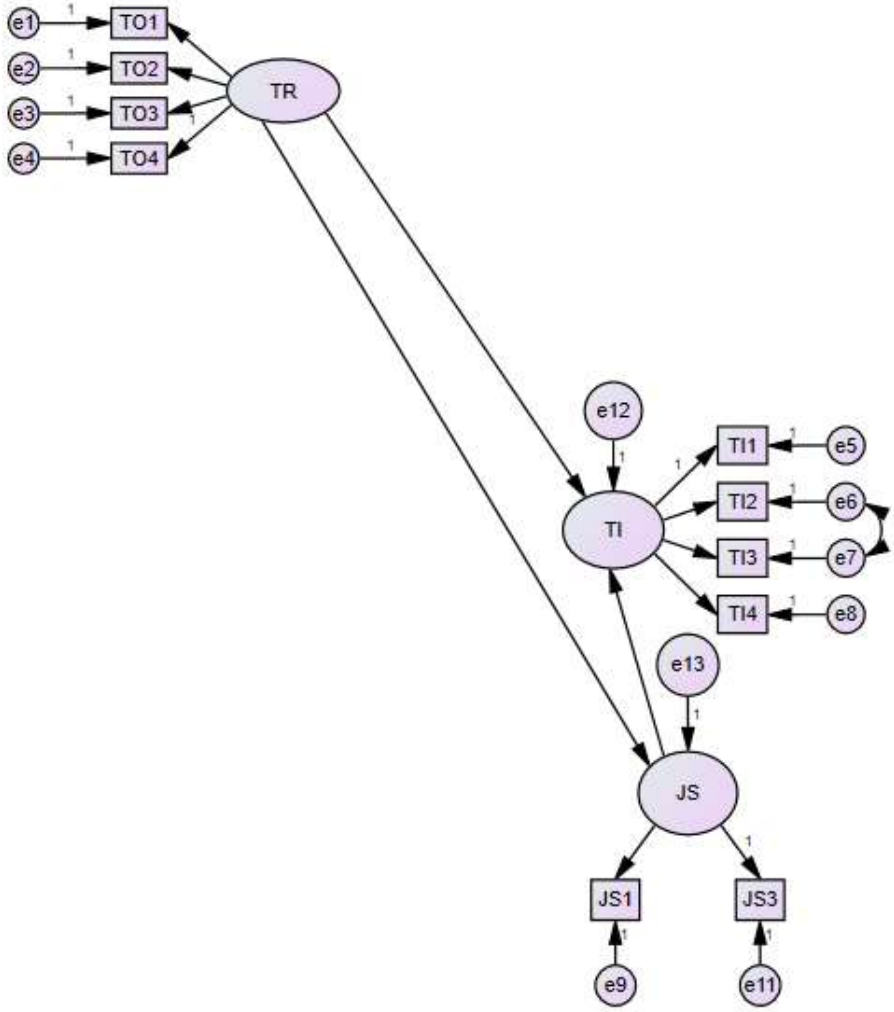


Figure 10

Structural Model with standardized estimates with indirect path removed(M8)

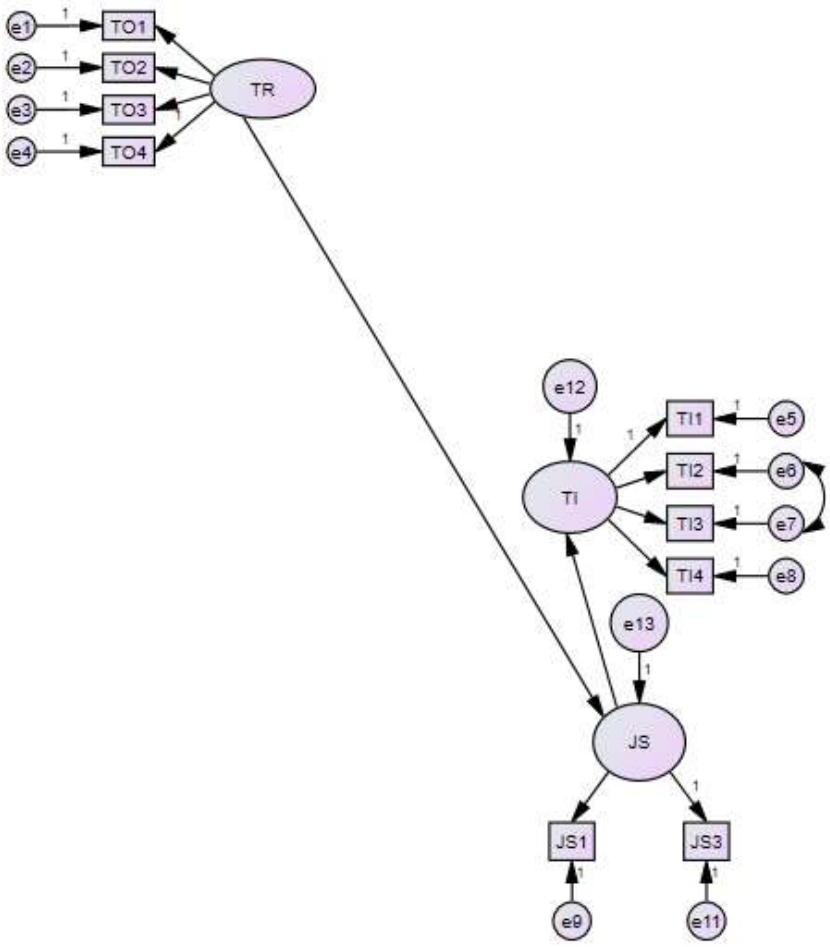


Table 19

Fit Indices for Structural Models for Pooled Sample

Model	χ^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	AIC	BIC	# |RC| >.10	$R^2(TI)$	R^2m	χ^2 / df
1.TR ->JS -> TI and TR -> TI	79.800	31	.079	.030	.974	127.841	212.547	0	.256	.702	2.57
2.TR ->JS -> TI	81.891	32	.079	.036	.974	127.891	209.250	0	.219	.685	2.56

Note. df = degrees of freedom. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation. SRMR = standardized root mean square residual. CFI = comparative fit index. AIC = Akaike information criterion.

Table 20

Bootstrap Estimates of Direct and Indirect effects

Effect	Point estimate[a]	*SE*	95% *CI* LB	95% *CI* UP
Direct effect of Training Opportunity on Job Satisfaction	.882	.090	.697	1.052
Direct effect of Job Satisfaction on Turnover Intention	-.549	.100	-.752	-.344
Direct effect of Training Opportunity on Turnover Intention	.130	.110	-.100	.341
Indirect effect of Training Opportunity on Turnover Intention through Job Satisfaction	-.485	.087	-.692	-.336

Note. [a]Unstandardized estimate. *CI* = confidence interval. LB = lower bound. UP = upper bound.

Table 21

Decomposition of Implied Correlation

Correlation	Direct	Indirect	Total	Spurious	Implied
Training Opportunity, Turnover Intention	.124	-.461	-.337	.000	-.337
Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention	-.596	.000	-.596	.096	-.500
Training Opportunity, Job Satisfaction	.774	.000	.774	.000	.774

Hypotheses Testing

The results in Table 21 showed that Model 1 (Figure 9) provided complete support for Hypotheses 1; training opportunity had a direct and positive relationship to job satisfaction. For further validation of the complete direct effect, considering the implied correlation between training opportunity and job satisfaction was .774, as shown in Table 21. Evaluating the results in Table 21 provided partial support for Hypotheses 2; training opportunity had a direct and negative relationship to turnover intention. For evidence of the partial support, considering the correlation between training opportunity and turnover intention that was .124, which was positive, and the presence of a partial direct effect between training opportunity and turnover intention.

Reviewing Table 20, Model 1 (see Figure 9) provided partial support for Hypotheses 3, training opportunity had a partial indirect effect on turnover intention through job satisfaction. As further evidence for the partial indirect effect, considering that the implied correlation between training opportunity and turnover intention was -.337, and the standardized weight between training opportunity and turnover intention was .124 in the best fitting structural model (i.e., Model 1).

Examining Table 20 and Table 21 showed that Model 1 (see Figure 9) provided complete support for Hypothesis 4, job satisfaction had a direct and negative relationship to turnover intention. For further evidence for the complete direct effect, consider that the implied correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intention was -.596, as shown in Table 21.

Latent Mean Analysis Results for the Three-Factor Model

The latent mean differences analysis was performed on the three-factor scalar invariance model (Byrne, 2013). Gen X group was mean constrained, and the Gen Y group was estimated freely by recoding the mean constraints as mn_tr, mn_js, and mn_ti for the training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention variables. As per the results in Table 22, the latent mean for training opportunity and turnover intention had a significant difference between generation X and generation Y as the critical ratio was above the cut-off value of 1.96.

The construct job satisfaction had a critical ratio of 1.12, which was less than the cut-off criteria of 1.96. This showed that there was no significant difference between generation X and generation Y for the job satisfaction construct. Based on the results of the latent mean analysis, it could be concluded that hypothesis 5 was partially supported as only training opportunity and turnover intentions had significant differences between generation X and generation Y.

Table 22

Latent Mean Differences between Gen X and Gen Y for the Three-Factor Scalar Invariance Model

Construct	Mean	Critical ratio	p-value
Training Opportunity	.302	2.19	.02
Job Satisfaction	.150	1.12	.26
Turnover Intention	.438	3.24	.00

Table 23

Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypothesis	Hypothesis Description	Result
1	Training Opportunity is positively related to job satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.	Supported
2	Training Opportunity has a direct and negative relationship to turnover intentions for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.	Partially Supported
3	Training Opportunity has an indirect relationship to turnover intention through job satisfaction for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.	Partially Supported
4	Job Satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intention for Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.	Supported
5	Generational X and Generation Y have significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention	Partially Supported

Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 reported the results of the study. The chapter began with the descriptive tabulation of data according to different criteria such as race, ethnicity, generation, education, and gender. Next, the measurement model analysis was performed to identify the best fitting model for the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Moreover, the measurement invariance analysis was

conducted as a pre-requisite for latent mean analysis and structural modeling. All the hypotheses were either fully or partially supported.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter consists of five sections. The first section discusses the results from the cross-sectional survey and evaluates the relationship with relevant literature. The next section presents the implications for HRD research and practice. The third section discusses the limitations of the study. Future research directions are presented in the fourth section. Finally, the fifth section summarizes the chapter.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1(H1) stated that training opportunity was positively related to job satisfaction for generation X and generation Y. Results in (Table 20, 21) provided complete support for hypothesis H1. The strong relationship shown by the correlation between training opportunity and job satisfaction (0.774) was in alignment with the existing literature (Schmidt, 2007; Dawal et al., 2009; Hanaysha & Tahir, 2016). Hanaysha and Tahir (2016) used regression analysis to find that training had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 provided evidence to support Herzberg's motivational hygiene theory that motivational factors such as training opportunities help improve job satisfaction.

Through a survey of a group of service employees in the United States, Schmidt (2007) reported that providing training opportunities was a contributing factor for employee job satisfaction. In a study among the nurses of 12 Belgian hospitals, it was found that nurses receiving professional development opportunities had an increased level of job satisfaction resulting in less turnover (Stordeur et al., 2007). These findings showed that professional development opportunities provide job security and reduce turnover intentions and were consistent with the results of this hypothesis. The results of this hypothesis are important for the field of human

resource development as there has been little work done in analyzing the relationship between training opportunity and job satisfaction for the generation X and generation Y cohorts.

The correlation between training opportunity and job satisfaction was stronger for generation Y when compared to generation X. Items 3 and 4 loaded equally across generations X and Y for the training opportunity construct, whereas Items 1 and 2 loaded high for the generation X cohort when compared to the generation Y cohort. Items 1 and 3 for the job satisfaction construct loaded very high for the generation X cohort when compared to the generation Y cohort. The stronger correlation of training opportunity with job satisfaction for generation Y was in line with past research that showed that generation Y employees were committed to learning and development, helping them make a positive impact at work (Suleman & Nelson, 2011).

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2(H2) stated that training opportunity has a direct and negative relationship to turnover intentions for generation X and generation Y. The results provided partial support for the hypothesis. Training opportunity had a direct as well as an indirect relationship with turnover intentions. The direct positive relationship found between training opportunity and turnover intentions contradicted some existing studies (Getie et al., 2015; Sinniah & Kamil, 2017), whereas it was consistent with other studies (Price, 1995). The contrast in the relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions could be attributed to the difference in the type of training opportunities provided. According to Becker's human capital theory, specific training limits the portability of skills across organizations whereas, general training can open new opportunities for the employee leading to turnover (Becker, 1975).

The direct effect (Table 21) showed that for every unit increase in training opportunity, the turnover intention increased by .124 units. The correlation between training opportunity and

turnover intentions was stronger for generation X when compared to generation Y. All the items in the turnover intention construct loaded high for both generation X and generation Y. For generation X, one unit increase in training opportunity reduced the turnover intention by .03 units, whereas for generation Y, one unit increase in training opportunity increased the turnover intention by .47 units. All items in the turnover intention construct had a loading of greater than 0.8 for the generation X and generation Y cohorts except for item 4 for the generation Y cohort.

The direct positive relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions for generation Y can be related to Becker's human capital theory stating that general training could cause turnover as general training could provide external opportunities (Becker, 1962). This finding can be attributed to the fact that generation Y employees are very ambitious, and their desire for fast growth can lead to turnover if more general training were provided (Naim & Lenka, 2018). The direct negative relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions for generation X can be attributed to the fact that generation X employees perform their due diligence before attending training, and they are very loyal to the individuals rather than the companies (Jorgensen, 2003; Marston, 2010). Generation Y employees did not realize what they did not know, and this impacted the kind of training opportunities they chose, which in turn impacted the satisfaction with the training they received (Crampton & Hodge, 2009).

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3(H3) stated that training opportunity has an indirect relationship to turnover intentions through job satisfaction for generation X and generation Y. The results provided partial support for the hypothesis and a -.461 (Table 21) correlation between training opportunity and turnover intentions provided evidence for the partial indirect relationship between the constructs.

This helped conclude that when employees are satisfied with the training opportunity provided, they are more willing to stay with the firm.

This can be explained from the perspective of reciprocal exchange, where the actions of one person are dependent on the other's behavior (Corpanzano & Mitchell, 2005). If the employee was satisfied with the training opportunity, his intent to stay in the organization increased, increasing productivity, which helped the employer provide more opportunities to their employees, creating a self-reinforcing cycle. This finding was consistent with Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, which states that providing opportunities for learning and advancement acts as satisfier leading to job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1974).

All items in the training opportunity had similar factor loadings across the generation X and generation Y cohorts. For item 1 in the training opportunity construct, the loading was the same across both cohorts, and the other items 2, 3, and 4 loaded very similarly across both cohorts. All items in the constructs job satisfaction and turnover intentions loaded very similarly across both cohorts. There was only a partial support for this hypothesis as there was a positive direct relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions caused by the generation Y cohort as identified in hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4(H4) stated that job satisfaction is negatively related to turnover intentions for generation X and generation Y cohorts. Results provided complete support for the hypothesis, and a -.596 (Table 21) correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions provided evidence for the direct relationship between the constructs. For every unit increase in job satisfaction of a gen X or a gen Y employee, the turnover intention reduced by 0.596 units. This finding reinforces

the results from existing studies across different industries (Christopher et al., 2018; Stordeur, 2007).

Based on the correlations found in the configural model, generation X had a stronger negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (-.65) when compared to generation Y (-.31). In addition, the items in the job satisfaction construct loaded greater than .90 for the generation X cohort compared to the generation Y cohort. This helped ascertain that the items were more meaningful in representing the job satisfaction construct for generation X when compared to generation Y.

The results showed that generation X had a strong correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions compared to generation Y, and it played a deciding role in generation X turnover intentions. On the other hand, the weak correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions for generation Y could be attributed to the fact that generation Y employees considered their personal lives valuable, and they were willing to leave their jobs to achieve work-life balance (Buzza, 2017). In addition, the age difference between the youngest generation Y member and the oldest generation X member was 31 years, and this generation gap and difference in generation values were other reasons that could cause retention problems (Lancaster & Stillman, 2004).

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5(H5) states that generation X and generation Y have significant differences in the relationship between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Results provided partial support for the hypothesis. Based on the critical ratio and the p-value (Table 22), the job satisfaction measure did not show a significant difference between generation X and generation Y, whereas training opportunity and turnover intention showed a significant difference between generation X and generation Y.

The results were consistent with the findings of a multigeneration study conducted among nurses in Canada, where it was found that generation X and generation Y did not have significant differences for either overall job satisfaction or specific components of job satisfaction (Wilson et al., 2008; Enkhbaatar et al.,2021).

The significant differences between generation X and generation Y cohorts for the turnover intention variable aligned with the past studies (Khalid et al., 2013; Bin & Bahron, 2020). Generation X members had faced various economic downturns such as the dot com bubble in the late 1990s, 2008 recession, and therefore they were well prepared for sudden changes and take on new opportunities as needed (Cekada, 2012). In contrast, generation Y members had always worked based on a schedule and always tried to work on projects in which they could make a difference (Cekada, 2012). This contrast in attitude adds evidence for the rigid nature of the generation Y members in the opportunities chosen.

From the perspective of training opportunity, generation X valued professional training and development opportunities, whereas the focus of generation Y was on doing meaningful work (Lancaster & Stillman, 2004). In addition, generation Y employees were independent learners, whereas generation X employees preferred to work more with their trainers (Cekada, 2012).

Implications

The study contributed to the empirical literature on the attitudes and behaviors of generations X and Y at work. This is one of the few studies in the United States that examined the impact of training opportunity on turnover intentions for generations X and Y. The study found evidence that training opportunity provides different levels of satisfaction for the generations X and Y. The implications of this study to the field of human resource development (HRD) can be

grouped into three different areas: implications for research, implications for practice, and methodological implications.

Implications for HRD Research

The study offers a number of implications for HRD research and theory. First, the study identified significant generational differences between generation X and generation Y for the construct of training opportunity. The results reinforce the existing findings in the literature, which show that generation X and generation Y view training opportunities differently. The study provides evidence to the existing literature, which states that generation X use training opportunities to gain job satisfaction whereas generation Y employees utilize training opportunities for career advancement (Güngör & Alp, 2019; Lee, 2019). The configural invariant model provides evidence to support this inference.

Second, the results of the structural model analysis showed that for generation Y, the training opportunity was positively related to turnover intentions, whereas, for generation X, training opportunity was negatively related to turnover intentions. This adds to the existing body of literature on training opportunities and the impact of turnover intentions among generation X and generation Y. The positive relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions can be understood from the fact that individuals in the generation Y cohort are conditionally loyal to their employers (Brown et al., 2015) and less risk-averse (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Training opportunity being positively related to turnover intentions for generation Y can be related to the human capital theory proposed by Becker (1962). Becker (1962) states that employees who are given specific training have less incentive to quit, whereas employees who have access to general training have more reasons to quit as it is easy for them to look for opportunities outside their firm. Most firms provide general training as its strongly related to an increase in performance when

compared to the specific training (Barrett & O'Connell, 2001). Past research, as well as the characteristics of generation Y, helps extrapolate the results and understand that training opportunities increase turnover intentions. Incorporating additional survey questions that focus specifically on the type of training opportunities provided by the organization will help understand the relationship between training opportunity and turnover intentions.

Third, this study focuses on the importance of training opportunity and their influence on job satisfaction. Further, it informs HRD researchers on the vital aspects of job satisfaction and turnover intentions and enhancing the generational cohort literature with an emphasis on Generation X and Generation Y. This cross-sectional study found that training opportunity was related to job satisfaction. Some of the existing survey instruments for job satisfaction exclusively focus on the job roles and responsibilities and employee support at the workplace and do not get adequate information on the level of satisfaction of the employees with the training and development programs in their organization are. Therefore, the significant implication for research is that training should be included as a component in job satisfaction instruments.

Fourth, the Generation Y employees are satisfied with their jobs with the training opportunities provided, but their turnover intentions also increase. This paradox may be related to the expectation that once the generation Y employees complete their training, they want opportunities in the organization that will help them deploy their newly acquired skills. Lacking meaningful career opportunities in their job after the training may increase their turnover intention (Tan et al.,2019).

Fifth, the Generation X workers born in 1960 are nearing retirement, and this study provided insight on their behavior regarding their end-of-year years in the workplace. The findings may be vital as Generation X employees are now largely in leadership positions replacing the baby

boomers (Nowicki & Summers, 2007). This study provides a comparison of Generation X and Generation Y employees who belong to different time periods in their cohort's lifetime. Comparing the results for the generation X employees from this study with the studies done among boomers between 1990 and 2000 helps understand if the work attitudes of the employees are related to their generational cohorts, or it is just a function of age. Research shows that baby boomers in their 50's found self-actualization and personal development to be major contributors to job satisfaction (Appelbaum & Santiago, 1997). Lacking training opportunities was found to increase turnover among the boomers, which was in line with the results of this study showing that training opportunities were negatively related to turnover intentions for generation X (Carson et al., 1996). In a study conducted in the late 1990s among baby boomers and generation X employees, it was found that "Chance to learn new things" was found to be the greatest motivator for baby boomers (Jurkiewicz, 2000). The comparison of the results from the research on boomers in the late 1990s and early 2000s with the results from this study among generation X shows that work attitudes of employees may be just a function of age rather than related to their generation cohorts. This finding adds to the extant literature available on the generational cohort theory.

Implications for HRD Practice

There are several implications for practice emanated from this study. Based on the analysis of structural models, the research findings explain if there are meaningful differences in job satisfaction, training opportunity, and turnover intentions among generation X and generation Y cohorts. The study found evidence that training opportunity and turnover intentions had significant differences among the generation X and generation Y cohorts. There was no significant difference found for the job satisfaction construct between the generation X and generation Y cohorts.

From the training opportunity perspective, research shows that the generation X employees perform due diligence before signing up for a training opportunity (Jorgensen, 2003; Marston, 2010) whereas the generation Y employees do not exactly know what type of training they want (Crampton & Hodge, 2009). Therefore, the generation Y employees may require assistance in identifying the appropriate training programs where the organizations can step in fill the void. The human resource development managers in the organization should ensure that training programs are tailored according to the needs of the employees so that it increases their job satisfaction. Findings from this study will assist the practitioners in designing frictionless opportunities so that generation X and generation Y can work together.

Second, since the amazon mturk workers belong to the gig economy, the study's results can be directly applied to part-time workers in the data entry and medical billing fields belonging to the generation X and generation Y cohorts. The insights provided by this study on the attitudes of the workers towards training opportunities and job satisfaction assist the managers in identifying appropriate training opportunities that will improve the job satisfaction for the generation X and Y cohorts.

Third, the study found evidence that generation X values job satisfaction more than generation Y. Turnover intention reduces by two times for a unit increase in job satisfaction for the generation X cohort when compared to the generation Y cohort. This finding provides insight to managers that job satisfaction affects turnover intentions differently for the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Therefore, the managers may develop different retention strategies for generation X and generation Y cohorts.

HRD practitioners can improve the job satisfaction level of generation Y employees by crafting new opportunities that provide generation Y employees the freedom to alter work-related

tasks (Kim et al., 2009). Practitioners should strive to create an environment that fosters closer relationships between the leadership team and generation Y employees. Creating trust and bond between the generation Y employees and their leadership team helps foster a sense of belongingness with the organization. This expectation could be attributed to their early years when they had a close relationship with their parents compared to the other generations (Kotz, 2016).

Fourth, providing appropriate career advancement opportunities after the training is complete and improving life-work balance are some of the other interventions that need to be done to improve the retention of generation Y employees at the workplace (Buzza, 2017; Güngör & Alp, 2019; Lee, 2019). This helps the organizations to retain the human capital and recover the training investment.

Fifth, Generation Y employees are called the digital generation because they have had access to the internet from their formative years (Hills et al., 2012). Practitioners can leverage Generation Y's love for social media to design training courses in social media applications such as LinkedIn and Facebook. This initiative will help generation Y employees feel like an integral part of the organization and improve retention (Barnes, 2009).

Methodological Implications

There are several methodological implications that emerge from this study. Robust sampling criterion, assessment of reliability and validity, testing measurement models, performing measurement invariance analysis, testing structural models, and performing latent mean difference analysis are the important methodological implications.

First, the calls to use methodologies such as structural equation modeling to understand specific relations between training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were addressed (Hur & Ha, 2019). The hypotheses were tested by following the rigorous approach of

measurement invariance testing followed by structural equation modeling and latent mean difference analysis.

Second, the study established configural invariance for the Turnover Intention Scale (Kelloway et al., 1999), Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann et al., 1983), Training Opportunity Scale (Schmidt, 2007) across the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Configural invariance was tested after conducting the measurement model analysis. Configural invariance helps assess whether the constructs are measured the same in different groups (Hong et al., 2003). Fit indices were analyzed to ensure configural invariance, and a value of CFI = .966 and SRMR = .029 confirmed configural invariance. Confirming configural invariance shows that the same number of factors exist across the generation X and generation Y cohorts. By assessing the configural invariance, the study added to the body of measurement invariance literature.

Third, convergent validity and discriminant validity were tested and confirmed for the training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions construct across the generation X and generation Y cohorts. The average variance extracted (AVE) method was used to assess the discrimination validity, and the findings provide evidence for the existence of discriminant validity across the training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions construct for the generation X cohort. The findings showed a marginal lack of discriminant validity between the training opportunity and job satisfaction constructs for the generation Y cohort, but since none of the factor correlations were greater than 0.90 (Kline, 2016) and the measurement model was considered sufficient to proceed with further analysis. Testing discriminant validity separately across the cohorts helped find the lack of discriminant validity in the generation Y cohort. Therefore, it can be concluded that conducting validity tests across the different groups combined and separate was critical to establishing the validity of the constructs.

Fourth, the content of surveys must be designed to assess employee turnover intentions and ensure that there was no ambiguity (Peden & Flashinski, 2004). Based on the evaluation of responses, there was no evidence of ambiguity as the factor loadings for all constructs were in line with the previous research findings as outlined in the methods section.

Fifth, the study established metric and scalar invariance for the study variables between the generation X and generation Y cohorts. Metric invariance confirmed that the respondents in both the generational cohorts understand the constructs of training opportunity, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions without any ambiguity and in the same manner. (Petrou et al., 2017). Scalar invariance confirmed that the constructs and the survey items were understood in the same way across both cohorts. The results help conclude that measurement invariance analysis is an important weapon that helps establish the differences among the groups, thereby improving the robustness and the validity of the study.

Limitations

There are at least three limitations to the present study. The first limitation of this study is that the sample for this study was drawn from Amazon mturk, whose employees were measured at one point in time. It is possible that the findings from the present study might not be generalized as no organizational contextual data was collected. Factors such as organizational size or industry type might uniquely shape employee work passion and attitudes. Further studies should be conducted using samples from a variety of organizations and industries.

The second is the limitation of using the survey method leading to the concerns of self-selection bias. Only employees having access to the internet and who visit the website decide to take the survey (Bethlehem, 2010). Also, the administration of a one-shot survey may have produced common method variance, which could have caused common method bias (Podsakoff

et al., 2003). While Harman's test did not indicate common method variance, the study did not utilize the marker variable technique. Hence, there is a concern for common method bias as it can cause variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Finally, the study included only generation X and generation Y employees but not the boomers and generation Z. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to the overall American workplace but rather to a subset of the workforce.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study offers three directions for future research. First, since this is a cross-sectional study, it is difficult to establish a causal relationship between the variables, so a longitudinal study in the future can help understand the causal relationships among the variables over time (Jannsen, De Jonge & Bakker,1999). The longitudinal study will give more insights on the work attitudes by informing whether they are a function of age or related to the generational cohorts shaped by the different social, economic, or political events during the growth years of the members.

Second, the study found that job satisfaction had a significant negative relationship with turnover intentions, but further empirical research that examines all facets of job satisfaction and its relationship with turnover intentions will be exceptionally valuable to understand the root cause of turnover intentions.

Finally, the type of training, training design should be incorporated as variables to understand their influence on job satisfaction. Exploring the job relevance of the training will help understand the use of a training program. Therefore, future studies can incorporate the job relevance of a training program as a construct to evaluate employee satisfaction (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the results of the cross-sectional study and its relationships to the existing literature. Next, the implications for human resource development research and practice were articulated with the limitations of the study. Finally, suggestions for future research were provided.

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Appendix A

Instruments

Training Opportunity Scale (Schmidt, 2004, p.25)

Use the following scale to record your answers: "1 – Disagree very much, 2 – Disagree moderately, 3 – Disagree somewhat, 4 – Agree somewhat, 5 – Agree moderately, 6 – Agree very much".

1. "My department provides training opportunities to meet the changing needs of the workplace."
2. "In my department, learning is planned and purposeful rather than accidental."
3. "In my department, people are interested in both personal and professional development."
4. "Training and development are encouraged and rewarded in my department."

Turnover Intention Scale (Kelloway et al., 1999, p.340)

Use the following scale to record your answers: "1 – Strongly Disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Neither Agree or Disagree, 4 – Agree, 5 – Strongly Agree".

1. "I am thinking about leaving this organization."
2. "I am planning to look for a new job."
3. "I intend to ask people about new job opportunities."
4. "I don't plan to be in this organization much longer."

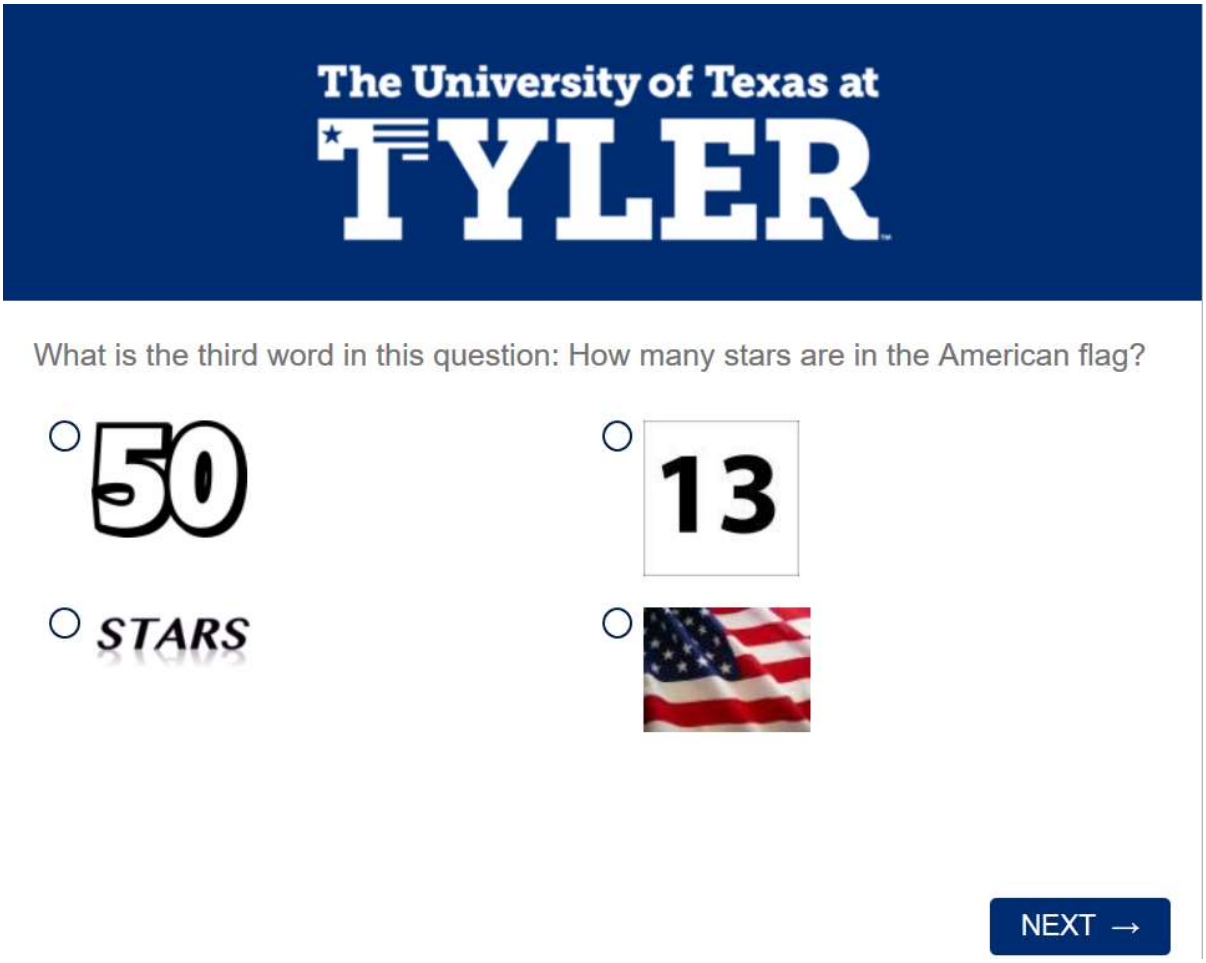
Job Satisfaction Scale (Cammann et al., 1983, p.84)

Use the following scale to record your answers: "1 – Strongly Disagree, 2 – Moderately Disagree, 3 – Slightly Disagree, 4 – Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5 – Slightly Agree, 6 – Moderately Agree, 7- Strongly Agree"

1. "All in all, I am satisfied with my job."
2. "In general, I don't like my job. (R)"
3. "In general, I like working here."

Appendix B

Survey Questionnaire



Appendix B: Continued

The University of Texas at TYLER

You have been invited to participate in this study, titled, "Investigating differences among generation X and Y on turnover intentions caused by work-family conflict and training and mediated by job satisfaction". The purpose of this study is to investigate the differences in work-family conflict, training, job satisfaction and turnover intention among Generation X and Generation Y cohorts. Your participation is completely voluntary, and if you begin participation and choose to not complete it, you are free to not continue without any adverse consequences.

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

- Confirm that you are at least 18 years of age.
- Confirm that you voluntarily agree to complete an online multiple-choice survey.
- Be willing to take approximately 10 minutes to answer all questions honestly as there are no right or wrong answers.
- Selecting the button that best corresponds to your response after reading each question or statement.
- Scroll down the page to answer all the questions if needed and select NEXT to continue after each page.
- Complete the survey in one sitting.

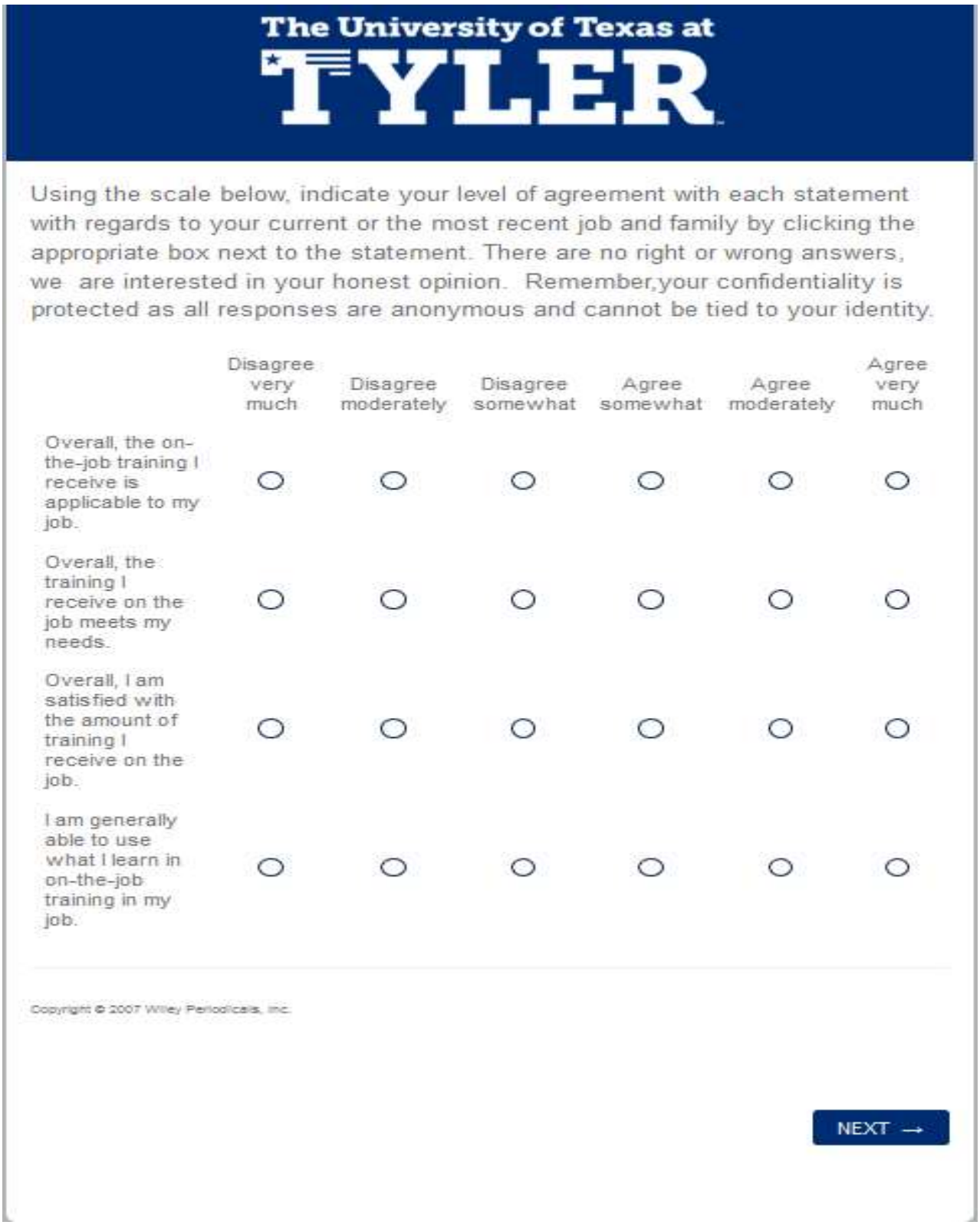
We know of no known risks to this study, other than becoming a little tired of answering the questions, or you may even become a little stressed or distressed when answering some of the questions. If this happens, you are free to take a break and return to the survey to finish it, or, you can discontinue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

I know my responses to the questions are anonymous. If I need to ask questions about this study, I can contact the principle researcher, Regin Justin, or, if I have any questions about my rights as a research participant, I can contact Dr. David Pearson, Chair of the UT Tyler Institutional Review Board at dpearson@uttyler.edu, or 903-565-5858.

I have read and understood what has been explained to me. If I choose to participate in this study, I will click "Yes" in the box below and proceed to the survey. If I choose to not participate, I will click "No" in the box.

- ◯ Yes, I choose to participate in this study,
- ◯ No, I choose not to participate in this study.

Appendix B: Continued



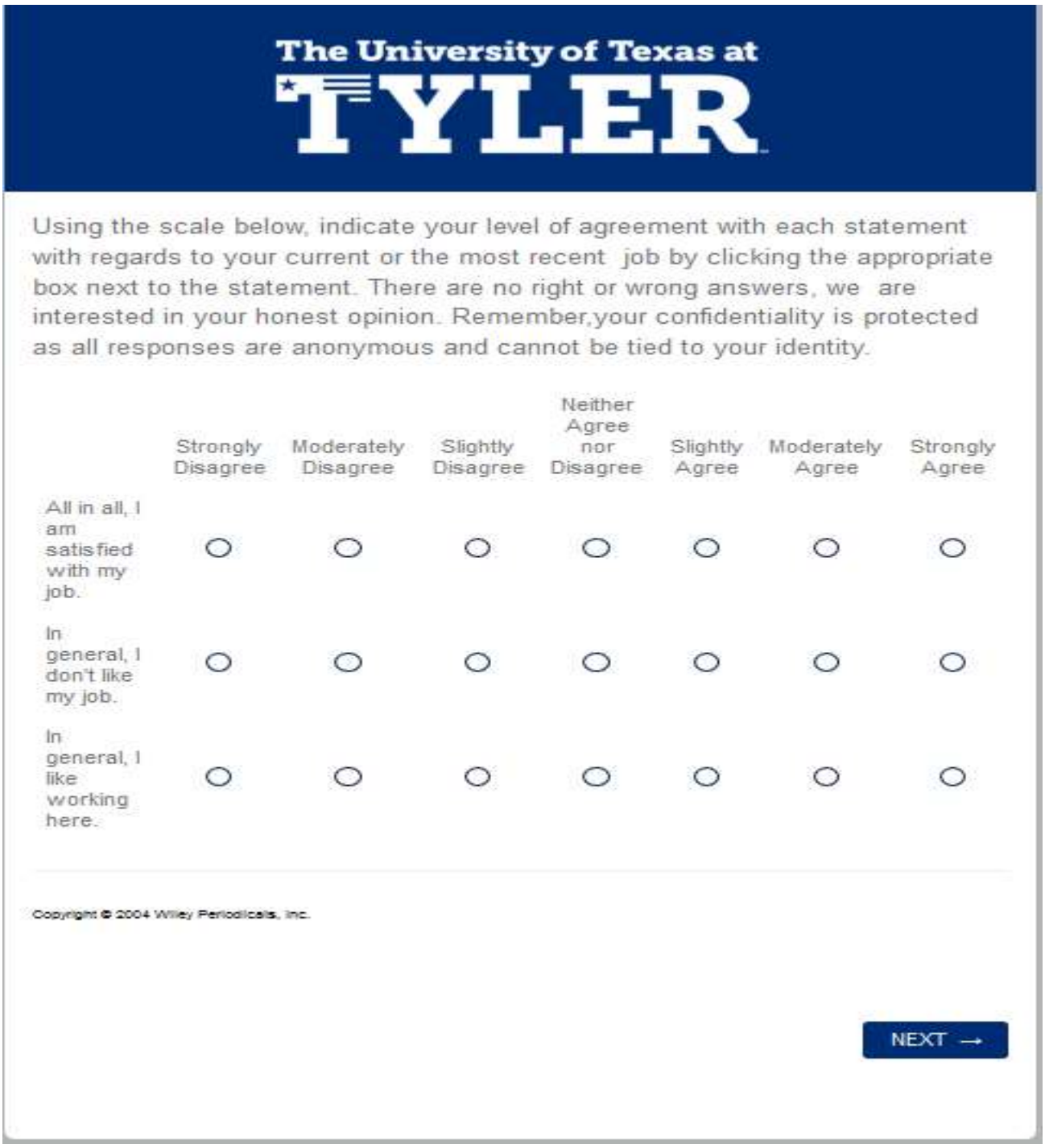
The University of Texas at TYLER

Using the scale below, indicate your level of agreement with each statement with regards to your current or the most recent job and family by clicking the appropriate box next to the statement. There are no right or wrong answers, we are interested in your honest opinion. Remember,your confidentiality is protected as all responses are anonymous and cannot be tied to your identity.

	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree somewhat	Agree somewhat	Agree moderately	Agree very much
Overall, the on-the-job training I receive is applicable to my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, the training I receive on the job meets my needs.	○	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, I am satisfied with the amount of training I receive on the job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am generally able to use what I learn in on-the-job training in my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○

NEXT →

Appendix B: Continued



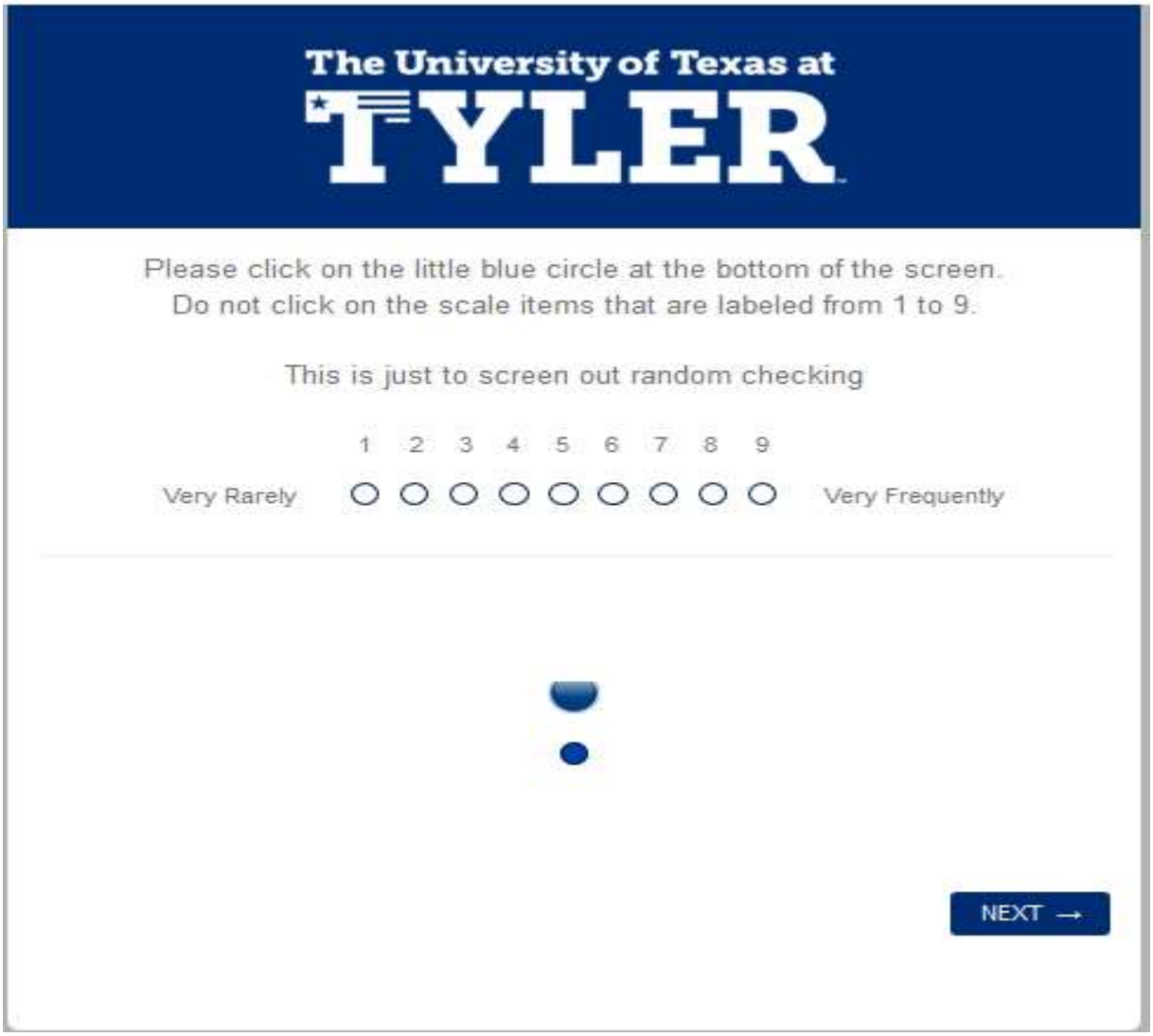
The University of Texas at TYLER

Using the scale below, indicate your level of agreement with each statement with regards to your current or the most recent job by clicking the appropriate box next to the statement. There are no right or wrong answers, we are interested in your honest opinion. Remember,your confidentiality is protected as all responses are anonymous and cannot be tied to your identity.

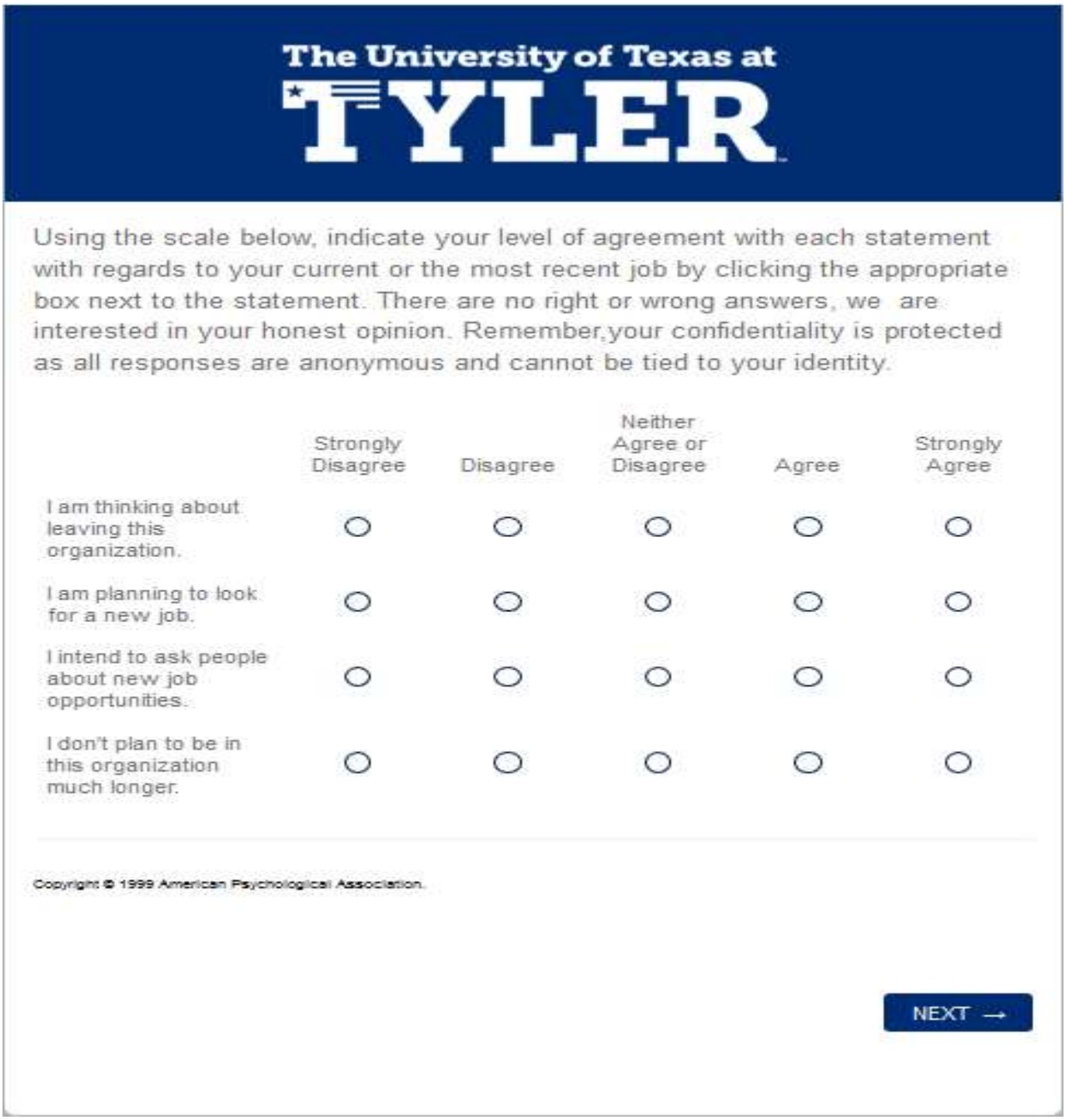
	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, I don't like my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In general, I like working here.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

NEXT →

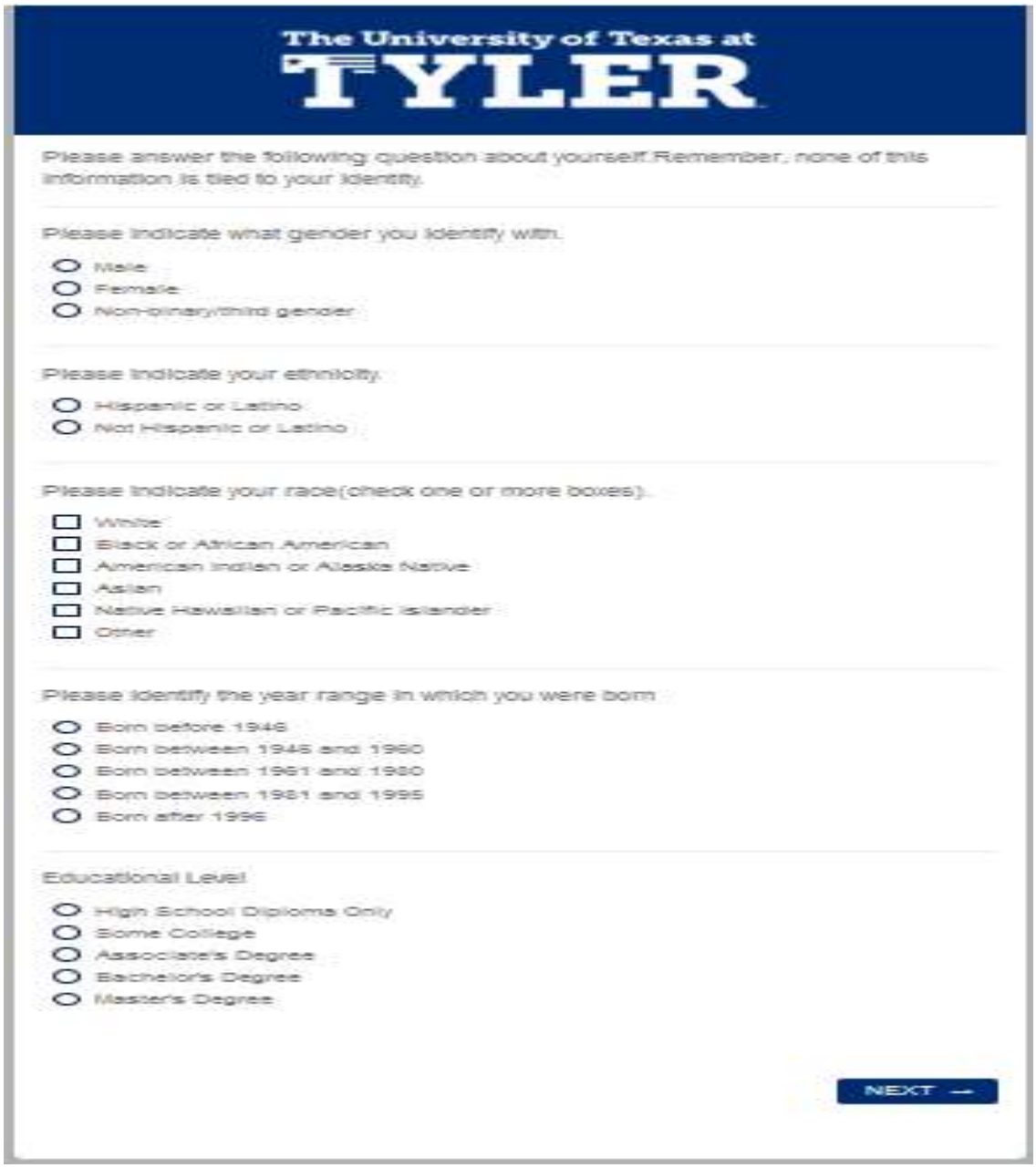
Appendix B: Continued



Appendix B: Continued



Appendix B: Continued



Appendix B: Continued

Appendix C

Permission to Use Turnover Intention Measure

From: Kevin Kelloway <Kevin.Kelloway@smu.ca>
Sent: Monday, April 20, 2020 10:25 AM
To: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Subject: Re: Permission to use Turnover Intention Scale

Hi Justin
Yes please feel free to use the scale in your research. Best of luck with the dissertation!
Kevin

From: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Date: Sunday, April 19, 2020 at 1:01 PM
To: Kevin Kelloway <Kevin.Kelloway@smu.ca>
Subject: Permission to use Turnover Intention Scale

Hello Dr. Kelloway,

I am a PhD candidate in Human Resource Development at the University of Texas at Tyler, Soules College of Business. I am working on my doctoral dissertation titled, "Investigating differences among generation X and Y on turnover intentions caused by work-family conflict and training and mediated by job satisfaction."

I am contacting you to request your permission to use the Turnover Intention scale as outlined in the below article:

Kelloway, E., Gottlieb, B., & Barham, L. (1999). The Source, Nature, and Direction of Work and Family Conflict: A Longitudinal Investigation. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4(4), 337-346. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.4.4.337

Below is the list of items in the turnover intention scale as mentioned in the article.

1. I am thinking about leaving this organization.
2. I am planning to look for a new job.
3. I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.
4. I don't plan to be in this organization much longer.

I can be reached at rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu if you have any questions.

Thanks
Regin Justin

Appendix D

Permission to Use Training Opportunity Measure

From: Schmidt, Steven <SCHMIDTST@ecu.edu>
Sent: Monday, April 20, 2020 8:59 AM
To: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Subject: Re: Permission to use Training Scale

Hi Regin,
Yes, you have my permission to use that subscale in your research (and any other parts of the survey you'd like to use). I do ask that you cite me where appropriate and that you share the results of your study with me when it's complete. I wish you the best in your dissertation work.
sws

Dr. Steven W. Schmidt
Professor and Program Coordinator
Adult Education Program
Department of Interdisciplinary Professions
East Carolina University
College of Education
221B Ragsdale Hall
Greenville, NC 27858
P. 252-328-1118
F. 252-328-5114
schmidtst@ecu.edu

From: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Sent: Sunday, April 19, 2020 1:37 PM
To: Schmidt, Steven <SCHMIDTST@ecu.edu>
Subject: Permission to use Training Scale

Hello Dr.Schmidt,

I am a PhD candidate in Human Resource Development at the University of Texas at Tyler, Soules College of Business. I am working on my doctoral dissertation titled, "Investigating differences among generation X and Y on turnover intentions caused by work-family conflict and training and mediated by job satisfaction."

I am contacting you to request your permission to use the sub-scale Employee satisfaction with training in the Job Training and Job Satisfaction scale as outlined in the below articles:

Schmidt, S. W. (2004). The Job Training and Job Satisfaction Survey Technical Manual. Online Submission.
Schmidt, S. W. (2007). The relationship between satisfaction with workplace training and overall job satisfaction. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 18(4), 481-498. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1216Schmidt, S. W. (2007). The relationship between satisfaction with workplace training and overall job satisfaction. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 18(4), 481-498. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.1216

Below is the list of items in the Employee satisfaction with training sub-scale as mentioned in the article.

1. Overall, the on-the-job training I receive is applicable to my job
2. Overall, the training I receive on the job meets my needs
3. Overall, I am satisfied with the amount of training I receive on the job.
4. I am generally able to use what I learn in on-the-job training in my job

I can be reached at rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu if you have any questions.

Thanks
Regin Justin

Appendix E

Permission to Use Job Satisfaction Measure

From: Wiley Global Permissions <permissions@wiley.com>
Sent: Monday, June 1, 2020 3:46 PM
To: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Subject: RE: Permission to use Job Satisfaction scale

Dear Regin,

Thank you for your email.

Permission is hereby granted for the use requested subject to the usual acknowledgements (author, title of material, title of book, ourselves as publisher). You should also duplicate the copyright notice that appears in the Wiley publication; this can be found on the copyright page in the book.

Any third party material is expressly excluded from this permission. If any of the material you wish to use appears within our work with credit to another source, authorization from that source must be obtained.

This permission does not include the right to grant others permission to photocopy or otherwise reproduce this material except for accessible versions made by non-profit organizations serving the blind, visually impaired and other persons with print disabilities (VIPs).

Sincerely,

Sheik Safdar
Sales Specialist – Permissions
Global Sales Partnerships
Wiley

ssafdar@wiley.com
T +1 201-748-6512

111 River Street
Hoboken, NJ 07030-5774
U.S.
permissions@wiley.com

WILEY

From: Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Sent: Sunday, May 31, 2020 11:58 AM
To: Wiley Global Permissions <permissions@wiley.com>
Subject: Permission to use Job Satisfaction scale

Hello Wiley Permissions team,

I am a PhD candidate in Human Resource Development at the University of Texas at Tyler, Soules College of Business. I am working on my doctoral dissertation titled, "Investigating differences among generation X and Y on turnover intentions caused by work-family conflict and training and mediated by job satisfaction."

I am contacting you to request your permission to use the Job Satisfaction scale as outlined in the below article:

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1983). Assessing the attitudes and perceptions of organizational members. In S. E. Seashore, E. E. Lawler III, P. H. Mirvis, & C. Cammann (Eds.), Assessing organizational change: A guide to methods, measures, and practices (pp 71-138). New York: Wiley.

Below is the list of items in the Job Satisfaction scale as mentioned in the article.

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.

I can be reached at rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu if you have any questions.

Thanks
Regin Justin

Appendix F

IRB Approval

From: do-not-reply@cayuse.com <do-not-reply@cayuse.com>
Sent: 02 February 2021 08:30
To: Paul Roberts <proberts@uttyler.edu>; Regin Justin <rjustin@patriots.uttyler.edu>
Subject: IRB-FY2020-70 - Initial: Exempt

Feb 2, 2021 8:30:14 AM CST

Dear Regin Justin,

Your request to conduct the study: Effect of Training Opportunity and Job Satisfaction on Turnover Intentions among Gen X and Gen Y, IRB-FY2020-70 has been approved by The University of Texas at Tyler Institutional Review Board as a study exempt from further IRB review subject to Category 2.(i). Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording).
The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.
. While this approval includes a waiver of signed, written informed consent, please ensure prospective informed consent is provided, if applicable, unless special circumstances are indicated in the approval email. In addition, please ensure that any research assistants are knowledgeable about research ethics and confidentiality, and any co-investigators have completed human protection training within the past three years, and have forwarded their certificates to the Office of Research and Scholarship (research@uttyler.edu).

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

- Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB of any proposed changes to this research activity.

- **Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB and academic department administration will be done of any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others.**

- Suspension or termination of approval may be done if there is evidence of any serious or continuing noncompliance with Federal Regulations or any aberrations in original proposal.

- Any change in proposal procedures must be promptly reported to the IRB prior to implementing any changes except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject.

- Submit Progress Report when study is concluded.

Best of luck in your research and do not hesitate to contact the Office of Research and Scholarship if you need any further assistance.

Sincerely,
University of Texas at Tyler Institutional Review Board