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AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, MENTORING, AND ANTICIPATED TURNOVER AMONG MILLENNIALS

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AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, MENTORING, AND ANTICIPATED TURNOVER AMONG MILLENNIALS

by

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ABSTRACT

Millennials comprise the largest group of individuals in the workforce, yet organizations struggle to keep millennials engaged in the workplace. Millennials move from job to job, with an average stay at one employer between 12 and 18 months (Hechl, 2017). Researchers have reported that millennials cause the majority of turnover in the workplace. Globally, human resources practitioners experience difficulties retaining millennials (Sahraee et al., 2021). Previous studies have researched millennials, affective commitment, mentoring, and turnover. However, no known research has used all four factors to solve a global problem. In their discussion of the highly competitive labor market, Ramírez García et al. (2019) determined that employers must compete for talented millennials to maintain appeal within the workforce.

Further, turnover remains costly for organizations (Ramírez García et al., 2019). This study examined the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials in the public sector. The researcher attempted to answer the research question and objectives by conducting a non-experimental, quantitative correlation study using surveys through an online platform called Amazon Mechanical Turk. The study resulted in four findings. This study confirms that as affective commitment increases, anticipated turnover decreases. The results indicated a positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring in assessing the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring. The results revealed that mentoring impacts millennials' decision to stay with their organization. The findings indicated a negative correlation between mentoring and anticipated turnover. However, a mediation analysis could not be performed to answer research objective five. The

findings from this study could contribute as a foundation for assessing millennials in the private and non-profit sectors. Also, organizations should implement some form of mentoring in the workplace to increase affective commitment in retaining millennials.

Keywords: human resources, mentoring, millennials, retention, turnover, workforce

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late father, brother, and daughter. Thank you for being my angels in heaven to my father, the late Sherman Joseph Hypolite, and brother Reginald Hebert. To my daughter, Laila Benoit, you are the source of my motivation. I dedicate this accomplishment to you. A special thank you to my sweetheart, Ricky L. Cleveland, for always uplifting and encouraging me to achieve my dreams. No words could ever express the gratitude in my heart and how much you mean to me.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

IRB	Institutional Review Board
MTurk	Amazon Mechanical Turk
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
USM	The University of Southern Mississippi

CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

The United States workforce includes approximately 69.2 million millennials in the private, non-profit, and public sectors (AbouAssi et al., 2021). Millennials, sometimes known as Generation Y, comprise the fastest-growing population in today's workforce (Chavadi et al., 2022; Egerová et al., 2021). Research has varied regarding the birth years of millennials. Egerová et al. (2021) indicated that millennial birth years fall between 1982 and 2000. However, another study noted the birth years between 1980 and 1995 (Mayangdarastri & Khusna, 2020). Presently, four generations exist in the workplace: Traditionalists (1925–1945), Baby Boomers (1946–1960), Generation X (1961–1980), and Millennials (1981–2001; Younas & Waseem Bari, 2020). In *Building America's Skilled Technical Workforce,* the authors discuss how the retirement of baby boomers will lead to a shortage of skilled workers (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, & Medicine, 2017).

Mahmoud et al. (2020) explain employers' struggles to understand the diverse characteristics of each generation. Millennials' expectations differ from other generational cohorts. Millennials have high expectations about job content, training, career development, financial rewards, work-life balance, career advancement, challenges, and work variety (Egerová et al., 2021). Millennial employees expect employers to provide more job characteristics (authority to make decisions, autonomy, utilization of skills) that align with the employees' values and expectations. According to Mahmoud et al. (2020), millennials are willing to create a sustainable environment. Further, they found that workforce stability results from adequately motivated employees (Mahmoud et al., 2020). Businesses and employers must understand employees'

expectations to attract and retain millennials. Millennials will likely leave a company if their needs and demands remain unmet (Vui-Yee & Paggy, 2020). Organizations in the private and public sectors must develop effective retention strategies to reduce turnover (Egerová et al., 2021).

The current study examined the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials. Chapter I begins with the background of the study, problem statement, purpose, and significance. Additionally, this chapter addresses the research objectives, limitations, delimitations, assumptions, and definitions of key terms.

Background of the Study

Organizations struggle to survive due to organizational challenges, such as increasing pressure from globalization, technology, international competition, and increased workforce diversity (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). These challenges affect organizations across the globe. While organizations face external challenges, such as periods of economic recession and instability over which they do not have any control (Gatt & Jiang, 2021), internal challenges, such as losing talented employees, also affect their daily operations (Vui-Yee & Paggy, 2020). External and internal challenges uniquely contribute to the strain on modern organizations' success.

In the present era, organizations require human capital (Sahni, 2021). Organizations must invest their human capital in reducing or eliminating turnover and other survival challenges. The most significant expenditure most organizations face is the labor cost of retaining highly qualified employees (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Every time an employee leaves a company, employers must pay to recruit and train new employees.

A study by Agarwal and Sajid (2017) noted more turnover in the private sector than in the public sector.

On the other hand, Mahmoud et al. (2020) indicated that organizations benefit from increased productivity, higher morale, and higher retention when employers can meet employees' needs. Still, employee turnover remains costly and often underestimated (Ramírez García et al., 2019). Vui-Yee and Paggy (2020) reported that losing talented employees leads to losing knowledge and skills, affecting productivity and profitability. The average economic cost to replace an employee ranges from 50% to 213% of the total annual compensation (AbouAssi et al., 2021). The cost of replacing a full-time employee across all industries in the United States is approximately $11 billion (AbouAssi et al., 2021).

Meanwhile, organizations' labor movement across sectors has the possibility of better fiscal outcomes (AbouAssi et al., 2021). Organizations' survival in the current economy faces challenges linked to training millennials and losing productivity. AbouAssi et al. (2021) explained that there are consequential costs regarding workforce stability, expertise, and organizational outcomes. Millennials are sometimes called "job-hoppers" because millennials are more willing to leave an employer than other cohorts for better opportunities (Ivanovic & Ivancevic, 2019).

Purba and Ananta (2018) reported that millennials were the fastest-growing cohort of employees from 2001 to 2005. Currently, millennials make up one-third of the current workforce in the United States (AbouAssi et al., 2021). Mappamiring et al. (2020) stated that millennials are essential in all sectors (private, public, and non-profit). During periods of economic instability, there is increased movement between sectors among

millennials, with pay being the motivator to switch sectors (AbouAssi et al., 2021). Current literature has reported differences in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention among private and public sectors (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017).

Nevertheless, employment in public service organizations is typically more stable and secure than in the private sector, which tends to be short-term and insecure (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). As previous generations exit the workforce, millennial employees will grow in number and continue to challenge organizational norms. De la Garza Carranza et al. (2020) cited that 61% of human resources professionals believe millennials are challenging to manage. Millennials expect to work in a flexible, technology-driven environment (Egerová et al., 2021). While the present literature does not identify the best solution to retain millennials, affective commitment is an essential component that human resources professionals should consider when strategizing solutions for retention.

Kampkötter et al. (2021) defined *affective organizational commitment* as an employee's emotional attachment that he or she enjoys membership in that organization. An organization's environment can affect employees' affective commitment to stay within an organization. Depending on the industry (healthcare, academic, or hospitality), employees face lower affective commitment due to uncomfortable working environments, which can affect organizational performance and burden organizations with high costs associated with the adverse effects of such environments (Guo et al., 2022). Uncivilized behaviors of other employees impact about 98% of the workforce, as cited by Guo et al. (2022). While higher affective commitment involves lower turnover, intention, and absenteeism (Kampkötter et al., 2021), lower affective commitment results

in costly behavioral consequences, namely turnover and absenteeism (Mahmod & Rosari, 2020).

Mahmod and Rosari (2020) explained that employees of organizations in the United States experience lower affective commitment when they experience reduced personal achievement. Organizations go through the cycle of attracting future candidates, developing and retaining, and increasing motivation for talented employees to become future leaders (Rank & Contreras, 2021). However, this cycle changes when the environment is not conducive to employee expectations. Other components of an employee's decision to stay or leave are wages and non-monetary aspects of the job (Kampkötter et al., 2021). Sahni (2021) explained that employee turnover represents the most devasting problem in current business. Millennial employees find jobs that are meaningful with competitive pay. Employee identification and wage growth still lack certainty depending on the employee's needs (Kampkötter et al., 2021). An organization's environment, wages, and treatment of employees contribute to an employee's affective commitment and, in turn, staying with their employer. Mentoring is a possible factor to help increase affective commitment in millennials.

Mentoring can help millennials in developing millennial careers. Mentoring also positively affects millennials' decision to stay with their employer (Van Vianen et al., 2018). *Mentoring* is the relationship between a less experienced person and a more experienced person, who helps the less experienced person learn to navigate the world of work. There are many types of mentoring, such as career, group, and reverse mentoring. Van Vianen et al. (2018) defined *career mentoring* as instrumental assistance for career advancement. *Group mentoring or mentoring circles* consist of mentees with similar

interests seeking advice from a more experienced, senior person (Predoi-Cross, 2020). Browne (2021) described *reverse mentoring* as an inverted relationship, pairing junior workers to help more experienced leaders with new learning opportunities. Career, group, and reverse mentoring can help entice generational cohorts to work together. Browne (2021) noted that *workplace mentoring* is common practice in public and private sectors, focusing on connecting generations through talent and career development support. Millennials require different motivations than other generations to feel connected to an organization. Van Vianen et al. (2018) explained that career mentoring positively affects job satisfaction and connects employees to the organization. Career mentoring can strongly impact employees' affiliations with organizations (Van Vianen et al., 2018). Naim and Lenka (2017) noted that mentoring is a development intervention that appeals to millennials as they continuously seek learning, feedback, and informational and emotional support. Mentoring is a cost-effective intervention with potentially significant benefits (Naim & Lenka, 2017). Therefore, mentoring is one factor that can reduce turnover among millennials.

Statement of the Problem

The millennial generation presents unique challenges for human resources practitioners to manage the workforce (Mayangdarastri & Khusna, 2020). The ideal situation is to retain millennials and reduce turnover within organizations. On average, millennials leave their jobs within 12 to 18 months after hiring, which increases employers' costs to recruit and train employees (Hechl, 2017). Millennial turnover costs the United States $30.5 billion annually (Ivanovic & Ivancevic, 2019). Without a strategy to retain millennials, employers will continue to lose resources, knowledge, productivity,

and profitability (Su & Hahn, 2021). The millennial generation introduces significant changes in the workplace, and employers must adapt (Setiyani et al., 2019). Organizations are increasingly pressured to attract and retain millennials (Egerová et al., 2021). Organizations will continue to see high turnover, increasing training costs, and a shortage of skilled employees if this problem is not addressed (Egerová et al., 2021).

Purpose Statement

The present quantitative study examined the effects of affective commitment and mentoring on anticipated turnover among millennials. The study further examines this topic because millennials are the largest generational cohort of all generations in the workforce (Younas & Waseem Bari, 2020). The following research objectives guided this study.

Research Questions and Objectives

One research question guided the study: "How will affective commitment and mentoring decrease turnover among millennials?" The five research objectives guided the researcher to answer the research question proposed in this study.

RO1 - Describe the participants' demographics regarding gender, age, years of employment, changed jobs, the reason for leaving a job, sector of government, the help of mentoring, and birth year.

RO2 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover among millennials.

RO3 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring among millennials.

RO4 - Determine the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover among millennials.

RO5 - Determine if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover among millennials.

Conceptual Framework

The study's conceptual framework provides a visual for the focus of the study. The three variables of this study are (a) affective commitment, (b) mentoring, and (c) turnover. Hechl (2017) explained that affective commitment is an employee's commitment to stay with an organization to ensure that the employee identifies with the organization. Millennials have a higher turnover rate than previous cohorts (Hechl, 2017). Employee mentoring supports improved job performance with the help of transformational leadership, and mentoring helps build a solid and desirable organizational culture (Chatterjee et al., 2021; Sun & Wang, 2017). Successful organizations understand that employees are guided to success and ensure that employees are motivated, long-term, and productive (Setiyani et al., 2019).

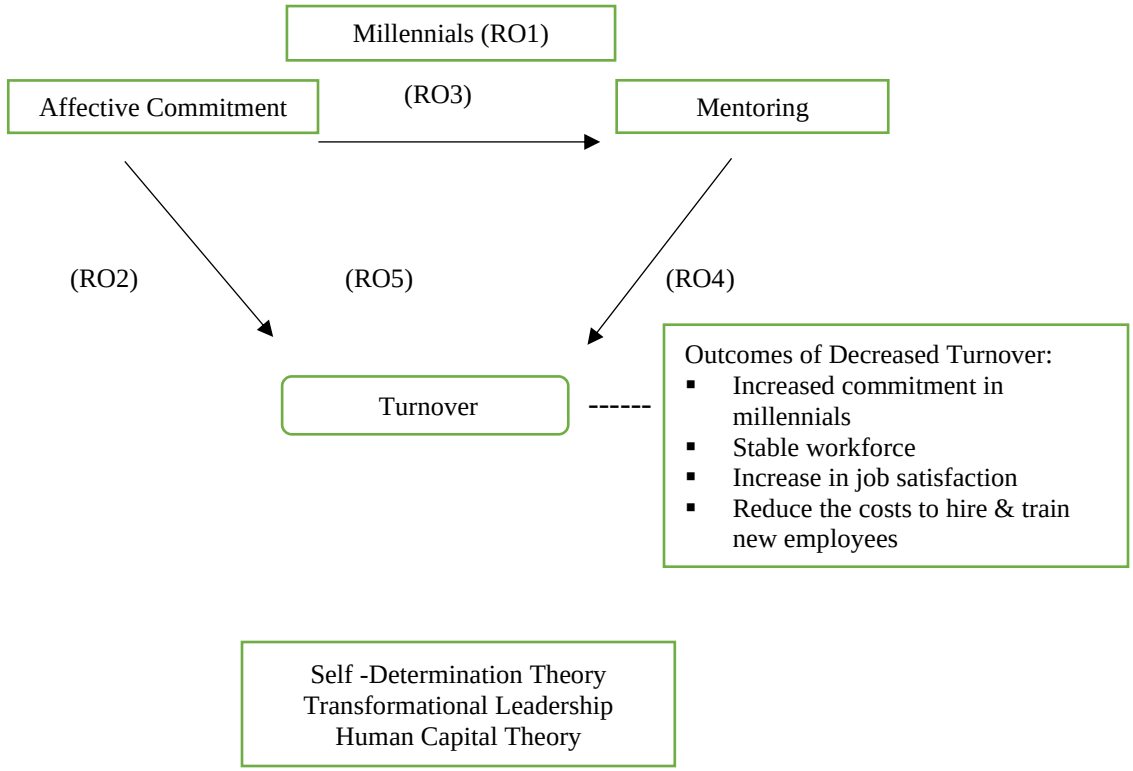
One of the most studied theories when learning about motivation in the workplace is Deci and Ryan's self-determination theory (SDT; Mahmoud et al., 2020). SDT proposes that humans must satisfy three psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Xiang et al., 2021). The self-determination theory posits that humans are naturally motivated (Andrews, 2016). Also, SDT proposes that belongingness predicts higher work engagement, job satisfaction, and affective commitment, along with reducing burnout (Gatt & Jiang, 2021). Xiang et al. (2021) explained that millennial employees could take the initiative and identify strongly with their organization when

they achieve autonomy and relatedness needs. Setiyani et al. (2019) demonstrated that a conducive work environment positively affects job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Managers, supervisors, team leaders, and directors are essential in motivating employees within an organization. Millennials need an organization as a place to grow and explore their capabilities. If an organization does not provide growth opportunities, that organization may not receive the millennials' loyalty (Mayangdarastri & Khusna, 2020). While external motivation, such as money, feedback about performance, and career development, can motivate millennials (Mayangdarastri & Khusna, 2020), transformational leadership theory can explain internal motivation, helping millennials to belong to an organization.

In the past four decades, transformational leadership theory has received scholarly attention (Peng et al., 2020). With multiple generations in the workplace, studies found positive effects of transformational leadership on organizational effectiveness (Khan et al., 2020). Transformational leadership improves organizations by increasing job satisfaction and employee productivity (Khan et al., 2020). A healthy workplace is where organizations and employees benefit from the working relationship. Highly centralized public organizations reduce transformational leadership's effectiveness when employees have little autonomy over their work (Peng et al., 2020). Forastero et al. (2018) noted that providing autonomy to employees will increase their self-efficacy, decrease personal turnover, and increase job satisfaction. A healthy workplace allows millennial employees to meet the objectives of the workplace and provides compensation for their work. Figure 1 displays the effects of affective commitment and mentoring factors on the retention of millennials in the workplace.

Figure 1.

Conceptual Framework



Significance of the Study

Organizations need to maintain a stable workforce. De la Garza Carranza et al. (2020) found that problems with retention and turnover occur when human resources professionals have doubts when hiring millennials and uncertainty about what to offer them in terms of benefits. Common problems in today's workforce, job satisfaction, and leaving intentions are more significant for millennials than previous generations (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). This study explored how to maintain employees' affective commitment to an organization through mentoring to understand whether these two variables will help decrease anticipated turnover. The findings can help the stakeholders

in the public sector affected by this ongoing problem: human resources professionals and practitioners, employers, organizations, employees, and the United States economy. Ramírez García et al. (2019) described the current labor market as highly competitive. Evidence has shown that organizations face retention challenges regardless of size, market focus, or technological development (Ramírez Garcia et al., 2019). The United States workplace will see a demographic shift as millennials constitute one-third of the global workforce (Yap & Zainal Badri, 2020). Affective commitment and mentoring are important as other workers enter the workforce. Evaluations of employees' promotability are necessary for the career development of individual employees, their actual performance, and career success (Van Vianen et al., 2018). Van Vianen et al. (2018) stated that turnover intention is essential, as this predicts actual turnover, which may cause a shortage of qualified personnel, financial costs, and lower performance. Retaining employees is a concern for organizations, as this has economic repercussions and can threaten organizations' survival (Ramírez García et al., 2019). Businesses no longer compete for more customers; they compete to attract talented workers to enhance their operational and workplace productivity (Younas & Waseem Bari, 2020).

Therefore, the results of the current study provide human resources professionals and managers with knowledge on affective commitment using mentoring to decrease turnover. The study aimed to understand how to engage millennials to reduce turnover in government and other sectors. The study can help other researchers and scholars by using the results as a foundation to study other generational cohorts that will enter the workforce now and in the upcoming years. The researcher aims to explain findings to organizations to have ideas for a possible solution to an ongoing problem.

Delimitations and Assumptions

Roberts and Hyatt (2019) discussed how delimitations and assumptions clarify a study's boundaries. Delimitations indicate to the reader how the researcher narrowed the scope of the study. Roberts and Hyatt (2019) explained assumptions as what the researcher takes for granted within their research. The researcher identifies the delimitations and assumptions for this study below.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this proposed study are as follows. First, the researcher limited the analysis to a specific population (millennials) and did not focus on other generations that impact the workplace. The researcher used the years 1982 to 2000 to describe the millennial generation due to recent literature rather than inconsistent past literature. The study explored the effects of affective commitment and mentoring on decreasing anticipated turnover in millennials. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to other generational cohorts. The second delimitation of the study was the examination of millennials in the government sector. This study did not include millennials working in the private and non-profit sectors. Third, the researcher used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) rather than traditional methods to collect surveys, such as paper and pencil or email.

Assumptions

The present study had three assumptions. First, the researcher assumes the participants are literate and answered the questions honestly. Second, the researcher believes the survey's format and language did not hinder the participants' ability to

complete the survey. Third, the researcher assumes that the participants completed the survey without assistance.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following definitions are significant as these words are used throughout this study. Specific terms in this research are defined below.

1. *Affective Commitment* – Employees' positive emotional attachment to their organization (Egerová et al., 2021).
2. *Employee* – A person a company or organization employs for monetary wages (Ramírez García et al., 2019).
3. *Employee Engagement* – The willingness of employees to work extra, trust the organization, and make an effort to help the organization's success (Setiyani et al., 2019).
4. *Job Engagement* – A state of immersion in work such that employees demonstrate enthusiasm for completing individual tasks while maintaining a deeply felt connection to their job role (Walden et al., 2017)
5. *Mentoring* – The relationship between a young adult and an older, more experienced adult that helps a younger individual learn to navigate the adult world and the world of work (Naim & Lenka, 2017).
6. *Millennials* – The individuals born between 1982 and 2000 in the same historical era (Egerová et al., 2021).
7. *Motivation* – A set of energetic forces that originate within and beyond an individual's work-related behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration (Ramírez García et al., 2019).

8. *Organization* – A organization is a collection of people working together to achieve a common purpose and specific objectives (Van Tiem et al., 2012).
9. *Retention* – Retention is the willingness of one to stay at an organization (Naim & Lenka, 2017).
10. *Technology* – A capability given by the practical application of knowledge (Merriam.webster.com/dictionary/).
11. *Transformational Leadership* – The process through which leaders and followers help each other advance to a higher level of motivation (Ghadi et al., 2013).
12. *Work Engagement* – The pervasive affective-cognitive state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Ghadi et al., 2013). Vigor refers to high energy levels and mental resilience while working (Ghadi et al., 2013).
13. *Workforce* – A workforce is the total number of people employed for a particular company or available for work (Egerová et al., 2020).

Organization of Remaining Chapters

The study consists of five chapters. Sections within the manuscript include the introduction, literature review, methodology, results, and conclusion. Chapter I, the introduction, includes the background of the study, the purpose statement, and the significance of the study. Chapter II comprises the literature connecting the effects of affective commitment, mentoring, and turnover. Chapter III, methodology and analysis, outlines the research methodology analysis plan. Chapter IV explains the study's results based on surveys administered to participants. Finally, Chapter V discusses the findings

and conclusions based on the study's results regarding the relationship among affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover.

Summary

The introduction provided insight into the value of millennials in the workforce. The impact of affective commitment and mentoring on retaining millennial employees is a significant concern for employers. Employees are needed to help the economy thrive. Organizations lose time, money, and resources when employees leave, during recruiting, and when rehiring to fill vacancies. Millennials' job satisfaction has a direct link to organizational commitment. Millennials need to feel valued and recognized and have available opportunities (Egerová et al., 2021). Studies have shown that motivation has positive effects on productivity and performance. Organizations face impacts when employees such as millennials are not engaging at work (Sahni, 2021).

With four generational cohorts in the workforce, supervisors, managers, and directors must be open to new approaches to engage millennials (Stewart et al., 2017). Two theories can help aid the modern workforce regarding millennials: Deci and Ryan's (2008) self-determination theory and transformational leadership theory. These theories can help guide organizational leaders toward a practical method to help millennials. Most employees are working to make a livable salary; affective commitment and mentoring can help engage millennials in their job duties. Changes affect the workforce: baby boomers are retiring, technological changes, the need for survival in a highly competitive business environment, and increased career mobility for knowledgeable workers (Agarwal & Sajid, 2017). Employers benefit from maintaining a productive workforce. Chapter II provides the foundation for this study.

CHAPTER II – LITERATURE REVIEW

Many organizations will have to adapt to millennials entering the workforce. With 1,800 million millennials worldwide, employers must find strategies to include millennials in the workplace to promote productivity and retention (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Without essential human resources practices tailored to millennials, as current research has mentioned, 6 out of 10 millennials would leave their employment within three years (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Organizational performance declines as turnover increases (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). The researcher will provide a foundation for this literature review through previous and modern studies.

Generational Cohort

To explain how millennials impact the workforce, a discussion of the previous cohorts is necessary. De la Garza Carranza et al. (2020) defined a *generation* as people with a common place in time who have a collective memory. Generational characteristics help identify the general population born during specific years and significant events that occurred during those years (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Each generational cohort has a different work ethic and lived during history-defining moments. The oldest, most experienced generational cohort to enter the workforce was the Silent Generation, also known as Traditionalists, born between 1925–1945 (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). This generation endured the Great Depression and World War II. Martin and Ottemann (2016) noted that 90% of this generation is retired. This generation valued obedience, loyalty, obligation, and paying their dues. Traditionalists usually work at one company (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). The next generation to enter the workforce was the Baby Boomers, born between 1946–1964 (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). During the Baby

Boomer era, President Kennedy and Martin Luther King assassinations happened, the Vietnam War, and the 1960 Social Revolution occurred (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Baby Boomers still constitute 75 to 80 million people in the United States, and two-thirds of all Baby Boomers are in the workforce (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). They value challenges, advancement, and materialism (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Generation X is the cohort following Baby Boomers. Generation X was born between 1965–1980, during the era of the Cold War and the AIDS epidemic (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Generation X values individualism, flexibility, entrepreneurship, and balance (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). Before millennials entered, all three generational cohorts had lived during the United States' darkest moments in history.

The United States has four generations in the workforce; they all value the importance of a work-life balance, benefits, and working hours (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Understanding the three generational cohorts that preceded millennials makes it clear that the workforce has changed dramatically, with significant events affecting the economy. Each generational cohort has different work expectations of organizations. Millennials are currently the largest cohort of employees in the workplace, changing the dynamics of what employers should provide to maintain them within their organizations.

Another way to better understand generational cohorts is to compare and contrast generations based on defining factors in their lives. Table 1 below contains an overview of the past several generations. The overview in Table 1 also contains numerous events, themes, and trends of interest. The table shows what might have likely shaped the outlooks and characteristics of the members of different generations in the United States

and the world. Beresford Research (2022) adopted the delineation of generations (in terms of birth years).

Table 1

Overview of Generations

Generation Name	Birth Years	Formative Themes, Trends, and Events
World War II / WWII	1922–1927	This generation came of age during the Second World War. Conflict and instability shaped their experiences. The WWII generation provided many soldiers in the Second World War.
Post War	1928–1945	The Post War generation came of age after the Second World War. They were too young to join in the war.
Boomers I	1946–1954	The Baby Boomer generation can be divided into two cohorts for the following reasons: (a) The Baby Boomer generation is enormous, and (b) there are important differences between the earlier and later Baby Boomers. The early Baby Boomers, or Boomers I, were young enough to be drafted into the Vietnam War. For example, like the earlier generations, many tended to be more socially conservative. However, Boomers were also heavily involved in the Hippie movement.
Boomers II	1955–1964	Boomers II came of age after the Vietnam War. Many Americas were in the era of unquestioned American superiority over the postwar global order that had ended in their time.
Gen X	1965–1980	Gen X was the last generation before the rise of new communication technologies such as the Internet and smartphone. Generation Xers were the last Americans who were children when the threat of a nuclear war with the Soviet Union existed. The 9/11 attacks were a formative event for Gen Xers as well.

Table 1 Continued

Millennials	1982–2000	The first digital natives are millennials, the first generation that came of age in a world already defined by the Internet and smartphones. Millennials, like Gen Xers, experienced the 9/11 attacks as a formative event. Many Millennials also came of age in the Great Recession, leading to dissatisfaction with economic and employment conditions.
Gen Z	1997–2012	Even more so than Millennials, Gen Z came of age and continues to come of age in a world defined by the Internet and smartphones. The youngest members of Gen Z will have relatively few memories of the time before COVID.

Note. Adapted from "Millennials' technology readiness and self-efficacy online classes," by C.A. Warden, W. Yi-Shun, J.O. Standworth, and J.F. Chen, 2022, *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *59*(2), p.227 (https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2020.1798269) and Egerová et al.2021.

Based on the overview in Table 1 above, numerous dissimilarities exist between Millennials and previous generations. One notable distinction is that Millennials came of age in a world defined by the Internet, smartphones, and related communication and information technology (Warden et al., 2022). By contrast, Gen X members were older when they first encountered such technology. However, unlike the subsequent Gen Z, older Millennials came of age in a world where the Internet and smartphone usage was not ubiquitous (Warden et al., 2022). In the literature, Generation Z is known as "post-millennials" (Dimock, 2019). Generation Z characteristics are similar to millennials, such as being ethically diverse and technologically sophisticated (Singh & Dangmei, 2016). Only 58% of the older Generation Z (18-21 years old) is in the workforce compared to 72% of Millennials in the same age bracket (Pew Research Center, n.d.).

Kowske et al. (2010) provided another approach to understanding generational differences in the workplace. Table 2 contains Kowske et al.'s (2010) explanation of these differences, using slightly different terminology than Beresford Research (2022).

Table 2

Characteristics of Different Generations in the Workplace

Generation	Characteristics
GI	Brave and fearless, dedicated to progress and innovation, optimists, rationalists, builders, doers, less spiritual, more concerned with outer life over inner, collegial, standardized, pre-packaged, bland, trusting in government and authority, civic-minded.
Silent	Prefer job security over entrepreneurship, cautious, unimaginative, unadventurous, unoriginal, facilitators and helpmates, arbiters but not leaders, causeless, without outward turmoil, inward-focused.
Baby Boomers	Much heralded but failing to meet expectations, smug, self-absorbed, intellectually arrogant, socially mature, culturally wise, critical thinkers, spiritual, religious, having an inner enthusiasm, radical, controversial, non-conformist, self-confident, self-indulgent.
Gen Xers	Cynical, distrusting, bearing the weight of the world, fearful, lost, wasted, incorrigible, in-your-face, frenetic, shocking, uneducated, shallow, uncivil, mature for their age, pragmatic, apathetic and disengaged politically, independent, self-reliant, fatalistic, mocking, under-achieving.
Millennials	Optimists, cooperative, team players, trusting, accepting authority, rule-followers, intelligent, civic-minded, special, sheltered, confident, achieving, pressured, and conventional.
Gen Z	Technology-driven, ethnically diverse, entrepreneurial, trustworthy, optimistic, impatient, materialistic, most demanding, self-directed, low attention span, entitled, and individualistic.

Note. (GI=Greatest Generation, Gen Xers=Generation X, Gen Z= Generation Z). Adapted from "Millennials' (Lack of) Attitude Problem: An Empirical Examination on Work Attitudes" by B.J. Kowske, R. Rasch., and J. Wiley, 2010, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(2), p. 267 (https://doi.org/10.007/s10869-010-9171-8) and Adapted from "Understanding the Generation Z: The Future Workforce" by A.P. Singh and J. Dangmei, 2016, *South-Asian Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, *3*(3),p2-3 (https://www.researchgate.net/publications/305280948).

Millennials' workplace needs differ from those of previous generations. Holt et al. (2012) compared and contrasted Millennials and Baby Boomers. Motivation techniques differ between Millennials and Baby Boomers. According to Holt et al. (2012), Baby Boomers grew up in large corporate hierarchies rather than flat management and team-based roles. They identify their strengths as organizational memory, optimism, and willingness to work long hours. However, millennials have different expectations of their employment. Millennials expect stimulation, collaboration, and compensation. Work/life balance is paramount to millennials (Holt et al., 2012). Both generations are willing to work, but their expectations of organizations differ. Holt et al. (2012) acknowledged that ongoing research needs to focus on the Millennial generation, distinct from previous generations, and warrants closer examination. This closer examination is urgent since Generation Z is now reported to have begun entering the workplace (Ivanovic & Ivancevic, 2019).

Millennials

Millennials, also called "Generation Y," are the fastest-growing generational cohort, representing a significant portion of today's workforce (Egerová et al., 2021). There are four generations in the workplace: Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Previous experts disagree about the exact birth years used to define the millennial generation (Smith & Galbraith, 2012). However, current research notes the birth years from 1980 to 2000 (Egerová et al., 2021; Su & Hahn, 2021). Millennials were born in the era of rapid technology and globalization (Mayangdarastri & Khusna, 2020). There is an ongoing debate in the literature describing millennials (T.H. Porter et al., 2019). Brant and Castro (2019) described millennials as

having specific characteristics: inflated self-esteem, lack of patience, and unrealistic, grandiose expectations for exceptional work and promotions. Additionally, Stewart et al. (2017) delineated millennial traits like laziness, defensiveness, lack of initiative and focus, unwillingness to commit to work, neediness, entitlement, and arrogance. Most of these attributes of millennials are negative. On the other side of the debate, Mahmoud et al. (2020) explained that millennials are tech-savvy, better educated, and more ethnically diverse than previous cohorts. Although other generations and organizations place these stereotypes on millennials, millennials are changing the workforce dynamics. Jauhar et al. (2017) believe millennials will become one of the greatest assets for most organizations. The millennial generation has grown up in different educational, economic, social, and political environments from previous generations (C. Thompson & Gregory, 2012). Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) reported that millennials' first significant hurdle in the workplace is socialization into the organization. Due to millennials' different expectations, managers face challenges in understanding what motivates millennials (Sahni, 2021). Conversely, millennials' greatest strength is building relationships and working well with others in a team environment (Farhan, 2021). De la Garza Carranza et al. (2020) explained that external rewards effectively motivate millennials. Millennials prefer a work environment that offers work-life balance, employee development, and transparency (Mahmoud et al., 2020). Therefore, Fuchs et al. (2021) stated the importance of employers offering millennials a work-life balance. Millennials can change the workplace and create new work attitudes (Sahni, 2021).

Millennials' strengths involve working collaboratively (Seldon, 2014). Career progression is the most substantial reason millennials engage at work (Mayangdarastri &

Khusna, 2020). Millennials seek technological progress and communication for immediate gratification (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Subsequently, millennials can be an asset to any organization because of their knowledge of technology. Millennials' experiences have shaped their expectations, and they are considered a high-maintenance group out of all generational cohorts (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Millennials value positive feedback, a nurturing work environment, being a team player, and having a voice in decision-making (Martin & Ottemann, 2016), a few factors that millennial employees consider in maintaining their commitment to an organization. Organizations must offer ample opportunities, professional development, training, coaching, and mentoring (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Millennials seek a multidimensional life by satisfying themselves through work and personal lives (Seldon, 2014).

Walden el al. (2017) noted that outcomes could emerge in response to organizations' relationship cultivation efforts with employees: job engagement and employee commitment to their organization. Carpenter and de Charon (2014) explained that managing human capital to sustain competitive advantage has escalated to one of the essential functions of hiring managers. Most organizations have difficulties involving millennials in the workplace. Sahni (2021) explained that managers struggle to understand what motivates millennials. Organizations need to connect with their employees because engagement is a crucial driver of performance (Forastero et al., 2018). Millennials seek learning opportunities in the workplace (Meng & Berger, 2018). Dissatisfaction often triggers millennials to leave their jobs and hop between organizations (Sahni, 2021). Organization leaders should motivate, manage, and retain millennials (Carpenter & de Charon, 2014). Seldon (2014) explained high internal

motivation, work satisfaction, and performance could be linked to low turnover. Employers face a staggering problem that must be recognized when retaining millennial talent. The United States invests $35 billion annually in learning and development to support millennials at work (Thompson, 2016). Egerová et al. (2021) discussed growing evidence that millennials possess new and unique skills and capabilities that have become critical factors of organizational success and sources of competitive advantage in the global business environment. Organizations must be open to shifting their mindset and incorporating millennials into the workforce. Meng and Berger (2018) specified that confident, driven, and high-achieving millennials could help organizations recruit and attract top talent. Policy and guidelines must be revised to support different work styles. Mappamiring et al. (2020) reported that abandoning employees implies disaster for organizations in a competitive situation. By 2025, millennials will account for 75% of the global workforce (Su & Hahn, 2021). Affective commitment is one factor that may help understand how to engage millennial employees in the workforce.

Affective Commitment

The theory of affective commitment is part of a more extensive set of theories on the topic of organizational commitment. The theory bases itself on the empirical observation that some employees appear more committed to their organizations. These observations are based on the following facts:

- Some employees are likelier than others employees to remain with their organizations.
- Some employees are likelier than other employees to not engage in absenteeism.

- Organizational citizenship behaviors—particularly the non-quantifiable aspects of being a good employee—are more readily observed in some employees.
- Some employees are less likely to experience stress, burnout, or other negative consequences from organizational life, which could suggest the presence of an emotional bond or buffer that has a protective function for such employees.
- Some employees are more likely than others employees to trust their superiors and the organization as a whole.

One of the functions of a theory is to explain observations, that is, to place observations within a plausible interpretative framework. Since at least the early 20th century, when Frederick Winslow Taylor (2004) initially published *The Principles of Scientific Management,* the collected data has demonstrated that some employees are better in ways that cannot necessarily be explained by factors such as experience, skill, intelligence, or business processes. The field of human resources and talent management places significant value on affective commitment toward an organization (Luna-Arocas & Lara, 2020). Affective experiences are good predictors of employee behavior (Tillman et al., 2018). Employees want their organizations to be successful and to feel a sense of accomplishment for their success. According to Juma and Lee (2012), trust between employees and employers in the internal labor market relates to emotional commitment. Some employees seem more passionate about their organizations, and theories of affective commitment account for this.

The American psychologist Abraham Maslow, best known for Maslow's (1962) Hierarchy of Needs, offered an early and influential theory of affective commitment in the 1940s. According to Maslow (1962), one of the reasons that some people are more

committed than others—whether in the context of organizational life or interpersonal relationships—is that people deserve self-actualization, love, and self-esteem from their setting. Thus, for example, someone who self-actualizes—that is, becomes their best self—at work is highly motivated and committed to remaining with and contributing to the organization.

Maslow's (1962) Hierarchy of Needs has been utilized in organizational settings to differentiate between emotional (affective) and non-emotional reasons for a work commitment. The basic human needs, such as food and shelter, are at the foundation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. However, emotional needs are at the pinnacle of Maslow's model. Maslow (1962) argued that people must meet their basic needs. Therefore, people's motivation would come after their emotional needs are satisfied. In contemporary workplaces in the developed world, there is no longer a question of whether workers will receive enough wages to remain alive or purchase food. Following Maslow's model, the question is whether workers can fulfill their emotional needs in the workplace. According to Maslow (1962), if workers believe their emotional needs are satisfied, their affective ties to their workplace will strengthen. Therefore, prioritizing employees' emotional or affective needs would lead to observable consequences, including wanting to remain employed, being good organizational citizens, and voluntarily working harder and better.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory complements Maslow's (1962) attempt to explain affective commitment. According to Herzberg (1965), there is a fundamental difference between satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the workplace, with satisfaction being primarily emotional in nature. Herzberg (1965) argued that, for instance, workers could

be dissatisfied with low pay, but simply raising their wages does not result in automation satisfaction: in other words, in Herzberg's model, the absence of dissatisfaction does not imply satisfaction. Instead, Herzberg (1965) postulated that satisfaction comes from satisfying employees' emotional needs. In this sense, Maslow's (1962) Hierarchy of Needs model overlaps with Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Both approaches utilize emotions (affect) to explain the nature of organizational commitment.

Allen and Meyer's (1996) survey provided an operational definition of affective commitment based on employees' answers to the following prompt questions. These eight questions in Allen and Meyer's (1996) survey are intended to measure affective commitment instead of two other kinds of organizational commitment with different bases. The earlier work of Meyer et al. (1990) placed affective commitment into a broader organizational framework. In particular, Meyer and Allen (2004) developed the Three-Component Model of organizational commitment that studies affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Human resources and organizational development scholars have explained that the previous literature on organizational commitment is confounding, fragmented, and difficult to access (Mercurio, 2015). Despite the increase in workplace commitment studies, confusion remains about commitment, direction, and how it develops and affects behavior (Mercurio, 2015). The fragmented literature on organizational commitment could be attributed to diverse disciplines studying organizational commitment (Mercurio, 2015). This variation is partial to the problem of the ongoing debate. A*ffective commitment* is an emotional attachment to an organization manifested by an individual's identification with and involvement (Mecurio, 2015). Meyer et al. (1990) proposed that affective commitment is the desire to remain at an

organization, continuance commitment is the need to stay at the organization, and normative commitment is the obligation to stay. The critical core of organizational commitment is affective commitment (Mercurio, 2015).

Over the past ten years, the research has associated affective commitment strongly with the consequences of turnover and performance. Management policies and work environment as the reasons behind changes in affective commitment and alienation of employees (Saha & Kumar, 2017). Affective commitment is notably the most useful index of employee psychological attachment to organizations (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). Individuals have higher levels of affective commitment when they align with the organizational goals and values (Payne & Huffman, 2005). Mercurio (2015) provided that developing and managing affective commitment begins at the point of recruitment and within initial entry experiences in an organization. The literature has noted that high commitment to human resources practices affects affective commitment levels and categories such as recruitment and selection, socialization, mentoring, networking, training, and development (Mercurio, 2015). Employees will give an employer their loyalty when they have an emotional attachment. Wang et al. (2020) reported that employees who display an affective commitment to their organization are motivated to maintain positive social exchanges and good organizational behaviors such as job performance.

In keeping with the present study's themes, the researcher investigated how affective commitment relates to millennials and the public sector. As far as the public sector is concerned, one relevant statistical study (Reid et al., 2006) identified the

following four factors as critical predictors of the affective commitment of public sector personnel:

- Role ambiguity: The extent to which the role of a worker is well-defined, adhered to, and respected within the work setting. Role ambiguity increases when workers perceive or believe they are to engage in tasks not part of their job description.
- Perceived organizational support: The extent to which workers perceive themselves to be respected and assisted by the organization, for instance, in terms of work-life balance, adequate training, and psychosocial support.
- Leader-member exchange: There is a two-way relationship between leaders and followers. The followers do not perceive themselves as micromanaged and otherwise subjected to one-way interactions that do not fully acknowledge their autonomy and dignity.
- Task variety: The extent to which work tasks are diversified. Low task variety leads to boredom and disengagement, manifestations of a withdrawal of affective commitment.

The empirical results obtained by Reid et al. (2006) did not explain all affective commitment variations. According to Eby et al. (1999), many affective commitment determinants have not been adequately investigated in the empirical literature. Eby et al. (1999) identified the following factors as foundations for affective commitment:

- Meaningfulness consists of skill variety, task significance, and task identity.
- Autonomy is a standalone category of motivation.
- Knowledge of results is the feedback from the job and feedback from others.

- Empowerment and exchange are the perceived supportiveness, participation, and fairness.

The main components of affective commitment identified by Eby et al. (1999)—task variety, task identity, and leader-member exchange—were also examined by Reid et al. (2006). However, Reid et al. (2006) omitted exploring the potential roles of autonomy and feedback as predictors of affective commitment. Of these omitted variables, autonomy is of particular concern because of its possible relationship to self-determination theory, discussed in a separate subsection of the literature review.

Affective commitment in the public sector might vary based on the observation that the values of the public sector can be different from those of the private sector, a point emphasized by Ehrich and Hansford (2008). Chordiya et al. (2017) argued that an organization's decline in commitment and loyalty to their employees would negatively impact employees' commitment to that organization. The public sector is not ordinarily a domain in which employees—mentors or mentees—pursue promotion and individual financial advancement as much as they pursue being able to provide services to the public (Ehrich & Hansford, 2008). However, the actual bases of affective commitment—related to basic emotions related to one's work—are not likely to vary in the public sector. Instead, the variance is explained by the aspects of public work sectors that employees might find themselves more emotionally attached to (Ehrich & Hansford, 2008).

Affective commitment can be related to mentoring because mentoring, among its other goals, fosters affective commitment in the person receiving it. The mentoring-affective commitment relationship discussion is discussed in greater detail in the following subsection of the literature review, which focuses on mentoring. In theory,

mentoring should increase affective commitment because of the involvement of psychosocial support and some of the other components of mentoring already discussed.

Mentoring

Bozeman and Feeney (2007) reported over 500 articles published on mentoring over the past decade. Several definitions exist, but one explains mentoring in the workplace. *Mentoring* is a process for the informal transmission of knowledge, social capital, and psycho-social support that the recipient perceives as relevant to work, career, or professional development (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). Ideally, mentoring entails informal communication, usually face-to-face and over a long period, between a person perceived to have more relevant knowledge, wisdom, or experience (the mentor) and a person perceived to have less (the protégé; Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). A mentor can provide a protégé with two types of support: career or psychological (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007).

There are several components to mentoring. First, according to Bozeman and Feeney (2007), mentoring is informal; if the activities and orientations associated with mentoring unfold under the heading of formal work practice, then the concepts of training or supervision might be more appropriate than mentoring. Second, mentoring is not merely a transmission of information. As Bozeman and Feeney (2007) noted, mentoring also implies and involves a form of psychological and social support. Craig et al. (2013) indicated that mentoring links employees with beneficial outcomes such as affective organizational commitment, job involvement, and lower turnover intention. Thus, the mentor relationship should be a supportive one. Third, mentoring takes place over time. Human resources development experts help create, administer, and facilitate formal

mentoring in businesses where mentors and protégés are partnered together, according to Banerjee-Batist et al. (2019). Feeney's (2006) findings explained participating in mentorships increases public managers' career outcomes, measured as protégé promotion and the number of employees supervised by the protégé. According to Bozeman and Feeney (2007), a significant amount of time must pass before a relationship can be classified as mentoring, not just a few contacts.

There are other definitions of mentoring. In attempting to synthesize the mentoring reports in the literature, Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) noted that the literature defines mentoring in various ways. The three essential components of a mentoring relationship, process, and context are not consistently considered or embraced in existing definitions. Mentoring comprises a non-hierarchical, reciprocal interaction between mentors and mentees to help the mentee achieve particular professional and personal goals (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). Roles are defined, expectations are outlined, and a purpose is (ideally) delineated in most relationships that follow a developmental pattern throughout time (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) stated that matters in the definition of mentoring include relational, procedural, and contextual elements. In defining the relationship based on mentoring, Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) focuses on reciprocity and some measure of equality. In explaining the process, the authors emphasized purposeful and planned action, and in acknowledging the context of mentoring, the authors focused on the importance of specific professional outcomes.

The definitions of mentorship supplied by Bozeman and Feeney (2007) and those offered by Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) differ significantly. Some of these differences

are as follows. First, Bozeman and Feeney's (2007) definition of mentoring involved informal processes, whereas Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) emphasized the formality of mentoring. The disparity in these definitions suggests that mentoring can be formal or informal, depending on organizational settings, situations, and goals. Next, Bozeman and Feeney (2007) emphasized the role of time in the mentoring relationship, noting that a substantial amount of time must pass for a relationship to be appropriately considered mentoring. Third, Bozeman and Feeney (2009) implied that mentoring is, or is at least perceived to be, hierarchical because the mentor has the knowledge and skills the mentee needs to acquire. However, the definition of mentoring offered by Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) explicitly describes mentoring as non-hierarchical.

There is no single definition of mentoring. The distinctions between the meanings of mentoring offered by Bozeman and Feeney (2007) and those provided by Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) underscore ongoing disagreement about mentoring. The perspectives of these two groups of authors apply to individual studies of mentoring and can be used to synthesize different perspectives on mentoring, especially in public sector organizations and insofar as millennials are concerned.

Mentoring and Generational Issues

Mentoring is the most effective method for attracting and retaining millennial employees (Chatterjee et al., 2021). Chatterjee et al. (2021) indicated that mentoring influences employee performance. Previous researchers have noted that mentoring positively correlates with low turnover. Despite the negative attributes of Generation Y, most are willing to learn from senior leaders within an organization. Mentoring is a process where a more experienced member of an organization, called a mentor, takes

responsibility for actively developing the skills and abilities of a less experienced mentee (Payne & Huffman, 2005). Mentoring is a life-altering relationship that inspires mutual growth, learning, and development (Bean et al., 2014). Huizing (2012) explained that four primary types of group mentoring emerge—peer group, one-to-many, many-to-one, and many-to-many that can enhance mentoring in the workplace. Implementing mentoring in the workplace allows new employees to build their strengths and talents with experienced employees who share similar interests. Most employees train employees to do a particular position or skill.

Several mentoring studies apply to employees from the millennial generation. One such study (Chatterjee et al., 2021) was conducted in India with a quantitative basis. Chatterjee et al. (2021) investigated the effects of mentoring on specific aspects of millennial employees' performances. The authors found the following:

- The quality of mentoring was significantly and positively associated with self-rated job performance total score, $R = .56$, $p < .05$. Given the size of the Pearson correlation coefficient, the quality of mentoring accounts for $(0.56)^2$, or 31.36%, of the variation in self-rated job performance total score.
- The quality of mentoring was significantly and positively associated with self-rated task performance score, $R = .55$, $p < .05$. Given the Pearson correlation coefficient size, mentoring quality accounts for $(0.55)^2$, or 30.25%, of the variation in self-rated task performance.
- The quality of mentoring was significantly and positively associated with self-rated contextual performance score, $R = .48$, $p < .05$. Given the Pearson

correlation coefficient size, mentoring quality accounts for $(0.48)^2$, or 23.04%, of the variation in self-rated contextual performance.

Chatterjee et al.'s (2021) findings support the organizational use of mentoring millennials. Mentoring aims to improve both organizational and individual outcomes. Therefore, any studies that can quantify the impact of mentoring on organizational and personal outcomes can build the case for mentoring as a successful organizational activity.

The study of Chatterjee et al. (2021) can shed light on Bozeman and Feeney's (2007) and Ambrosetti and Dekkers' (2010) definitions of mentorship. Bozeman and Feeney (2007) described mentoring as having the components of "knowledge, social capital, and psycho-social support" (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007, p. 17). In measuring mentoring, Chatterjee et al. (2021) utilized the nine-item Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFQ-9; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2005), containing sections on career support, psychosocial support, and role modeling. Based on Bozeman and Feeney's (2007) definition of mentoring, the MFQ-9 has some deficiencies. It does not ask mentees to (a) describe the knowledge passed on by mentors or (b) assess the degree of social support mentors provide. Ehrich and Hansford (2008) emphasized the importance of mentoring to promotion with the category of career support present in the MFQ-9. Finally, the category of role modeling present in the MFQ-9 is not rooted in the definition of mentoring offered by Bozeman and Feeney. Similarly, the MFQ-9 does not contain items related to the procedural and contextual dimensions in Ambrosetti and Dekkers' (2010) definition of mentoring.

Because of variations in the definition of mentoring and the noncomparability of instruments—such as the MFQ-9—that measure mentoring, it is not easy to synthesize the results obtained by Chatterjee et al. (2021). Because different researchers have worked with varying definitions of mentoring and different ways of measuring this construct, this previous research is insufficient to consider whether mentoring has positive or negative effects on individual or organizational performance. Before engaging with a mentee, mentors should thoroughly review any mentoring procedures. Without this detail, it is impossible to reach justified conclusions about what kind of mentoring should be applied in practice to get the results observed in the literature. Notably, Berk et al. (2005) designed a Mentoring Effectiveness Scale synthesizing several aspects of good mentoring noted in the literature.

Mentoring and Affective Commitment

Several empirical studies link mentoring to desired organizational outcomes, such as turnover intention and affective commitment. In one such study, Naim and Lenka (2017) applied a mediated regression model and obtained the following conclusions:

- Mentoring directly affected Generation Y employees' intention to remain with their organizations.
- Mentoring increased perceived organizational support, which, in turn, increased Generation Y employees' intention to remain with their organizations.
- Mentoring increased affective commitment, which, in turn, increased Generation Y employees' intention to remain with their organizations.
- Mentoring increased perceived organization support, affective commitment, and Generation Y employees' intention to remain with their organizations.

Thus, mentoring will reduce turnover directly and increase perceived organizational support and affective commitment.

Reverse Mentoring

Another reason for implementing mentoring in the workplace is to increase job satisfaction and develop productivity and retention. Arora and Rangnekar (2014) discussed mentoring in the workplace compared to career resilience. Mentoring helps employees strengthen their skills to help promote growth. Marcinkus Murphy (2012) stated that practitioners must renew their mentoring focus to attract potential millennials. One type of mentoring focused on incorporating millennials into the workplace is reverse mentoring.

Marcinkus Murphy (2012) explained reverse mentoring as pairing a junior employee as the mentor to share knowledge with an older, senior colleague as the mentee. Reverse mentoring differs from traditional mentoring. Reverse mentoring allows senior organizational members to acquire technical knowledge, learn about current trends, gain a global cross-cultural perspective, and understand younger generations, such as millennials (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012). It also allows junior employees to gain insight into the upper levels of the organization, allowing them to understand the business better (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012). Thus, reverse mentoring provides something particular to offer both parties.

Jack Welch introduced reverse mentoring in 1999 (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012). Reverse mentoring has become widespread in corporate and academic settings. Reverse mentoring is pairing a younger, junior employee acting as a mentor to share expertise with an older senior colleague as a mentee (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012). Dedication to a

shared aim of mutual learning and collaboration characterizes the reverse mentoring relationship. This mentoring allows older employees to learn from the younger generational cohorts (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012). Marcinkus Murphy (2012) explained that reverse mentoring allows human resources practitioners to facilitate cross-generational knowledge sharing. Reverse mentoring theory views learning as a "two-way street" (Clarke et al., 2019, p. 695). Reverse mentoring mentorship relies on (a) reciprocity of the mentee-mentor relationship, (b) developmental benefits for the mentee's career or work and the mentor's learning partnership, and (c) consistent communication between the mentor and mentee (Clarke et al., 2019). Reverse mentorship also emphasizes the need for continual professional development, where one identifies the gaps in their knowledge and seeks to improve specific knowledge and skills. Reverse mentoring helps engage millennials by allowing them to contribute to their organization by helping their counterparts. Clarke et al. (2019) discussed that reverse mentoring allows millennials to immediately impact and develop strong work relationships with organizational leaders. Mentoring positively correlates with transformational leadership.

Mentoring in the Public Sector

Some researchers have thought that "mentoring in the private sector tends to be individualistic, elitist and focused on promotion while mentoring in the public sector is, or perhaps should be, more about adult development and growth" (Ehrich & Hansford, 2008, p. 5). However, Ehrich and Hansford (2008) argued that this perception is incorrect. In reviewing the literature, Ehrich and Hansford (2008) found that many private-sector organizations were pursuing mentoring more closely related to growth and development than to reasons related to promotions. In addition, Ehrich and Hansford

(2008) noted that mentoring in the public sector was not necessarily focused on development and growth but often concentrated on promotion. For example, according to Feeney's (2009) study, measuring in terms of protégé promotion reveals an increase in the career outcomes of public managers. Because of conflicting theories about the role of mentoring in the public sector, perhaps the best way of building knowledge about mentoring in the public sector is to review individual studies on this topic.

Bozeman and Feeney (2009) offered a theory of public sector mentoring worth examining its comprehensiveness and applicability. First, Bozeman and Feeney discussed the need for a distinct model of public-sector mentoring. In arguing for the need for a specific model of public sector mentoring, the authors indicated that public sector organizations have unique characteristics that require special theoretical treatment, including the following:

- Distinct explanations of success in the public sector necessitate a unique definition of mentoring.
- Mentoring in public sector environments often has the added dimension of equal opportunity. Mentoring is to support specific groups of people (such as women, disabled persons, or African-Americans) who are actively recruiting for government jobs.
- Mentoring in public sector environments is designed to promote specific values that might not be present in the public sector.

For these reasons, it might be appropriate to treat mentoring in the public sector as distinct—in goals, intended outcomes, and other characteristics—from mentoring in the

private sector. Mentoring has increased millennials' involvement with their organization and benefits such as retention.

Anticipated Turnover

Turnover is the name given to the phenomenon of wanting to leave or leave an organization. Mitchell et al. (2010) noted some ambiguity in the operational definition of turnover as any departure from the organization. They cover all types of separations, including voluntary, involuntary, and permanent layoffs, regardless of the reason for the split. When employees leave an organization, the hiring time is often long, mainly when special skills are involved and disruptive to most organizational functioning (Zhu et al., 2017). Voluntary turnover increased from 9% to 13.5% over the preceding five years, with the United States having one of the highest records of 12.8% (Sahraee et al., 2021). Thompson and Gregory (2012) reported that nearly 60% of millennials had changed jobs at least once. Mitchell et al. (2010) explained significant ambiguity in the literature about which forms of employee departures are in the turnover concept. Another measure of anticipated turnover uses a scale, such as the Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). This scale consists of items asking an employee's decision to stay or leave their current organization.

Regarding public sector enterprises, turnover is especially critical when it represents the departure or intended departure of employees leaving. Piatak (2017) noted that government employees would likely move into the for-profit sector during economic instability. Chen et al. (2018) explained that intrinsic than material rewards motivate public service employees more. Eventually, organizations will replace employees who leave their employment. Ertas (2015) discussed that attracting talented individuals to

public service careers to replace baby boomers is challenging for public and non-profit agencies. Public organizations aim to increase employee satisfaction because satisfied employees tend to perform well, are committed to their work, and have less intention to leave their organizations (Demircioglu, 2021). However, implementing organizational change is challenging for public sectors due to bureaucratic features that may impede the change leadership's commitment to change (Van der Voet et al., 2016). Sun and Wang (2017) stated that the overall climate of the workplace could significantly shape individuals' affective evaluations of their organization and their decision to leave. Turnover is a significant problem in several public sector agencies, departments, divisions, and organizations in the United States. Piatak (2017) noted that the sector switching from government to for-profit to government accounts for 18.5% of all job mobility. Ali (2019) reported that government performance could suffer from lost institutional knowledge stemming from shortages and imminent hiring needs. The millennial worker, on average, has had six job and organizational changes by the time they reach 30 years of age (McGinnis Johnson & Ng, 2016). The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2022) provided the following turnover statistics per sector and year:

- In 2017, the annual turnover rate for the entirety of the government sector was 18.2%, meaning that 18.2% of all government employees left their jobs in 2017.
- In 2018, the annual turnover rate for the entirety of the government sector was 18.5%, meaning that 18.5% of all government employees left their jobs in 2018.
- In 2019, the annual turnover rate for the entirety of the government sector was 18.8%, meaning that 18.8% of all government employees left their jobs in 2019.

- In 2020, the annual turnover rate for the entirety of the government sector was 23.4%, meaning that 23.4% of all government employees left their jobs in 2020.
- In 2021, the annual turnover rate for the government sector was 18.1%, meaning that 18.1% of all government employees left their jobs in 2021.

Prior to 2020, the turnover rate in the government slightly increased over the years. However, 2020 appears to have been a higher-than-average year for turnover in the American public sector, with the entirety of the government, the federal government and state and local governments experiencing turnover spikes related to the COVID-19 pandemic (Akinyooye & Nezamis, 2021). As turnover has remained a challenge for organizations, the COVID-19 pandemic made turnover problematic in the government sector.

- In 2020, the total turnover rate for the government was 23.4%, meaning that 23.4% of all government employees left work that year.
- In 2020, the turnover rate for the federal government was 28.2%, meaning that 28.2% of all federal employees left work that year.
- In 2020, the turnover rate for state and local governments was 22.6%, meaning that 22.6% of all state and local government employees left work that year.

These high levels of turnover suggest the importance of understanding what drives turnover. In addition, at the demographic level, turnover can be understood as the replacement of aging generations (who retire or die) by newer generations (which contribute younger employees to the workforce and, therefore, to the continuity of the economy). However, Ng et al. (2016) stated that a shortage of skills has important implications for the public sector. The United States reported that a small proportion of

federal employees identified as 30 years and younger, which creates an alarming situation for the future of public service (Ng et al., 2016). Previous literature has noted that millennials favor the private and non-profit sectors over the public (Ng et al., 2016). Trust in government and the view of government as inflexible and slow to change are possible causes of why millennials are not entering or staying in the public service sector.

Anticipated turnover can be directly related to generational shifts. Hechl (2017) explained that every 20 years, a new generation arrives in the workforce. Supervisors also have difficulty comprehending the new set of similarly-minded employees of similar ages with shared experiences. Hechl (2017) noted that while a generational shift in the workforce is not new, the current generational shift is more impactful than the previous one. For example, baby boomers retire at a rate of 10.000 per day, and the generation that will soon be the largest cohort in the workforce is difficult to retain (Hechl, 2017). A United States Census Bureau study showed millennials switched jobs after 12 to 18 months with an employer (Hechl, 2017). This generational shift creates unique challenges for organizations.

Over the last few decades, employee retention has received attention from scholars and practitioners (Naim & Lenka, 2017). In the 21st century, high talent mobility, competitive business, and diverse workplace pose a serious employee retention challenge. Millennials who are satisfied with their jobs have a lower turnover in organizations. Employees' well-being contributes to longevity, improves employee retention, and leads to positive organizational outcomes (Jones, 2021). Turnover intention is a mental decision between work attitudes and staying or leaving the job (Purwatiningsih & Sawitri, 2021). High millennial turnover is a significant workforce

challenge today (Hechl, 2017). The workforce is shifting as previous generations, such as Baby Boomers, retire. Mayangdarastri and Khusna (2020) reported that 53% of millennials felt disappointed in the lack of development in their new job. Millennials want to feel valued and considered human capital in any organization.

Payne and Huffman (2005) explained that affective and continuance commitment relates to turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior. Valldeneu et al. (2021) discussed that millennials have higher turnover rates than previous generations. Employers should provide engagement activities at the beginning of employment to help employees commit. Employee turnover is a problem that does not have a simple solution for human resources practitioners. Purwatiningsih and Sawitri (2021) concluded that fulfilling a work-life balance and career development allows the millennial generation to stay with their current employer and reduce their intention to change jobs. Mahmoud et al. (2020) explained that one of the benefits of having motivated employees is workforce stability. Researchers in previous literature have agreed that low employee satisfaction and wrong leadership are the two causes of high turnover (Valldeneu et al., 2021). Voluntary turnover is "a process in which an employee decides whether to stay or leave the organization" (Long et al., 2012, p. 576). Voluntary turnover can negatively affect an organization's performance, including losing experienced employees, increased employee replacement expenses, and decreased organizational performance (Hechl, 2017).

When an employee leaves an organization, knowledge, and skills are lost. Organizations must retain employees to thrive financially and minimize costs. Voluntary turnover has been an issue for employers regardless of their sectors: public, private, or

non-profit. Low turnover indicates high affective commitment and millennials aligning with the organization's goals, mission, and values. Purwatiningsih and Sawitri (2021) stated that turnover intention best predicts whether a company will have added expenses and interrupt an organization's sustainability. The cost to recruit and train employees could be high as 50% of an employee's salary (Hecl, 2017). The organization that loses employees frequently has the budget to provide clients services and benefits to current employees. Employers need to understand employees' needs and generational cohort perspectives to decrease employee turnover among millennials, and the organization benefits through increased employee productivity and retention.

There are several statistical analyses of the relationship between affective commitment and turnover. Affective commitment is some of these studies' only independent variable of interest. However, in other studies, such as Naim and Lenka's (2017), affective commitment is one of several predictor variables. Naim and Lenka (2017) found that affective commitment significantly reduced employees' intentions to leave their organizations.

Several other studies investigate employee turnover as a function of affective commitment and other factors. For instance, Sukriket (2014) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover among Thai software engineering professionals. This study included 400 participants and measured job satisfaction as a cumulative assessment of recognition, communication, co-workers, benefits, job conditions, nature of work, operating procedures, supervision, pay, and promotion. Sukriket (2014) found that, of these components of job satisfaction, only the nature of work and job conditions were significant predictors of turnover intention. Sukriket (2014) did not measure mentoring,

but the variables of recognition and communication are conceptually related to affective commitment.

In a quantitative investigation by Tschopp et al. (2014), job satisfaction was the predictor variable using mediated regression. The outcome variable was turnover intention. The proposed mediator was career orientation. Tschopp et al. (2014), like Sukriket (2014), found a positive association between job satisfaction and the desire to remain with an organization. Employees with a loyalty-focused career style are more important than those with an independently oriented career style. According to these findings, organizational loyalty may be a form of affective commitment.

Lee et al. (2015) applied structural equation modeling to test the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention among Korean employees. In this study, like the studies conducted by Tschopp et al. (2014) and Sukriket (2014), satisfied employees were less likely to want to leave their organizations. A study conducted by Lee et al. (2015) was also of interest because it contained the variable of autonomy related to one of the concepts discussed in the literature review, that of self-determination. In the following method, Lee et al. (2015) discovered that autonomy was indirectly related to turnover intention. First, autonomy increased employees' perceptions that they were in a relationship-oriented organizational culture. Second, perceptions of being in a relationship-oriented organizational culture increased job satisfaction. Thus, even if the trait of self-direction/autonomy does not reduce turnover intention, it can impact other variables that reduce turnover intention.

Saeed et al. (2014) examined job satisfaction and turnover intention. In this study, the authors also placed job performance, leader-member exchange, emotional

intelligence, and organizational commitment as covariates alongside the predictor of job satisfaction. Saeed et al. (2014) found that job satisfaction connects positively with staying within an organization.

Self-Determination Theory

One of the main factors in self-determination theory is the distinction between autonomous motivation (including intrinsic motivation) and controlled motivation. Gagné and Deci (2005) stated that intrinsic motivation is an example of autonomous motivation. When people engage in an activity because they find it interesting, they do it wholly volitionally (e.g., I work because it is fun). In contrast, controlled motivation involves acting with a sense of pressure and engaging in the actions (Gagné & Deci, 2005). SDT [self-determination theory] postulates that autonomous and controlled motivations differ in their underlying regulatory processes and accompanying experiences. According to Gagné and Deci (2005), behavior classification depends on how independent or regulated they are. Gagné and Deci (2005) also stated that "autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are both intentional and together they stand in contrast to amotivation, which involves a lack of intention and motivational" (p. 334). Thus, at its core, self-determination theory attempts to explain motivation in two ways—as a function of some external pressure (controlled motivation) or as a result of internal, volitional processes (autonomous motivation). This theory is relevant to work in numerous ways, including in the manner discussed by McGregor. McGregor (2006) stated that two dominant management styles proceed with different motivation assumptions. What McGregor described as Theory X proceeds on the assumption that employees lack autonomous

motivation; therefore, controlled motivation must be high because employees are unlikely to work well otherwise.

On the other hand, Theory Y assumes that people are highly motivated and managed accordingly. Theory Y also explains that supervisors should supervise employees without micromanagement or authoritarianism. Self-determination theory is not only a theory about how employees can or should be managed but also a theory about how employees tend to work. In this sense, self-determination overlaps with other theoretical frameworks discussed in the literature review. For instance, self-determination theory coincides with Maslow's (1962) Hierarchy of Needs model. Both models' highest level of human motivation derives from emotional satisfaction. As Gagné and Deci (2005) described in self-determination theory, autonomous motivation strengthens by emotional feedback, such as when employees find work fun. In Maslow's theory, emotional feedback—which Maslow (1962) sorted into the domains of love, self-esteem, and self-actualization—also represents the highest level of motivation in the workplace and personal settings.

Over 40 years ago, Deci and Ryan (2008) presented a human macro theory called *self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Self-determination theory applies to various life domains, such as personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs such as life goals, aspirations, and the impact of social motivation, behavior, and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008). This theory aimed to differentiate types of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) mentioned that self-determination theory proposes three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy is the need to control one's actions; competence

affects one's outcomes and surroundings, and relatedness is the need to connect with others (Deci & Ryan, 2008). There are two types of autonomy: inner and extrinsic motivation. Millennials are motivated by meaningful work and higher salaries.

Xiang et al. (2021) studied 230 employees at an R&D Chinese company. The authors stated that self-determination theory could help enhance human resource practices, motivating job design, managerial styles, and training. The study explored self-determination theory, knowledge sharing, and the effect of leader-empowering behavior. Using self-determination theory, Xiang et al. (2021) noted that the higher the needs are satisfied, the stronger individuals' sense of self-determination. The study results stated that self-determination theory explains that work motivation indicates various behavioral initiation and regulation degrees. Providing more self-discretion could satisfy employees' needs for autonomy, training employees with necessary occupational skills could satisfy employees' needs for competence, and encouraging more teamwork could fulfill employees' needs for relatedness (Xiang et al., 2021). This study by Xiang et al. (2021) provides a foundation for the present study to understand how self-determination theory, through motivation, engages employees in the workforce.

Self-determination theory poses that an individual has three psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Employees who fulfill their psychological needs increase their affective commitment and remain involved in their organization. SDT provides a foundation for affective commitment, mentoring, and understanding how motivation impacts turnover. Deci and Ryan (2008) explain that self-determination theory yields better psychological health and effective performance. Millennials have the willingness to relate to their organization. Mentoring helps build competence and

relatedness in millennials to feel supported. The self-determination theory can help millennials achieve a greater purpose in their lives.

Transformational Leadership

Caillier (2015) explained that Burns introduced transformational leadership in 1978. In over 30 years, transformational leadership has become one of the prominent theories in organizational behavior (Wright & Pandey, 2009). To better understand the theory of transformational leadership, it would be appropriate to first (a) define leadership, (b) explore some of the different theories of leadership, and (c) explain what makes the theory of transformational leadership distinct. However, there are many theories of leadership; one of the simplest syntheses of this complicated construct was offered by Forster in *Maximum Performance*. According to Forster (2005), leadership is concerned with what needs to be done, whereas management is concerned with completing things. For example, a manager's attention draws to how quickly and efficiently an employee performs work by climbing up and down a ladder. Forster (2005) stated a leader should be able to determine whether a task was appropriate in the first place in determining if the ladder was leaning against the right wall or if there was a better way to get up the wall (Forster, 2005). Bodenhausen and Curtis (2016) explained that transformational leadership improves organizations by increasing satisfaction and commitment and alleviating job stress and burnout. Successful implementation of organizational change requires employees to change their behaviors and attitudes (Van de Voet et al., 2016).

Transformational leaders need to establish a clear connection between the vision and everyday tasks to make individual employees understand how they contribute to the

designated outcomes of their organization (Jensen & Bro, 2018). Ghadi et al. (2013) noted a strong association between transformational leadership and desirable outcomes in work engagement. Bodenhausen and Curtis (2016) noted that transformational leadership is essential to involvement. Transformational leadership is one of the six predictors that allow millennials to be happy in the workplace (Yap & Zainal Badri, 2020). Thus, leadership differentiates from both management and everyday work.

Additionally, there are several ways to think about leadership, some involving people and others involving systems (Allen et al., 1999). Brand and Walker (2021) indicated that transformational leadership focuses on setting objectives and achieving defined outcomes. A systems approach to leadership focuses on how well the leader understands and directs various aspects of an organization, including rules, procedures, and processes (Allen et al., 1999). However, leadership also has an intensely personal component concerned with how to lead people, not systems (Forster, 2005).

There are several theories on this people-oriented aspect of leadership. Bass and Avolio (1990) used statistical approaches to identify and distinguish numerous organizational leadership styles. Bass and Avolio (1990) focused on three leadership types. One of the least effective styles was *laissez-faire*, meaning that such leaders do very little actual leading. Another more effective type was defined as transactional, suggesting that these leaders encourage their subordinates through *quid pro quo* arrangements. For instance, a transactional leader could attempt to motivate subordinates through a cash bonus.

The final and most effective style of leadership identified by Bass and Avolio (1990) was transformational leadership. Before defining transformational leadership,

Bass and Avolio (1999) had a statistical study that recognized two general definitions of this essential leadership idea. First, Northouse (2010) described transformational leadership as the process that changes and transforms people. Emotions, beliefs, ethics, standards, and long-term objectives are all part of transformational leadership. It includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as human beings. Transformational leadership involves a distinctive influence that moves followers to accomplish more than they usually expect (Northouse, 2010). Northouse's definition is of interest not only because of its concision and explanatory power but also because it highlights the affective—that is, emotional—component of leadership. Unlike transactional leaders, *laissez-faire* leaders, and other kinds of leaders, transformational leaders appeal directly to the emotions of their subordinates. Northouse (2010) emphasized that transformational leaders can accomplish this kind of leadership by treating their followers, but Rosener's (2011) definition of transformational leadership emphasizes the personal qualities such leaders possess.

Rosener (2011) asserts that archetypal transformational leaders are adept at persuading followers to change their interests into those of the group by focusing on a larger objective. Additionally, rather than corporate stature, they attribute their influence to personal qualities like charisma, people skills, diligence, or personal connections (Rosener, 2011). According to Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015), inclusive corporate culture is facilitated by diversity management and transformational leadership. According to Khan et al. (2020), having capable leaders is essential to effectively identifying and managing generational gaps and ensuring the happiness of workers of all ages. Transformational leadership enhances public organizations' performance because

transformational leadership has various outcomes, including integrated thinking, innovation, change, and collective response to common challenges (Campbell, 2018). Transformational leadership helps employees such as millennials understand their role in the organization's vision. The final definition of transformational leadership comes from Bass and Avolio's (1990) work. Bass and Avolio's statistical analysis and synthesis identified four factors that, exercised together, account for the overall construct of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership has several components. *Idealized* influence refers to whether or not a person has others' trust, faith, and respect, is dedicated to them, appeal to their goals and dreams, and acts as a role model (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The degree to which a person offers a vision, uses appropriate symbols and images to help others concentrate on their work, and makes others feel their work is important is measured by inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1990). *Intellectual stimulation* demonstrates how well a leader encourages others to be creative in approaching old problems in new ways, foster tolerance for seemingly radical viewpoints, and pushes people to challenge their own and the organization's values and beliefs (Bass & Avolio, 1990). *Individualized consideration* measures how much a leader cares about others' welfare, gives each person their project, and pays attention to those who don't seem as invested in the group (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transformational leadership positively impacts employee motivation, attitude, and behavior (Peng et al., 2020). However, this can be difficult in the public sector when structural and bureaucratic organizations hinder transformational leadership's needs and potential (Wright & Pandey, 2009). A transformational leader can inspire employees to

connect to the organization's objectives (Peng et al., 2020). Millennials proved that government employees are likely to perceive transformational leadership within government agencies (Peng et al., 2020). Using an online survey to test the relationship between transformational leadership and employee affective commitment, Peng et al. (2020) collected data from eight public and non-profit organizations in northeastern the United States. Of the eight that agreed to participate, five were public organizations, and three were non-profit. The sampling method used was convenience sampling. The findings suggested that transformational leadership was positively related to employees' affective commitment (Peng et al., 2020). Transformational leaders can foster a more profound affective commitment from employees. One component of transformational leadership that helps millennials in the workforce is managing the employees' perception of their work.

Transformational Leadership and Millennials

Sun and Wang (2017) examined transformational leadership as a predictor of millennial employees' happiness in the workplace. Other predictors of millennial employees' happiness in the workplace include the meaningfulness of work, work autonomy, workplace friendship, work-life balance, and gratitude. Using the Pearson correlation coefficient, *R*, this study identified the following statistically significant (at $p < .01$) relationships between variables:

- Transformational leadership and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.572$; hence, $(0.572)^2$, or 32.72% of the variation in millennial employees' workplace satisfaction, predicted by transformational leadership variation.

- Workplace friendship and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.516$; hence, $(0.516)^2$, or 26.63% of the variation in millennial employees' happiness in the workplace, predicts by variation in workplace friendship.
- Work-life balance and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.463$; hence, $(0.463)^2$, or 21.44% of the variation in millennial employees' happiness in the workplace varies in work-life balance.
- Autonomy and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.554$; hence, $(0.554)^2$, or 30.69% of the variation in millennial employees' happiness in the workplace, is by variation in autonomy.
- Meaning and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.667$; hence, $(0.667)^2$, or 44.49% of the variation in millennial employees' happiness in the workplace, includes the meaningfulness of work.
- Gratitude and happiness in the workplace, $R = 0.422$; hence, $(0.422)^2$, or 17.80% of the variation in millennial employees' happiness in the workplace includes variation in gratitude.

These findings were of interest not only for their identification of transformational leadership as a predictor of millennial employees' happiness in the workplace but also because of autonomy (relevant to the discussion of self-determination theory presented elsewhere in the literature review). The previous research guides the current study in understanding how millennials need autonomy and meaningful work through mentoring with a transformational leader.

Transformational leadership explains how leaders can influence employees and create high levels of affective commitment through encouragement (Sun & Wang, 2017).

Transformation leadership recognizes employees' needs and aspirations. Sun and Wang (2017) stated that transformational leaders help shape organizational culture to communicate the organization's shared vision with millennial employees. Transformational leadership and self-determination theory help align employees' values, beliefs, and motivation to connect within their organization.

Synthesis

The literature review has investigated several constructs and concepts. This section aims to synthesize these concepts that apply to the present study's research objectives.

Affective Commitment and Anticipated Turnover

The present study's second research objective was to determine the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover in millennials. Based on the literature review, the expectation was that affective commitment correlates negatively with anticipated turnover in millennials. The higher the affective commitment in millennials, the less likely they will want to leave their organization. The second research objective expectation was breaking down affective commitment as a single construct or several interrelated constructs. One possibility was to utilize Allen and Meyer's (1996) affective commitment scale. Another option was to define affective commitment based on the four components delineated by Reid et al. (2006): role ambiguity, perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and task variety. All these components of affective commitment affect millennial employees. According to Reid et al. (2006), role ambiguity refers to how the role of a worker should be well-defined, adhered to, and respected in the work setting. An example of role ambiguity is when workers engage in

tasks they believe or perceive are not part of the job description. Millennials need organizational support. Perceived organizational support is how workers perceive themselves to be respected and assisted by the organization (Reid et al., 2006). For instance, the organization provides workers with work-life balance, adequate training, and psychosocial support. The leader-member exchange is the two-way relationship between leaders and followers such that followers do not perceive themselves as micromanaged and are otherwise subjected to one-way interactions that do not acknowledge their autonomy and dignity. Lastly, task variety is how work tasks are diversified (Reid et al., 2006). These four factors can lead to understanding how to engage millennials to increase affective commitment in the workplace.

Another option was the bases of affective commitment used by Eby et al. (1999), including meaningfulness, autonomy, knowledge of results, and empowerment. Unfortunately, despite their theoretical richness, neither Eby et al.'s (1999) nor Reid et al.'s (2006) definitions of affective commitment are associated with scales. Therefore, Allen and Meyer's (1996) affective commitment scale best measures affective commitment.

Affective Commitment and Mentoring

The study's third research objective was to determine the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring in millennials. Based on the literature review, the expectation was that there would be a positive correlation between mentoring and affective commitment in millennials, such that satisfaction with mentoring would correspond with higher affective commitment. The researcher used the Mentoring

Effectiveness Scale (Berk et al., 2005) and the Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996) to test for a positive correlation in measuring affective commitment.

Mentoring and Anticipated Turnover

The study's fourth research objective was to determine the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover in millennials. Based on the literature review, the expectation was that there would be a negative correlation between mentoring—as measured in the Mentoring Effectiveness Scale (Berk et al., 2005)—and anticipated turnover. The Anticipated Turnover Scale measured anticipated turnover (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984).

Mentoring, Affective Commitment, and Anticipated Turnover

The fifth research objective was to determine if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. The expected outcome of this research objective is based on the literature to describe an appropriate first step to define mediated regression. When a predictor variable and an outcome variable can be described by reference to a third variable (mediator), this is referred to as mediation by Field (2018). According to the standard model (Baron & Kenny, 1986) of mediation testing, there are three steps: Regress X on Y, Regress X on M, Regress X and M on Y. Using this approach, the X variable would be affective commitment, the Y variable would be anticipated turnover, and the M variable would be mentoring. For mediation to exist, mentoring would have to affect anticipated turnover even after taking affective commitment into account. The literature review suggests mentoring may correlate with anticipated turnover even after adding affective commitment. In other words, the perceived quality of mentoring could induce millennials to reduce their

turnover intention even if they do not feel a high affective commitment to their organization.

Summary

This chapter presented an overview of research relating to millennials, affective commitment, self-determination theory, transformational leadership, mentoring, and turnover. This research represents several distinct kinds of explanations and explorations of the relationship between various personality traits, organizational processes, and the important outcome of turnover intention, which, as noted, impacts both private and public organizations. Furthermore, the research reveals that millennials have distinct features that necessitate additional research. Researchers should not assume millennials to be highly similar to prior generations in the workplace.

As previous literature studies have noted, millennials want their work to provide meaning, opportunities for development, and work-life balance. As this chapter explained, employers must ensure they can connect with this cohort and understand their organization's mission to retain millennials. Moreover, based on an analysis and synthesis of important theories and empirical findings, the chapter summarized the expectations for each of the five research objectives of the study. Chapter III describes and defends the research methods and design applied to determine data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGY

Chapter III describes the research methodology and examines the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover. This quantitative study aimed to determine the relationship between three variables among millennials. This study used an online panel called "Amazon's Mechanical Turk," or "MTurk." C.O. Porter et al. (2019) stated that online panels provide researchers access to an unlimited number of participants across the globe, therefore increasing representative samples. MTurk served as the online panel used to collect data in this study. This next section describes the participants, instrumentation, sampling, and data collection procedures.

Research Questions and Objectives

Five research objectives guided this study. The objectives determine the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and turnover. The research study sought to answer the main question: "How will affective commitment and mentoring decrease turnover?" The following research objectives guided the study to answer the research question:

RO1 - Describe the participants' demographics regarding gender, age, years of employment, changed jobs, the reason for leaving a job, sector of government, the help of mentoring, and birth year.

RO2 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover among millennials.

RO3 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring among millennials.

RO4 - Determine the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover among millennials.

RO5 - Determine if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and turnover among millennials.

The researcher used Qualtrics to input the questions that align with each research objective. The variables in the research objectives may show a probable cause-and-effect relationship depending on the results.

Research Design

This study was a non-experimental, casual-comparative, correlation study of affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover. Field (2018) discussed quantitative methods as essential to the research process to test and generate theories. A non-experimental design is one of the leading research designs in a quantitative study (Shadish et al., 2002). Meltzoff and Cooper (2018) stated that relationship questions are a special type of comparative questions. The researcher used a non-experimental design to determine if a linear relationship exists among the constructs in the five research objectives.

A non-experimental design was the appropriate research design for meeting this study's objectives. The explanatory design aims to explain the relationship between the variables (Shadish et al., 2002). The research objectives did not require manipulation of the variables. The survey included demographics, Affective Commitment Scale, Mentorship Effectiveness Scale, and the Anticipated Turnover Scale. The researcher received permission from all instrument creators to use these instruments in this study (See Appendix A). According to Fink (2003), a survey is a method of gathering data from

or about people to characterize, contrast, or otherwise make sense of their knowledge, attitudes, and behavior. The researcher used a web-based, self-administered questionnaire to obtain the data.

Population and Sampling

The target population for this study was millennials born between 1982 to 2000 and employed full-time in the government sector in the United States. The researcher used an online panel platform called Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to obtain participants for this study. The researcher set the qualifications on MTurk to select participants that are government employees in the United States. The participants receive a unique code developed by Qualtrics when they complete the survey. C.O. Porter et al. (2019) noted that one advantage of an online panel is that it provides researchers with a convenient way to reach unlimited participants. Another benefit of MTurk is that it allows researchers to access a sample across the United States to facilitate an increase in representative samples (Porter et al., 2019). Previous literature has noted that MTurk is diverse relative to other online panel platforms (C.O. Porter et al., 2019).

According to Cobanoglu et al. (2021), there are disadvantages to MTurk. One disadvantage is that the lack of monitoring of the participants can lead to data quality issues. Aguinis et al. (2021) explained that using MTurk can present challenges such as inattention, vulnerability to "bots," and self-misrepresentation. Another challenge was reaching the desired number of participants from a population targeted to a specific area.

MTurk allows researchers to specify the criteria for the population needed for the research (MTurk, n.d.). The researcher could reject any survey that a participant did not complete correctly. MTurk participants are called workers (MTurk, n.d.). The population

included male and female participants between the ages of 22 and 40. Meltzoff and Cooper (2018) explained purposive sampling as a subgroup of convenience sampling. This study used a non-probability purposive sampling of millennials employed at their current job for approximately 15 months and registered through the crowdsourcing platform MTurk. One of the requirements to participate in this study was for the millennials to work within the United States. Researching this population is essential, as millennials are the largest workforce cohort. Employers will continue to lose knowledge, resources, time, and money without possible solutions for retaining millennials in their current organization.

Fink (2003) stated that surveys often use samples over populations. MTurk allowed the researcher to use purposive sampling to obtain participants. The researcher provided the criteria for participation in the informed consent (See Appendix B) to MTurk before participants were selected. This study's population was millennials working for the local, state, or federal government in the United States. Cobanoglu et al. (2021) explained that MTurk is a reliable, cost-effective tool capable of providing representative data for research in the behavioral sciences.

According to Norouzian (2020), the goal of the power analysis approach is for the researcher to plan the required sample size to find the existence of the target population. The researcher used a software called *Raosoft* to conduct the power analysis. *Raosoft* is a sample-size calculator that allows a researcher to conduct a power analysis. *Raosoft* states that a population of 20,000 requires a sample size of 377 with a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. For this study, the researcher set the sample size at 377. The researcher used an incentive to help the researcher obtain participants for

the study. The researcher did not have to reduce the confidence level or increase the incentive for completing the survey because the sample size was reached. The researcher collected a total of 468 surveys within two weeks. Out of these 468 participants, 378 was the sample size that qualified for this research. Qualtrics only allows the participant to use the link once to complete the survey.

Instruments

Studying affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover requires obtaining data from the questionnaires. The instrument for this study combined three validated instruments—the Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1996), Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (Berk et al., 2005), and the Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984) —into one survey (See Appendix C). The researcher gathered demographic information from the survey, including years on the job, gender, government sector, and retention. The survey included two attention checks to ensure the participant attentively answered the questions. Aguinis et al. (2021) recommended attention checks to prevent MTurk "workers" from rushing through the questions. The subsequent sections describe the survey and the scales used.

Affective Commitment Scale

Meyer and Allen (2004) developed the Affective Commitment Scale. The instrument measured affective commitment in the participants. There are two survey versions: the original and the academic (Meyer & Allen, 2004). For this research, the researcher used the original version. Meyer and Allen (2004) explained that the difference between the scales is the desired length. The reliability and validity of the scale have been tested and verified in other studies (Scales & Brown, 2020). The original

scale has eight items. The other studies noted the accuracy of utilizing the scale as an instrument (Scales & Brown, 2020). There were no modifications to the items on the scale. The researcher used the 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The scoring of the scale entailed adding all the items together with reverse scoring on items four, five, six, and eight (Meyer & Allen, 2004). The researcher reversed the coding, then added the response per person. The next section of the instruments is the mentoring scale.

Mentorship Effectiveness Scale

Berk et al. (2005) developed the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (MES) to provide a standard tool to rate the effectiveness of the mentor and the mentorship experiences. The researcher evaluated the mentees' experiences. Berk et al. (2005) explained that the format consists of 12 short-answer constructed responses with different anchors for each item. The instrument uses a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and 6 (*not applicable*). The researcher used the MES to measure and evaluate the mentoring characteristics of a professional mentor and mentee relationship. The authors of the scale established the criteria to measure the scale. A faculty committee of five members evaluated them to examine the psychometrics to provide evidence of content validity (Berk et al., 2005). Construct validity determines the validity of the scale it measures (Berk et al., 2005). Berk et al. (2005) stated that the ratings of the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale are based on a 0–5 quantitative scale and summed across all 12 items for a total ranging from 0–60. The researcher could not test the scale's internal consistency—the authors of the scale note that each mentor-mentee

relationship is different and unique. The last scale on the survey will be the anticipated turnover scale.

Anticipated Turnover Scale

Hinshaw and Atwood (1984) created the Anticipated Turnover Scale (ATS) to measure voluntary turnover. The authors designed the scale to measure nurse turnover (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). There were no modifications to this instrument for this research. The ATS consisted of a 12-item questionnaire using a 7-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*). Hinshaw and Atwood (1984) reported an internal consistency reliability estimate with coefficient alpha; standardized alpha of .84. The scale scoring is the average of all the items in the scale divided by the number of items in the total scale. The researcher used this instrument to collect data about millennials' intention to leave their employment voluntarily. The researcher voided any incomplete or missing data. The research objectives in the survey map are listed in Table 3

Survey Map

Research Objectives	Survey Questions
RO1 - Describe the participants' demographics regarding gender, age, sector of government, and years of employment.	Q1, Q4, Q6, Q7, Q8
RO2 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover among millennials.	Q2, Q3, Q9, Q11

Table 3 Continued

RO3 - Determine the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring among millennials.	Q5, Q9, Q10
RO4 - Determine the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover among millennials.	Q2, Q3, Q5, Q10, Q11
RO5 - Determine if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover among millennials.	Q2, Q3, Q5, Q9, Q10, Q11

Institutional Review Board

The researcher applied to The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board (IRB) to receive approval for this study (See Appendix D). The IRB is a board that has approved this research. This study involved the use of human subjects. The researcher informed participants through informed consent about the study. The researcher followed all IRB and The University of Southern Mississippi guidelines for informed consent and protecting human participants. The information collected through the survey did not have any personally identifiable information.

Data Collection

The data collection process began after IRB approval. This study collected data from millennials across the United States using Amazon Mechanical Turk. The participants meeting the MTurk requirements was able to give participant after reading the consent form. The consent form discussed the research, the survey, and payment for the MTurk workers. The researcher used a non-probability sampling method to secure participants and gather data. Using MTurk allowed the researcher to reach a larger

population than by sending surveys by email. MTurk was accessible and cost-effective for this research.

The survey was distributed online through MTurk. For confidentiality, every participant completed a consent form before beginning the survey. Participants who met the qualifications completed the survey using Qualtrics from the online platform MTurk. The MTurk platform directed participants to a link to open the survey. Each participant was assigned a unique survey hyperlink. The survey consisted of 40 questions, with demographics, three scales (Affective Commitment Scale, Mentorship Effectiveness Scale, and Anticipated Turnover Scale), and attentive checks. The researcher did not score the attentive checks. Aguinis et al. (2021) recommended attention checks to address the threat posed by workers of MTurk inattention and web bots. There were two attention checks within the survey to ensure the participant was attentive while completing the survey. The informed consent form educated participants about the present study, their participation, and how to complete the survey. The consent form listed the requirements to participate in the study.

The participants must answer all questions when they open the link for the information to be used in the study. MTurk did not allow a non-consenting participant to complete the survey.

Pilot

The researcher created a pilot survey to test the instrument and how long it takes to complete it. Wadood et al. (2021) explained that the primary goal of pilot testing is to increase the questionnaire's reliability, validity, and practicality. The importance of pilot testing is ensuring the wording is correct, which is crucial to the success of the research

(Wadood et al., 2021). The researcher validated the instrument in two ways. Face validity was one component test of the pilot survey. Face validity was defined by Meltzoff and Cooper (2018) as the degree to which a measure looks to measure what it intends based only on a cursory review of the measure's content. The researcher completed face validity with five colleagues. The average time to complete the survey was 13 minutes among the five colleagues.

The researcher did a pilot test using MTurk by releasing a batch of 33 surveys. The participants completed the survey within four days of creating the HIT. The participants had to meet the qualifications according to the study and pass the attention checks. Out of 33 surveys, three surveys did not meet the criteria. The researcher paid .25 cents for 15 minutes of the participant's time for every approved survey and MTurk fee. After making three edits on MTurk, the researcher received 20 surveys within two days. After receiving 20 surveys, the researcher closed the survey on MTurk. The researcher reviewed the responses from the survey. The participants did not have to give identifiable information during the pilot study. Table 4 provides an overview of data collection procedures.

Table 4

Data Collection Timeline

Weeks	Task
Week 0	Obtained approval from USM Institutional Review Board
Week 0	Contacted Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) about researcher surveys & deadline for surveys

Table 4 Continued

Week 0	Started pilot survey on MTurk Submitted Survey with Consent Form to MTurk
Week 1	Began data collection & deployed survey Began collecting surveys to reach the target sample size of 377
Week 2	Gathered information from surveys Monitored participation from participants The researcher did not have to increase incentives because the sample size was met and exceeded
Week 3	Reviewed responses from the participants
Week 4	The researcher closed the survey on MTurk

Data Analysis

After the collection of the data, the data analysis occurred. The data categories and statistical tests used for each research objective are listed in Table 5. This current study used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze this study's data.

Table 5

Data Analysis Plan

RO	Item(s)	Scale	Statistical Test
RO1	Years Employed	Ordinal	Frequency Distribution
	Changed Jobs	Ordinal	Frequency Distribution
	Reason for Leaving	Nominal	Frequency Distribution
	Employment	Nominal	Frequency Distribution
	Sector of Government	Nominal	Frequency Distribution
	Help of Mentoring	Ordinal	Frequency Distribution
	Birth Year	Ordinal	Frequency Distribution
	Age	Nominal	Frequency Distribution
	Gender		
RO2	Affective Commitment	Interval	Pearson's *r*
	Anticipated Turnover	Interval	

Table 5 Continued

RO3	Affective Commitment Mentoring	Interval Interval	Pearson's *r*
RO4	Mentoring Anticipated Turnover	Interval Interval	Pearson's *r*
RO5	Affective Commitment Mentoring Anticipated Turnover	Interval Interval Interval	Multiple Regression

*Note. Dependent Variable (DV)=affective commitment, Independent Variable (IV)= anticipated turnover

The first research objective was to present demographic data about the participants. The researcher used frequency distribution to describe the participants. The researcher used SPSS (Statistical Package Social Sciences) to describe the frequency and percentage of years on the job, gender, mentoring, and sector for the demographic data.

The researcher used Pearson's r to determine the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover variables for research objectives two through four. Field (2018) explained that Pearson's *r* measures the strength and the direction of the relationship between two variables. Pearson's *r* ranges between -1 and +1, and 0 indicates no association (Field, 2018). Field (2018) stated that an assumption is a condition that ensures that what you are attempting to do works. The data must meet a few assumptions before testing the association between the variables. The researcher ensured that the data met the first assumption by measuring the data continuously (Field, 2018). The second assumption was that the researcher must verify a linear relationship by plotting the scores into a scatterplot (Field, 2018). The third assumption was for the researcher to plot the data on a graph in SPSS to observe a linear relationship between the variables (Field, 2018). The fourth assumption was to check for any outliers in the scatterplot that do not follow a similar pattern (Field, 2018). The data could not contain

any outliers since that would affect the results. There are four assumptions in correlational studies: additivity and linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and homogeneity of variance, and independence (Field, 2018). Field (2018) explained that additivity and linearity are the most important because if the model is invalid, the description of the modeled process is wrong.

The researcher used multiple regression for research objective five to understand if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. Multiple regression is a standard test to test mediation (Field, 2018). The researcher examined the data to observe if mentoring mediates between affective commitment and turnover. A few assumptions must be met for the researcher to use multiple regression. First, a linear relationship must exist, and the residuals are normally distributed (Field, 2018). The researcher assumed the participants answered the questions honestly, and the language did not hinder the participant's ability to answer the questions. Also, the following assumptions must exist (a) dependent variable on a continuous scale; (b) two or more independent variables, continuous or categorical; (c) independent observations; (d) a linear relationship between the dependent variable and each independent variables as well as the dependent variable and the independent variables mutually; and (e) homoscedasticity (Field, 2018). The researcher looked at the data for normal distribution characterized by a bell-shaped curve and for a positive or negative kurtosis (Field, 2018). Field (2018) explained that kurtosis is the degree to which scores cluster at the end of the distribution. The researcher outlined each test's data analysis plan and objective that was tested.

Summary

Chapter III describes the methodology for the study on affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover impacts on millennials. The present study used a quantitative approach to determine if a relationship exists between variables to answer the research objectives. This chapter presented the research question, objectives, population, instrument, data collection, and data analysis information. The researcher did not have any contact with the participants. SPSS analyzed the data to determine the correlation between the variables. Chapter IV gives the results of the researcher's findings from the data collected.

CHAPTER IV – RESULTS

This study aimed to understand affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials in the public sector. The data collected answered each research objective in this study. The information collected was through the use of an online survey. This chapter provides the results of the current study from the surveys that were administered to the participants.

Research Objective 1 – Participants' Demographics

RO1 – Describe the participants' demographics regarding gender, age, years of employment, changed jobs, leaving a job, sector of government, the help of mentoring, and birth year.

The responses to research objective one consist of demographic data to understand the population surveyed about millennials. The participants were MTurk workers. The sample size needed was 377. The researcher used Raosft to conduct a power analysis to obtain the sample size. A total of 468 participants completed the survey. Eleven participants failed at least one of the attention checks within the survey. A total of 90 surveys were eliminated. The researcher collected 378 surveys. The researcher paid the MTurk workers .50 cents per assignment, known as a "HIT." Tables 6 through 13 provide characteristics of these participants, changed jobs, the reason for employment, sector of government, and help of mentoring.

Table 6 displays the frequency distribution for years employed. Frequency distribution is a helpful tool for analyzing years of employment at a company and understanding the distribution of employee tenure. 42.9% of participants had been employed for five years or less. 46.8% had been employed for 6 to 10 years. 6.6% had

been employed for 11 to 15 years. Finally, only 3.7% had been employed for more than 16 years.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution for Years Employed

Years Employed	Frequency (n)	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-5	162	42.9	42.9
6-10	177	46.8	46.8
11-15	25	6.6	6.6
16+	14	3.7	3.7
Total	378	100.0	100.0

According to Vui-Yee & Paggy (2018), millennials have the shortest employment tenure. Table 7 displays the frequency distribution for having quit a previous job. According to the results, 17.5% had never quit a job. 73% had quit from one to three jobs. 8.5% had left 4 to 6 jobs. Finally, 1.1%--only four participants—had quit seven or more jobs.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution of Quitting a Job

# of Jobs-Quit	Frequency (n)	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	66	17.5	17.5
1-3	276	73	73
4-6	32	8.5	8.5
7 or more	4	1.0	1.0
Total	378	100.0	100.0

Vui-Yee & Paggy (2018) explained that losing employees to turnover leads to losing knowledge and skills. Table 8 displays the frequency distribution of reasons for leaving a job. A majority, 55% of participants, had left an employer because of money. However, 8.7% of the participants left a job because they did not belong at their

organizations. Participants reported 23.3% left due to inflexibility. Finally, 13% of the participants left because there were no opportunities for advancement.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution of Leaving a Job

Reason	Frequency (n)	Percent
Money	208	55
Did Not Belong	33	8.7
No Flexibility	88	23.3
No Opportunities	49	13

The fourth demographic question asked participants about their employment in which government sector. Table 9 displays the frequency distribution. Most participants (54.5%) worked in state government compared to 39.4% in local government and 6.1% in the federal government.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution of Government Sector

Government Sector	Frequency (n)	Percent
Local	149	39.4
State	206	54.5
Federal	23	6.1

Table 10 displays the frequency distribution of mentoring in the workplace. Most of the participants, 95.2%, had participated in mentoring in the workplace. Only 4.8% had not. The findings showed that most participants agreed that the mentoring helped them achieve their career goals or enabled them to decide to remain with their current employers. Around 4.8% of the participants felt that mentoring did not help them to

achieve their career goals or play a role in their decision to stay with their current employers.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution of Mentoring in the Workplace

Mentoring	Frequency (n)	Percent
Yes	360	95.2
No	18	4.8

The frequency distribution for birth years is listed in Table 11. There are, 18.5% of millennial participants born between 1982 and 1986. There are 22.8% of millennials born between 1987 and 1991. 33.3% were born between 1992 and 1996. There are 25.4% of millennials born between 1997 and 2000.

Table 11

Frequency Distribution of Birth Years

Birth Year	Frequency (n)	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1982-1986	70	18.5	18.5
1987-1991	86	22.8	22.8
1992-1996	126	33.3	33.3
1997-2000	96	25.4	25.4
Total	378	100.0	100.0

The frequency distribution for the age bracket is in Table 12. There are 31.2% of participants between the ages of 22 and 26. Most participants, 36.5%, were between the ages of 27 and 31. Most participants were between 32 and 36 (21.4%). The results show that 10.8% of participants were between ages 37 and 40.

Table 12

Frequency Distribution of Age Bracket

Age	Frequency (n)	Percent	Cumulative Percent
22-26	118	31.2	31.2
27-31	138	36.5	36.5
32-36	81	21.4	21.4
37-40	41	10.9	10.9
Total	378	100.0	100.0

Males comprise 70.6% of participants in the government sector. Females comprise 29.4%. The information in Table 13 suggests that males may be overrepresented in this sample. However, it may be the case that males are overrepresented in the broader population under investigation.

Table 13

Frequency Distribution of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	267	70.6
Female	111	29.4

Table 14 shows the turnover scores per category of the participants who quit their jobs. The analyzed categories included money, lack of belonging, no flexibility, and no opportunities for growth. Based on the findings, people who quit their jobs for lack of growth opportunities had higher turnover scores (M = 5.24, SD = .999). In addition, the participants who quit their jobs because they lacked a sense of belonging had lower turnover scores.

Table 14

Mean Turnover Scores Based on Job Attrition

Reason for Job Attrition	Mean Score	*SD*
Money	5.19	.991
Did not belong	4.83	1.11
No flexibility	5.04	.925
No opportunities	5.24	.999

Table 15 shows the mentoring scores based on the perception of the participants. The question was about the mentoring program's impact on millennials' career goals or the decision to remain with their employers. It was found that the participants who felt the mentorship program helped them achieve their goals or helped them stay with their current employer had higher mentorship scores (M = 53.31, SD = 12.16). The participants who felt the mentoring programs did not help them achieve career goals or retain them with their employers had lower scores (M = 48.39, SD = 14.99).

Table 15

Impact of Mentoring and Mentoring Mean Scores

Did mentoring help you achieve your career goals or play a factor in your decision to stay with your employer	Mentoring Mean	*SD*
Yes	53.31	12.16
No	48.39	14.99

A table was computed to determine the distribution of the participants' affective commitment scores in different age groups. The age groups studied were as follows: 22-36, 27-31, 32-36, and 37-40. Based on the findings, participants between 32 and 36 had

higher affective commitment scores. Table 16 shows the participants' age brackets and their affective commitment scores.

Table 16

Affective Commitment Score Means Based on Age Groups

Age Group	Affective Commitment	*SD*
22-26	35	3.08
27-31	42	4.19
32-36	47	4.76
37-40	43	4.77

Table 17 shows the affective commitment scores in males and females. Based on the findings, females had higher affective commitment scores than males. However, more males were represented than females in this study.

Table 17

Affective Commitment Mean Scores Based on Gender

Gender	Affective Commitment Scores	*SD*
Male	42	3.78
Female	44	5.41

Table 18 shows the anticipated turnover scores based on the age groups of the participants. As shown in Table 18, most participants with higher anticipated turnover scores were 32 to 36 years old (M = 5.21, SD = .87). Following were those aged from 22 to 26 (M =5.19, SD = .91), 27 to 31 (M = 5.07, SD = 1.14), and 37 to 40 (M = 5.00, SD = .93). The table shows that millennials aged between 37 and 40 years are less likely to quit their jobs compared to those in the age brackets from 22 to 36 years.

Table 18

Anticipated Turnover Mean Scores Based on Age Brackets

Age Group	Turnover Scores	*SD*
22-26	5.19	.91
27-31	5.07	1.14
32-36	5.21	.87
37-40	5.00	.93

Table 19 shows the distribution of the turnover scores based on gender. The results show that males had higher anticipated turnover scores than females. The average anticipated turnover scores for males (M = 5.15, SD = 1.00) and females were (M = 5.09, SD = .95), respectively.

Table 19

Anticipated Turnover Mean Scores Based on Gender

Gender	Turnover Scores	*SD*
Male	5.15	1.00
Female	5.09	.95

The millennials participating in this study were mainly from the government's local, state, and federal sectors. A descriptive analysis was conducted to determine the turnover scores among millennials from different government sectors. Based on the findings in Table 20, millennials from the local sector had higher anticipated turnover scores (M = 5.28, SD = .93). Participants from the state sector had the lowest anticipated turnover scores (M = 5.02, SD = 1.04).

Table 20

Anticipated Turnover Mean Scores Based on Government Sector

Government Sector	Turnover Scores	*SD*
Local	5.28	.93
State	5.02	1.04
Federal	5.16	.81

Research Objective 2 – Affective Commitment and Anticipated Turnover

The second research objective is to determine the relationship between affective commitment and the anticipated turnover among millennials. Pearson's *r* was used to analyze this research objective. The Pearson correlation coefficient *r* measures the relationship between two continuous interval variables (Field, 2018). The correlation coefficient has a range of -1 to +1 to show the direction and strength of the relationship. A zero indicates no relationship (Field, 2018). A negative relationship occurs when one variable has high scores and the other has low results, and a positive correlation occurs when both variables have high or low scores (Field, 2018).

Pearson's Correlation Assumptions

In order to test a relationship using Pearson's *r*, the data must meet the following assumptions: two continuous variables (interval or ratio), the two variables have to be paired, a linear relationship exists between the variables, no significant outliers and variables are normally distributed (Laerd, 2018).

A Pearson correlation coefficient *r* measures the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. The Affective Commitment Scale ranges from 1 (*disagree strongly)* to 7 (*strongly agree*) on the 7-point Likert scale, scoring from 8 to 56 after summing all eight items with reverse scoring on items four, five, six, and eight. The

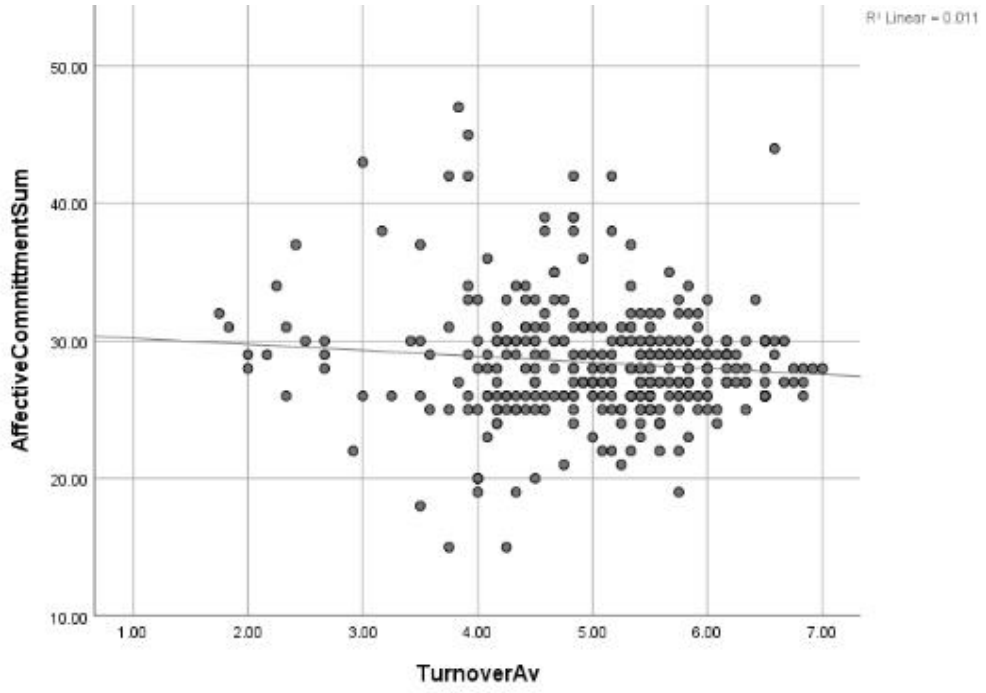
Anticipated Turnover Scale is a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*), scoring the 12 items by averaging all the items in the scale and dividing it by the number of items in the total scale. The score ranged from 1 to 7. Affective Commitment had a mean of 28.40, with a standard deviation of 4.08. The anticipated turnover mean was 5.13, with a standard deviation of 5.13. Affective commitment and anticipated turnover results include the mean response score from both 7-point Likert Scale.

RO2 met the assumptions for Pearson's *r*. Affective commitment and anticipated turnover are paired interval variables. A linear relationship existed between the two variables. There were no significant outliers. According to Field (2018), the central limit theorem states that a normal distribution can be assumed when a sample size is at least 30. The researcher obtained a sample size of 378 and met the criteria for a normal distribution. The researcher was able to perform a Pearson's *r* correlation.

A scatterplot was generated using SPSS software to determine and show the association between affective commitment and anticipated turnover outcomes. Figure 2 shows a scatterplot depicting the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. As shown in Figure 2, there is a negative correlation between affective commitment and anticipated turnover.

Figure 2.

Scatterplot for Affective Commitment and Anticipated Turnover



Pearson's correlation coefficient, *r*, was -.106. For analysis, the conventional criterion for alpha level is .05 or 5% probability of error with a 95% confidence level that the results are accurate (Field, 2018). The results showed a *p*-value of .039. Field (2018) states that a *p*-value less than the alpha of .05 is statistically significant. Laerd (2018) explained that a coefficient value of 0.1 to <.03 is a small correlation, 0.3 to <.5 is a medium correlation, and >0.5 is a large correlation. The results showed a medium negative correlation between affective commitment and anticipated turnover in Table 21. As affective commitment increases, anticipated turnover decreases.

Table 21

Correlation Between Affective Commitment and Anticipated Turnover

Variable		Turnover
Affective commitment	Pearson Correlation	-.106
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039
	N	378

*Correlation is significant at $p < 0.05$

Research Objective 3 – Affective Commitment and Mentoring

The third research objective is determining the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring among millennials. A Pearson product correlation coefficient, *r*, was used to analyze the data between affective commitment and mentoring. Field (2018) explains the Pearson's *r* measures the strength and direction of the relationship between two variables. The range of the correlation is -1 to 1 to show the direction of the relationship. A negative sign illustrates a negative correlation, and a positive sign indicates a positive correlation (Field, 2018). A positive correlation occurs when both variables have high or low scores; a negative correlation occurs when one variable is high, and the other has low scores (Field, 2018). Zero correlation indicates no relationship between the two variables (Field, 2018).

Pearson product-moment correlation assumptions

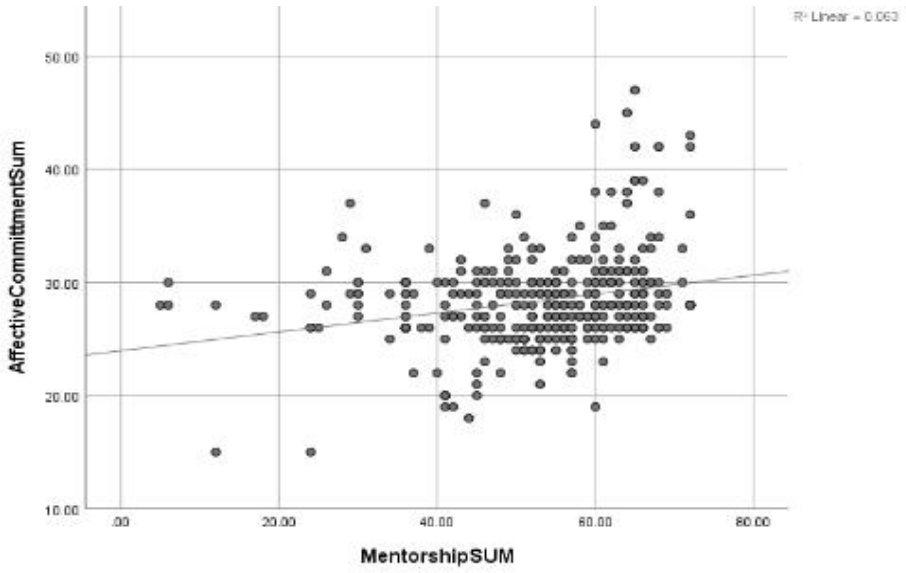
Laerd (2018) describes assumptions of Pearson's *r* to include: two continuous variables (interval or ratio), no significant outliers, normally distributed variables, and a linear relationship that exists between the two variables. The variables affective commitment and mentoring are interval variables for RO3, which meets the first assumption. Boone and Boone (2012) explained that Likert scale data is analyzed as the interval when a sum or mean is calculated for more than four Likert scale items. Boone

and Boone (2012) noted that data analysis procedures are appropriate for interval items such as Pearson's *r*. The second assumption is for the variables to be paired. Affective commitment and mentoring are paired variables; a linear relationship exists between affective commitment and mentoring.

A scatterplot was also computed to visualize the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring. Field (2018) explains that the central limit theorem allows a researcher to infer a normal distribution of samples if the sample size is 30 or more. This study had 378 participants and met the sample size for normal distribution to use Pearson's *r* correlation. Figure 3 shows the scatterplot. Figure 3 shows a positive correlation between affective commitment and the mentoring variables.

Figure 3

Scatterplot of Affective Commitment and Mentoring Variables



Pearson's correlation coefficient *r* measured the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring. Affective Commitment used a 7-point Likert scale ranging

from 1 (*disagree strongly)* to 7 (*strongly agree*) with scores from 8 to 56. The participants in this study had an affective commitment mean of 28.40, with a standard deviation of 4.08. Mentorship Effectiveness Scale uses a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and 6 (*not applicable*). The scoring of the Mentorship Effectiveness Scale is summed across all 12 items scores ranging from 0 to 60 (Berk et al., 2005). The participants' score on this scale ranges from 12 to 60. The participants of this study had a mentoring mean of 53.08, with a standard deviation of 12.33. The study results are significant, with a confidence level of 95% and an alpha of .05 (Field, 2018). Table 22 shows a statistically significant relationship between the affective commitment and mentoring variables, $r = .252$, $p < 0.01$. The findings show a positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring. Laerd (2018) explained that a coefficient value of 0.1 to < 0.3 is a small correlation, 0.3 to <0.5 is a medium correlation, and a > 0.5 is a significant correlation. The findings are that as mentoring increases, affective commitment also increases. There is a medium positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring. When millennials are engaged in mentoring programs, their affective commitment to their place of work increases.

Table 22

Correlation Between Affective Commitment and Mentoring

Variable		Mentoring
Affective commitment	Pearson Correlation	.252
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	378

Note. Correlation is significant at p < 0.01.

Research Objective 4 – Mentoring and Anticipated Turnover

This study's research was to determine the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover among millennials. A Pearson's product coefficient test was used to compare the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover. Pearson's *r* measures the strength and direction of the relationship between a pair of continuous variables (Field, 2018). The range of the correlation is -1 to +1, and the sign of the coefficient shows the direction of the relationship. A positive sign indicates a positive relationship, and a negative sign indicates a negative correlation (Field, 2018). A zero correlation indicates no relationship between the two variables (Field, 2018).

Pearson product-moment correlation assumptions

In order to test a relationship using Pearson's *r*, the data must meet the following assumptions: two continuous variables (interval or ratio), the two variables have to be paired, a linear relationship exists between the variables, no significant outliers and variables are normally distributed (Laerd, 2018). A scatterplot can test for a linear relationship and no significant outliers and to ensure variables are normally distributed.

Pearson's correlation coefficient *r* measured the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover. Mentoring uses a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) and 6 (*not applicable*), with scores ranging from 12 to 60. The Anticipated Turnover Scale is a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*), with scores ranging from 1 to 7. The study results are significant, with a confidence level of 95% and an alpha of .01 (Field, 2018). The results of the correlation between the mentoring and turnover variables have been presented in Table 23. The results mean that based on the data collected in this study, mentoring

millennials did affect the intent to leave. Based on the findings, as mentoring increases, anticipated turnover decreases.

Table 23

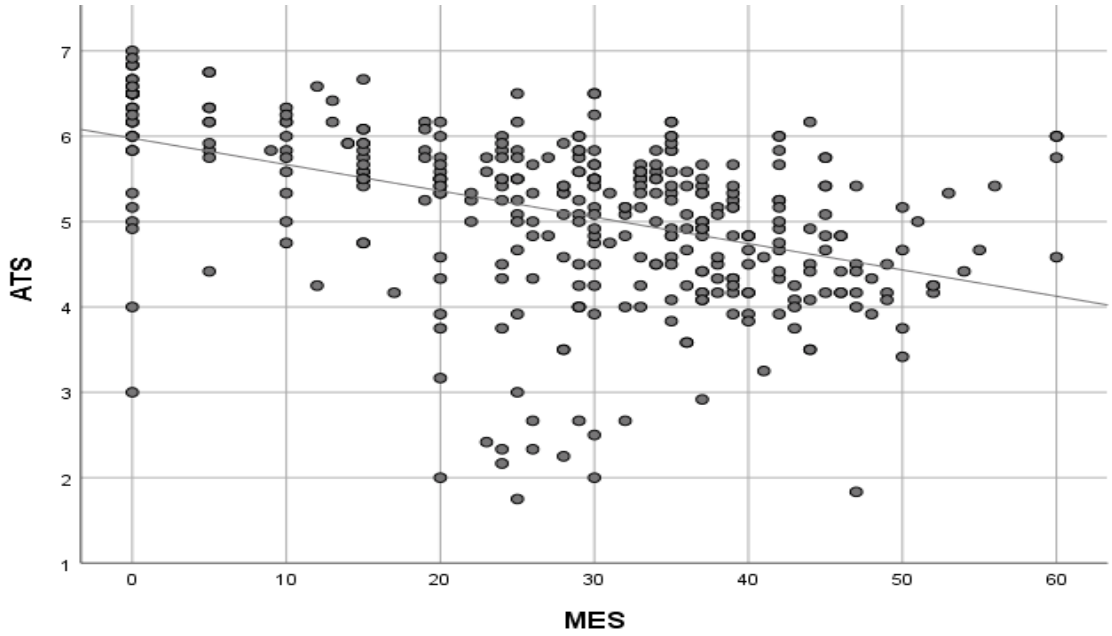
Correlation Between Mentoring and Anticipated Turnover Variables

Variable		Anticipated Turnover
Mentoring	Pearson Correlation	-.466
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	378

A scatterplot was also formulated to visualize the relationship between the mentoring and turnover variables. The findings showed a negative association between mentoring and turnover variables in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Scatterplot of Mentoring and Turnover Variables



Research Objective 5 – Affective Commitment, Mentoring, and Anticipated Turnover

Research objective five determines the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and turnover among millennials. The researcher used multiple regression to determine if a relationship exists. The dependent variable in this study was affective commitment, with mentoring and anticipated turnover as the independent variables. According to Laerd (2018), for multiple regression, eight assumptions have to be met before testing, (a) dependent variables on a continuous scale, (b) two or independent variables, continuous or categorical, (c) independent observations, (d) linear relationship between the dependent variable and each independent mutually, (e) data has to show homoscedasticity, (f) no or little multicollinearity, (g) no significant outliers or highly leverage or highly influential points, and (h) normally distributed residuals (errors).

This study's objectives did not meet the multiple aggression assumptions. The first step to ensure the variables are interval. Affective commitment is the dependent interval variable. Mentoring and anticipated turnover are continuous, independent variables. To test for independent observations, the Durbin-Watson was performed. With a value of roughly 2, the Durbin-Watson assessments for independence, which run from 0 to 4, indicate no correlation between the residuals (Laerd, 2018). The assumption of independence was met by the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.897. Field (2018) explained that a scatterplot could be used to inspect for linearity. This assumption was met by creating a scatterplot in SPSS, and no errors were found in the scatterplot. The assumption was met for homoscedasticity.

A scatterplot can be used to test for homoscedasticity, plotting the studentized residuals against unstandardized predicted values. According to Laerd (2018), data must not show multicollinearity. This assumption was not met. When two or more variables strongly correlate with one another, multicollinearity happens (Laerd, 2018). The variables were highly correlated. The data cannot have any significant outliers, highly leveraged points, or highly influential points. A scatterplot was used to inspect for significant outliers. This assumption was not met. There were some significant outliers on the scatterplot. The last assumption is checking residual errors are approximately normally distributed. A Q-Plot, histogram, or Normal P-Plot can check for residual errors. This assumption was met by creating a Normal P-Plot and inspecting whether the residual errors are normally distributed. This study failed the assumption of no significant outliers and no or little multicollinearity. The correlation coefficients and tolerance value determine the multicollinearity. Table 24 shows that the correlation for each independent variable is more than 0.7. According to Laerd (2018), to have no multicollinearity between independent variables, the variables must be less than 0.7 to be statistically significant.

Table 24

Correlation for Multicollinearity

Variables	Mentoring	Anticipated Turnover
Mentoring	1.000	.937
Anticipated Turnover	.937	1.000

Mediation Analysis

Field (2018) explains Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis process. The researcher did not meet the requirements for a multiple regression because it failed

assumptions. According to Field (2018), the mediation is tested through three linear models. The four conditions are: (a) the predictor variable (affective commitment) must significantly predict the outcome variable (anticipated turnover), (b) the predictor variable must predict the mediator (mentoring), (c) the mediator must significantly predict the outcome variable and (d) the predictor variable must predict the outcome variable is reduced by including the mediator. A multiple regression must be performed within Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis. According to Field (2018), a Sobel test produces a significance test of the indirect effect of the mediator. However, according to Field (2018), a Sobel test can be misled by the p-value. Also, if a mediation analysis cannot be performed, a Sobel test should not be performed because it tests for the significance of the indirect value.

Summary

Based on the findings, there was a negative correlation between anticipated turnover and affective commitment among the participants. The results established a positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring among the millennials participating in this study. In addition, it was found that there is a negative relationship between mentoring and turnover. The researcher could not conduct a multiple regression test because all the assumptions were unmet. A mediation analysis was not performed because the four conditions among the variables could not be obtained. Chapter V provides the findings, recommendations, and conclusion for this study.

CHAPTER V – FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

This study examined affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials. The first four chapters discuss the background of the study, the literature review, the methodology, and the data collection results. Chapter V discusses the findings and conclusions based on the effects of the relationship between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover. This chapter summarizes and compares the results obtained in this study with the previous literature. The similarities and differences between the results of this study and the literature are identified. This quantitative study aimed to determine the association between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials. The following sections are presented in this chapter: a summary of the research study, findings, discussion, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

This study explored the effects of affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials. Implementing this study is essential for organizations seeking to maintain a stable workforce. In most cases, human resources managers have difficulties determining millennials' retention and turnover problems (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020). This study was a non-experimental, casual-comparative, correlation research design using surveys. The surveys collected were from millennials employed full-time in the public sector in the United States. This study used non-probability purposive sampling to recruit participants on the online panel platform MTurk. The researcher had 467 participants complete the survey. However, only 378 of

the participants answered the study correctly. The participants completed a 40-item survey completed in 15 minutes.

This study was a correlational, non-experimental examination of affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated employee turnover among millennials. Using MTurk, the survey was made available to respondents online. Before beginning the survey, each participant had to answer “yes or no” to give their consent on the consent form before completing the survey. The informed consent form educated participants about the research, their participation in the study, and how to complete the survey. The consent form's requirements for participation in the study were specified.

Eligible participants were used in the study utilizing the online platform MTurk and the survey software Qualtrics. The MTurk platform directed respondents to a URL where they completed the survey. Each participant received a unique URL for accessing the survey. The instruments utilized to collect data for the study were the Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1991), Mentorship Effectiveness Scale (Berk et al., 2005), and Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). Forty questions were on the form, including demographic inquiries and attentiveness tests. The researcher did not provide a score for the attentiveness inspections. Two focus tests were interspersed throughout the survey to ensure the individual paid attention while completing it.

Survey participants must have answered all questions for the survey to be valid. Without authorization, MTurk would not permit a participant to complete the survey. The participants received a unique code after the completion of the survey. This study collected participants' demographic information to have background information on the participants. The researcher used SPSS to describe the frequency and proportion of years

spent working in a particular profession, gender, mentoring, and industrial sector. Using Pearson's r, the researcher determined the degree of correlation between affective commitment, mentoring, and expected turnover to meet objectives two through four. The researcher reviewed the literature and ensured the data were consistent with the primary hypothesis. This quantitative study aimed to determine if there is a correlation between affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover among millennials.

Findings, Conclusion, and Recommendations

The findings discussed in this section explain the importance of affective commitment and mentoring in the workplace to reduce the anticipated turnover among millennials. The results and existing literature have some similarities. Next, the researcher discusses the findings from the research, conclusions, and recommendations for using the results.

Finding 1 - Affective commitment impacts millennial employees' connection to their organization.

The first finding is that affective commitment decreases turnover rates among millennial employees. Affective commitment and anticipated turnover had a negative relationship, implying that as affective commitment increases, anticipated turnover decreases. Females had a higher affective commitment score than males. Overall, the majority of the participants had high affective commitment scores.

Conclusion. Affective commitment decreases millennials intent to leave an organization. Affective commitment refers to an individual's emotional attachment to and identification with their organization (Kampkötter et al., 2021). Tillman et al. (2018) state that affective commitment predicts employee behavior. Employees with high affective

commitment want their organization to be successful. The current research is consistent with the literature findings suggesting that employees with high levels of affective commitment are less likely to leave their organization and have lower turnover rates (Kampkötter et al., 2021). Employees with a solid emotional attachment to their organization are likelier to view their job as an essential part of their identity and less likely to leave (Tillman et al., 2018).

Millennial employees in this study desire their organizations' success and a sense of achievement for contributing to that success. According to Juma and Lee (2012), affective commitment is related to trust between employees and employers in the internal labor market. When millennial employees are emotionally invested in their organization and feel a sense of belonging, they are more likely to be satisfied with their job, which can decrease their likelihood of leaving (Chavadi et al., 2021).

Recommendation. There are several measures that organizations can implement to boost employee affective commitment. Encouraging employee participation in decision-making processes and offering chances for employees to express their thoughts and viewpoints can increase their sense of ownership and organizational loyalty (Su & Hahn, 2021). Implementing recognition and reward programs recognizing and rewarding employees for their achievements can boost their sense of value and corporate commitment (Sahni, 2021). Transparency and effective communication can increase employees' trust and comprehension of the organization's objectives and values. These tools can help employees feel more aligned with the organization and boost their affective commitment (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020).

Providing professional growth and development opportunities can make employees feel more valued and invested in their professions (Naim & Lenka, 2017). Professional growth can boost their sense of purpose and organizational loyalty. Implementing policies and programs that promote work-life balance can increase job satisfaction and employee loyalty. Providing opportunities for mentoring and coaching can help employees feel supported and valued and boost their sense of belonging to the organization. Employee engagement surveys can provide meaningful information on what employees value and what they require to feel more committed to their place of employment. Employee affective commitment can be increased by fostering a supportive work culture that values and engage employees. By employing these tactics, businesses can raise their employees' affective commitment, resulting in greater job satisfaction, decreased turnover rates, and enhanced organizational performance.

Finding 2 - Millennials engaging in mentoring in the workplace increases their affective commitment.

A positive relationship exists in assessing the relationship between affective commitment and mentoring. The result of this positive relationship implies that as mentoring increases, the affective commitment of the millennials also increases. Most participants identified mentoring as valuable and indicated higher affective commitment than those who did not find mentoring beneficial.

Conclusion. Mentoring can be an effective way for companies to increase affective commitment among millennials. Chatterjee et al. (2021) note mentoring is the most effective approach for attracting and retaining millennial employees. The result of this study is consistent with the literature about the positive relationship between

mentoring and affective commitment. Mentoring can also help foster a positive and supportive work culture, positively impacting employee engagement, affective commitment, and retention (Banerjee-Batist et al., 2019). Naim and Lenka (2017) explain that mentoring increases affective commitment, increasing millennials' intention to remain with their organization. Mentoring in the workplace enables millennials to develop their abilities and skills alongside more experienced employees with similar interests (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014). Mentoring motivates employees regarding knowledge transmission, social capital, and psycho-social support (Bozeman & Feeney, 2007). Most employees train people to accomplish a specific position or skill. Organizations may clearly define the purpose and goals of their mentoring programs.

Recommendations. Employers should identify employees with the skills and experience to become influential mentors. These employees should know the organization and its culture and have strong interpersonal skills. Organizations should match mentors and mentees based on shared interests, goals, and career aspirations. Matching mentors and mentees can help build strong relationships and ensure the mentoring program is successful. Companies should establish clear guidelines for the mentoring program, including the frequency of meetings, the mentor and mentee's responsibilities, and the program's duration. Employers should train mentors on how to support and guide mentees effectively. Possible training can include active listening, communication skills, and goal setting.

Finding 3 - Mentoring reduces anticipated turnover.

Most participants expressed how mentoring affected their decision to stay with their organizations and advance their career goals. The findings suggest a negative

relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover. Meanwhile, mentoring can promote affective commitment and does impact millennial turnover. The results also revealed higher turnover scores for millennials who did not have growth opportunities with an organization.

Conclusion. Mentoring helps millennials in the workplace and impacts their turnover intentions. Mentoring promotes personal and professional development, which increases millennials' career satisfaction and commitment (Naim & Lenka, 2017). This study's findings align with past literature. Banerjee-Batist et al. (2019) stated that mentoring decreases absenteeism and turnover. Mentees who received mentoring exhibited improved job performance (Chatterjee et al., 2021).

Recommendation. Based on this finding, organizations should implement and conduct an assessment of the types of mentoring programs needed to minimize employee turnover rates (Banerjee-Batist et al., 2019). The first step is determining the organization's needs and goals to achieve in developing a mentoring program. Mentoring programs could include employee development, leadership training, diversity and inclusion, or knowledge transfer. Influential mentors could include senior leaders, subject matter experts, or high-performing employees within an organization to assist with millennials' sense of belonging and growth opportunities. Employers should encourage employees to participate in the program by offering opportunities for professional development and career growth (Naim & Lenka, 2017). An evaluation of the mentoring programs should be conducted to assess the importance, significance, and impact the mentoring program has on millennial employees.

Limitations of the Study

The present study was limited to addressing millennials in the workforce. This study cannot be applied to other generational cohorts. The first limitation is that the participants were not randomly selected. The selection of participants used purposive sampling. Meltzoff and Cooper (2018) explained purposive sampling is restricted to a homogeneous group by selecting a subset of people. Because of the non-random sampling, some participants were likelier to be excluded from the study. Purposive sampling is a type of convenience sampling (Field, 2018). Thus, the selected sample was unlikely to represent the population. As a result, the generalizability and validity of the findings in this study were undermined.

The second limitation is the credibility of the data collection process. Aguinis et al. (2021) explained that MTurk could present challenges to researchers, such as (a) inattention, (b) self-misrepresentation, (c) vulnerability to web robots, and (d) perceived researcher unfairness. The MTurk software, which was used in the data collection, may lead to data quality issues. During the data collection process, some of the occurrences are that the software used may have been vulnerable to bots, resulted in inattention, and led to self-misrepresentation among the participants. The software allows the researcher to specify the criteria for the participants who should be included in the study. As a result, the limitation of the non-randomness could affect the credibility and validity of this study's findings. Another limitation is that the data was collected at a single point in time.

Recommendations for Future Research

In this study, private and non-profit organizations were not covered. Researchers in the future should study millennials from private and non-profit organizations to

determine if the findings will be similar to this study. In this study, other generations that impact the workplace were not evaluated. The researcher used participants born from 1982 to 2000 to describe millennials (Egerová et al., 2021). Future research should also include different generations of millennials to determine their impact on the workplace. In future research, investigators should explore a mixed methods study. More data should be collected from the millennials and human resource professionals to gather possible solutions that will help human resource professionals retain millennials. This study did not collect data on the actual turnover. This study could not determine if mentoring mediates the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. Therefore, future researchers should focus on affective commitment, mentoring, and actual turnover to determine their relationship. Future researchers should also evaluate the association between anticipated and actual turnover among millennials.

It was established in this study that most millennials quit their jobs because of the lack of growth opportunities. The results imply that most organizations do not plan to develop millennials' skills and careers. Therefore, future researchers should evaluate the best interventions that could be used to help millennials grow. Mentoring in the workplace should focus more on millennials' personal and professional development (Naim & Lenka, 2017). Organizations should develop plans to include mentoring in their talent strategy to help reduce job attrition (Naim & Lenka, 2017). Also, evidence-based mentoring as a developmental intervention needs to be evaluated to help improve employee retention among millennials.

Discussion

Affective commitment correlates negatively with the anticipated turnover among millennials. The components of affective commitment, such as leader-member exchange, role ambiguity, task variety, and perceived organizational support, affect millennial employees (Reid et al., 2006). Function ambiguity is how a worker's role is clearly defined, followed, and appreciated at work (Reid et al., 2006). Role ambiguity occurs when employees perform duties they feel or perceive are not in the job description. The organization needs to support millennials (Reid et al., 2006)

According to Reid et al. (2006), perceived organizational support refers to how employees feel they are appreciated and supported by the company. For instance, the company offers employees proper training, psychosocial support, and a work-life balance. The two-way connection between leaders and employees is known as the leader-member exchange. It prevents the millennials from feeling micromanaged or subjected to other one-sided interactions disregarding their autonomy and dignity. Task diversity is the final method for diversifying work duties (Reid et al., 2006).

Therefore, the interaction between leader-member exchange, role ambiguity, task variety, and perceived organizational support results in decreased millennial turnover (Reid et al., 2006). Similarly, it was established in this study that there was a negative correlation between affective commitment and turnover intentions among the participants.

In addition, based on the literature review, it was established that there is a positive relationship between affective commitment and mentoring among millennials. Based on the studies conducted by Berk et al. (2005) and Meyer et al. (1990), a positive

relationship exists between affective commitment and mentoring. The authors established that when a mentorship program is implemented, the affective commitment of millennial employees also increases. The findings of this study were similar to those of Berk et al. (2005) and Meyer et al. (1990). It was found in this study that as the mentoring scores increase, so does the affective commitment among the millennials. The impact of mentoring programs on millennials increases their affective commitment.

Existing definitions do not consistently consider or accept the three crucial elements of a mentoring relationship: process, context, and connection. Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) describe mentoring as a non-hierarchical, reciprocal contact that aims to support the mentee in achieving specific professional and personal objectives. In most partnerships that grow over time, roles are established, expectations are outlined, and a purpose is stated (Ambrosetti & Dekkers, 2010). Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) state that relational, procedural, and contextual factors are essential when defining mentoring. Ambrosetti and Dekkers (2010) emphasized reciprocity and equality when establishing the connection based on mentoring. The authors highlighted deliberate and planned action when describing the process and stressed the significance of specific professional outcomes when noting the mentoring environment.

Therefore, the interactions between the mentors and mentees establish connections among them. The interactions during the mentoring process help mentees in achieving their goals. Due to these relationships, the affective commitment of the millennials also increases. Affective commitment benefits include higher job satisfaction, increased work performance, and connection to the organization (Craig et al., 2012; Naim & Lenka, 2017).

The study by Chatterjee et al. (2021) supports the findings obtained in this study. The authors found that implementing mentoring programs improves the performance of employees. The improvement in the arrangement among the participants in the study was a result of improved commitment. This study found a positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring. When millennials' affective commitment increases, their work performance will also improve.

It was established in the literature that there is a negative relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover. Naim and Lenka (2017) found that the intention of "Generation Y" employees to stay with their companies was directly impacted by mentoring. The authors also found that mentoring boosted the perception of organizational support, which increased employees' intention to remain at their organizations. The purpose of millennials staying employed in their companies grew due to mentoring since it boosted affective commitment. Mentoring increased millennial employees' intention to stay with their companies by receiving organizational support and a sense of belonging.

It was also found in the previous literature that mentoring correlates with turnover even after adding the affective commitment variable. Naim and Lenka (2017) found that mentoring impacts turnover; the results implied that mentoring could mediate the relationship between affective commitment and turnover. This study's findings differ from those in Naim and Lenka's 2017 study.

This study reported that most millennials quit their jobs for lack of growth opportunities. According to the study by Sahraee et al. (2021), millennials quit their jobs when there is no emotional attachment to their organization. Interventions should be

developed to determine how millennials can be given opportunities to grow themselves to reduce the statistics of millennials leaving their jobs. In addition, providing opportunities for improvement to the millennials will also improve their satisfaction with their jobs. According to Demircioglu (2021), employees with higher satisfaction levels tend to perform better at their workplaces. Work-life balance and support are essential to millennials to help reduce anticipated turnover (Fuchs et al., 2021). Providing growth opportunities to the millennials, such as personal growth development, will help improve their performance at the workplace.

Summary

Due to organizational issues such as increasing pressure from globalization, technology, international rivalry, and increased workforce diversity, organizations struggle to thrive. Human capital is crucial for any firm in the modern day. Organizations must invest in their human capital to lessen or eliminate turnover and other issues that negatively impact survival. The personnel costs associated with maintaining highly qualified employees represent the majority of the organization's most significant outlay of money. From 2001 to 2005, the workforce's fastest-growing generation was the millennials. One-third of the workforce in the United States today are millennials. Millennials are crucial to all industries (private, public, and non-profit).

Human resource professionals face issues managing the workforce due to the millennial generation's high turnover. Retaining millennials while lowering employee turnover is excellent for employers. Millennials quit their jobs between 12 and 18 months after starting them, which raises the cost of finding and training new staff for employers (Hecl, 2017). Therefore, this study aimed to determine the impact of affective

commitment and mentoring on the anticipated turnover. This study applied a non-experimental, causal-comparative, correlation study of the affective commitment, mentoring, and anticipated turnover variables. Organizations aiming to maintain a consistent workforce must implement this research immediately. In most circumstances, human resource managers have trouble detecting the retention and turnover concerns connected with millennials (De la Garza Carranza et al., 2020).

Based on the findings, there was a negative correlation between affective commitment and anticipated turnover. As the affective commitment increases, the anticipated turnover decreases. It was also found that there was a positive correlation between affective commitment and mentoring. The results imply that as the mentoring of the millennials increased, their affective commitment scores also improved. This study established a negative correlation between mentoring and anticipated turnover. A mediation analysis could not be conducted to determine if mentoring has a mediation effect on the relationship between affective commitment and anticipated turnover because it did not meet the assumptions for a mediation analysis.

Some of the findings in this study were similar to those found in the previous literature. The association between affective commitment and the anticipated turnover findings was identical to what was found in the past literature. In addition, the positive correlation between mentoring and affective commitment results was similar to what was found in the previous literature. The effects on the relationship between mentoring and anticipated turnover revealed a negative correlation consistent with past literature.

For future research, populations from private and non-profit organizations should also be covered in the analysis of the factors that affect higher turnover among

millennials. Future researchers should also establish if there exists a relationship between anticipated turnover and actual turnover among millennials in public, private, and non-profit organizations.

Talent retention will continue to challenge organizations as millennials' expectations are unmet in the workforce. Mentoring is an effective intervention strategy that human resources practitioners can use in their hiring processes and employee development with millennials (Naim & Lenka, 2017). Understanding millennial employees' expectations of instant feedback, growth opportunities, career development, work-life balance, and meaningful work will increase their affective commitment to their organizations. The researcher hopes this study's findings will be used in other sectors (private and non-profit). The researcher hopes more organizations will use mentoring as a retention strategy to retain millennials. Organizations can be transformed by engaging millennials in building their knowledge, skills, and competencies to create a positive work environment and reduce actual turnover.

APPENDIX A – Permission to Use Instrument

Re: Permission to Use the Affective Commitment Scale

Natalie Jean Allen <nallen@uwo.ca>

Mon 3/28/2022 8:24 AM

To: Keiasha Hypolite <Keiasha.Hypolite@usm.edu>

Hello Keiasha,

Thank you for your interest in using the Affective Commitment Scale (which is part of Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey) in your research. You can get information about the ACS, the 2 other TCM scales, a Users' Guide, and the measure itself at:

http://employeecommitment.com/

For academic / research purposes, please choose the Academic Package. (There is no charge for this package.)

I wish you well with your research!

Best,

Natalie Allen

From: atwoodj <atwoodj@comcast.net>
Sent: Thursday, March 24, 2022 4:23:52 PM
To: Keiasha Hypolite <Keiasha.Hypolite@usm.edu>; ahinshaw@umich.edu <ahinshaw@umich.edu>
Subject: Re: Permission to Use Anticipated Turnover Scale

Dear Doctoral Student Hypolite,

Dr. Hinshaw and I give you permission to use the ATS Scale in your research with millennia l s. The original scale, scoring, psychometrics with our samples plus some data analysis hints are available gratis by return email, if you would like them.

All the best with your research.
Sincerely,

J. Atwood, PhD, EN (retired), FAAN

From: Ronald A. Berk <rberk1@jhu.edu>
Sent: Friday, March 25, 2022 12:31:42 PM
To: Keiasha Hypolite <Keiasha.Hypolite@usm.edu>
Subject: Fw: Mentorship Scales

Dear Future Dr. Hypolite:

Thank you for your inquiry. I hereby grant you permission without any fee to use the mentorship scales intact or modified for your target population in your research as long as the copyright line remains affixed at the bottom and the *AM* article is referenced. Indicate that you adapted the scales for your research. You may also reproduce your final scales in your research. Also please be vaxed and wear a fashionable KN95 mask and bright orange HAZMAT suit.

The *AM* article gives the background on the development of the scales. The items were based on the literature and the scale was built on standard psychometric guidelines. Administration directions are given at the top of the scale, as it is self-administered. The summated ratings scale uses a total score for interpretation. Just add the item scores. However, the unique nature of each relationship precludes aggregating the scores across mentees for group analysis, especially estimating reliability.

The most recent reformatted version can also be found attached, on www.ronberk.com (Publications, click Articles, scroll down to the article, click PDF, enjoy!) and also in my book *Thirteen Strategies to Measure College Teaching*. There is also another article attached to the matching of mentor to mentee you might find of interest based on speed dating.

I hope you find my attached materials useful in your research. I have also attached two of my most recent articles on grit and humor in academic writing for your entertainment only. You may need a release valve while writing the conclusions. I wish you success with your program. Thank you for your interest in our work. If I can be of further help, please don't hesitate to ask.

Have a productive 2022! Be safe!

Sincerely,
Ron

Ronald A Berk, PhD
Professor Emeritus, Biostatistics & Measurement,
Former Assistant Dean for Teaching,

APPENDIX B – Consent

Title of Research Study: Affective Commitment, Mentoring, and Anticipated Turnover among Millennials

Researcher's Contact Information:
Keiasha Hypolite, 337-849-9232, Keiasha.hypolite@usm.edu or Dr. Quincy Brown (Advisor), 228-214-5414, hamett.brown@usm.edu

Introduction:
You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Keiasha Hypolite, a Doctoral Candidate at the University of Southern Mississippi. Before you decide to participate in this study, read the information below. Your involvement as a participant in this study is entirely voluntary. You are free to refuse to participate. Click the "Return HIT" button or close your browser window to stop. Per the policies set by Amazon Mechanical Turk, we may reject your work if you do not complete the HIT correctly or if you do not follow the instructions.

Purpose:
This study examines if affective commitment and mentoring can impact turnover among millennials in the public sector.

Explanation of Procedures:
Participation in the study will involve completing a 15-minute survey. Please note that this study contains several checks to ensure participants answer the questions honestly and correctly.

To participate in the study, you must:

- Be between the ages of 22-40 years old
- Have at least 15 months of work experience at your current company working full-time
- Currently employed with local, state, or federal government within the United States
- Have at least three months of workplace mentoring
- Complete the survey in one sitting

Risks:
No known or anticipated risks are associated with your participation in this study.

Benefits:
This study may help organizations with possible ideas for retaining millennials. The researcher will learn about the causes of turnover among millennials. The form of payment will be through Amazon's payment system. Payment will only be given to participants who complete the survey. The participant will not receive a payment if surveys are filled out incorrectly.

Confidentiality:
No identifying information will be recorded or reported. Your identity and responses will be confidential.

This project will be under the review of the Institution Review Board (Protocol Number 22-1438), which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations.

Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant gets directed to the Chair of the IRB at 601-266-5997. Participation in this project is voluntary, and participants may withdraw from this study without penalty or prejudice.

If you have any questions or would like a copy of this consent letter, please contact me at (337) 849-9232 or Keiasha.hypolite@usm.edu

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Keiasha Hypolite

By moving forward, you concur with the following statement "I agree to participate in the research study. You indicate that you are 22 years of age or older and understand the purpose and nature of this study, and I am participating voluntarily. I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or consequences."

- Yes
- No

APPENDIX C – Survey

1. How long have you been employed at your current organization?
   - 0-5 years
   - 6-10 years
   - 11-15 years
   - 16+

2. How many times have you quit a job within the past 3 years?
   - 0
   - 1-3
   - 4-6
   - 7 or more

3. What is the main reason you left a job? (Select only one)
   - Money
   - Did Not Belong
   - No Flexibility (Work/Life Balance)
   - No Opportunities for Growth (ex., Promotion, Career Development)

4. What sector of government are you currently employed in full-time?
   - Local
   - State
   - Federal

5. In your opinion, did mentoring help you achieve your career goals or play a factor in your decision to stay with your employer?
   - Yes
   - No

6. What is your birth year?
   - 1977-1981
   - 1982-1986
   - 1987-1991
   - 1992-1996
   - 1997-2000

7. Of the following, what is your age bracket?
   - 22-26
   - 27-31
   - 32-36
   - 37-40

8. What is your birth gender?
   - Male
   - Female

Part II. Affective Commitment Scale

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization they work for. With respect to your feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

1 = strongly disagree (SD)
2 = disagree (D)
3 = slightly disagree (SID)
4 = undecided (U)
5 = slightly agree (SIA)
6 = agree (A)
7 = strongly agree (SA)

	SD	D	SID	U	SIA	A	SA
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel like a 'part of the family' at my organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Part III. Mentorship Effectiveness Scale

Directions: The purpose of this scale is to evaluate the mentoring characteristics of your mentor. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement listed below. Circle the letters that correspond to your response. Your responses will be kept confidential.

0 = Strongly Disagree (SD)
1 = Disagree (D)
2 = Slightly Disagree (SlD)
3 = Slightly Agree (SlA)
4 = Agree (A)
5 = Strongly Agree (SA)
6 = Not Applicable (NA)

	SD	D	SID	SIA	A	SA	NA
My mentor was accessible.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor demonstrated professional integrity.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor demonstrated content expertise in my area of need.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor was approachable.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor was supportive and encouraging.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor provided constructive and useful critiques of my work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor motivated me to improve my work product.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

My mentor was helpful in providing direction and guidance on professional issues (e.g., networking).	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor answered my questions satisfactorily.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor acknowledges my contributions appropriately.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor suggested appropriate resources.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My mentor challenged me to extend my abilities.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Part IV. Anticipated Turnover Scale

Response Options

DS	=	Disagree Strongly
MD	=	Moderately Disagree
SD	=	Slightly Disagree
U	=	Uncertain
SA	=	Slightly Agree
MA	=	Moderately Agree
AS	=	Agree Strongly

Directions: For each item below, circle the appropriate response. Be sure to use the full range of responses.

	DS	MD	SD	U	SA	MA	AS
I plan to stay at my position for a while.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am quite sure I will leave my position in the foreseeable future.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Deciding to stay or leave my position is not a critical issue for me at this point in time.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I know whether or not I'll be leaving this agency within a short time.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
If I got another job offer tomorrow, I would give it serious consideration. .	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have no intentions of	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

leaving my present position.							
I have been in my position about as long as I want to.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am certain I will be staying here awhile.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don't have any specific idea how much longer I will stay.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I plan to hang on to this job for a while.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
There are big doubts in my mind as to whether or not I will really stay in this agency.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I plan to leave this position shortly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX D – IRB Approval

Office *of*
Research Integrity

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NOTICE OF INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD ACTION

The project below has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services regulations (45 CFR Part 46), and University Policy to ensure:

- The risks to subjects are minimized and reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered involving risks to subjects must be reported immediately. Problems should be reported to ORI via the Incident submission on InfoEd IRB.
- The period of approval is twelve months. An application for renewal must be submitted for projects exceeding twelve months.

PROTOCOL NUMBER:	22-1438
PROJECT TITLE:	Affective Commitment, Mentoring, and Anticipated Turnover Among Millennials
SCHOOL/PROGRAM	School of Leadership
RESEARCHERS:	PI: Keiasha Hypolite Investigators: Hypolite, Keiasha~Brown, Hamett Q.~
IRB COMMITTEE ACTION:	Approved
CATEGORY:	Expedited Category
PERIOD OF APPROVAL:	06-Dec-2022 to 05-Dec-2023

Donald Sacco Jr.

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