EXPLORING FACTORS FOR EMPLOYEE ATTRITION AND RETENTION BY LIFE STAGE

by

Robert Joshua Whitton

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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APPROVED BY:

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to evaluate if a relationship exists between factors for push (attrition) and pull (retention) and employee life stage. With job attrition rates increasing almost 10% in the last 10 years and employers paying $2.4 trillion in 2021 because of employee turnover, the need to understand what drives retention and attrition remains very real. A survey, containing a demographics section and items rated on a Thurstone-like scale, was administered to full-time employees in the United States. Four hundred and eighty participants responded to the survey, but after removing responses that were incomplete or were completed by participants who did not meet the requirements, the sample size was 386. Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted to determine if a relationship between push factors and life stage existed. Push factors that showed statistically significant relationships were overall company, future opportunity, autonomy, work–life balance, and working from home. Pull factors that showed statistically significant relationships were autonomy, work–life balance, and working from home.

Keywords: employee attrition, retention, life stage, voluntary termination, human resources, autonomy, working from home, work–life balance

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to every teacher who saw something in me I didn't see in myself, and to every student who thinks they don't have it in them to finish. Trust me. You can!

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction

Job attrition rates in the United States climbed to 47.5% in 2021, a consistent annual increase for the last 10 years (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2023). In 2021, U.S. employers spent $2.4 trillion related to employee turnover (WORQDRIVE, 2022). While attrition increases company expenses, a limited number of comprehensive studies on employee attrition exist (Sriram et al., 2019). Unemployment rates in the United States reached a 50-year low in 2022 (BLS, n.d.); therefore, the need to attract and retain talent became more critical for companies' short- and long-term success (Sriram et al., 2019). This study examined theories relevant to job attrition, including the theory of psychosocial development, the model of life development, development stages, motivation-hygiene theory, and the pull-push-mooring theory.

This study includes five chapters. Chapter 1 briefly introduces the study and outlines its purpose, significance, research objectives, research questions, and hypotheses. Chapter 2 consists of the theoretical frameworks used to build this argument and reviews current literature about employee attrition. Chapter 3 details the study methodology. Chapter 4 outlines the study results, and Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the results. The quasiexperimental quantitative study aimed to determine whether a relationship between life stage and reasons for job attrition or retention was present in the study sample.

Background

Attrition rates in the United States increased by nearly 10% (from 38.7% to 47.5%) between 2011 and 2021 (BLS, n.d.). Employee attrition has both short- and long-

term effects on companies. In 2021, U.S. companies were projected to spend $2.1 trillion related to backfill costs from employee turnover (WORQDRIVE, 2022). In addition to short-term backfill costs, longer-term impacts on companies include increased wages for remaining and newly hired employees (Grossmeir et al., 2019), lower customer satisfaction scores (Kumar & Yakhlef, 2016), and reductions in profitability (Subramony & Holtom, 2012) as well as increased training and development costs, increased frustration among remaining employees, and declines in service quality (Eze, 2020).

While reasons for attrition vary for each employee, a comprehensive review of reasons for employee attrition showed the following reasons:

- role type and role autonomy (Chang et al., 2013; Joy & Radhakrishnan, 2012),
- compensation and benefits (Bastos & Barsade, 2020; Bennett et al., 1993; Chang et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 2019; Hoffman & Tadelis, 2021; Rath, 2017; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- tenure (Chang et al., 2013; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- daily commute (Chang et al., 2013; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- business travel (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- peer relationships and support (Chang et al., 2013; Joy & Radhakrishnan, 2012; Rath, 2017; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- time to complete work (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- time between promotions (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),
- well-being (including work–life balance (WLB) and mental health; Espasandín-Bustelo et al., 2021; Haar et al., 2014; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020),

- culture (including diversity, bias, discrimination, office politics, policies, and inequity; DeSouza et al., 2017; Disher et al., 2021; Gloor et al., 2018; Joy & Radhakrishnan, 2012; Kiran & Khurram, 2018; Krzeminska et al., 2019; Moin & van Nieuwerburgh, 2021; Obenauer, 2019),
- corporate social responsibility (Espasandín-Bustelo et al., 2021), and
- leadership (Hoffman & Tadelis, 2021; Joy & Radhakrishnan, 2012; Rath, 2017).

As new generations entered the workforce, the creation of new policies and procedures with the idea that generational needs change business requirements and guidelines began appearing in business plans for human resources departments across the United States (Aggarwal et al., 2020). With the increase in attrition and focus on potential changes in employee needs and expectations, a gap in research regarding employee attrition and employee life stage became evident.

Human development may result in genetic factors and environmental and social forces that affect each stage of human development (Erikson, 1963) and employees' decision-making regarding job transitions throughout their working years (Herzberg et al., 2017). Erikson (1963) offered critical insights into psychosocial development throughout a person's life, while Levinson (1979) focused more on milestones related to social norms, including marriage and family, career stability, retirement, and a person's mortality. With these theories, one may understand how adults evaluate situations and make decisions that impact their careers (Levinson, 1979).

In addition to human development, motivation factors that affect decision-making also became necessary for review (Herzberg et al., 2017). Herzberg's two-factor model of

motivation provides insights into reasons that result in job dissatisfaction and employee motivation. Through this theory, employers and researchers can remove hygiene factors that cause dissatisfaction and increase motivation, which can combine to reduce voluntary attrition (Herzberg et al., 2017).

A theory that better explains people's migration patterns, referred to as the pull-push-mooring theory (Moon, 1995), offers insights into why people leave an area (or job) and what may make them choose to stay. Based on Lee's (1966) migration theory, Moon (1995) updated the theory to include moorings that offer insights into the decision-making process that prevents people from thoroughly weighing the pull and push factors and moving forward with their decisions.

In addition to the need to evaluate attrition and how it impacts employees and business, an evaluation of attrition and life stage variances through a scriptural lens also became necessary. The author of Hebrews offered differences in a person's life by reminding the reader that more mature Christians can eat solid (spiritual) food while younger Christians must remain on milk (*English Standard Bible*, 2001/2016, Heb 5:13–14). Similarly, Paul discussed the different life stages of others by reminding the reader that he became weak to the weak (1 Cor 9:23–24). In both instances, scripture provided differences in people because of their life stage, be it physical or spiritual.

Similarly, the Bible also outlines how employers should treat their employees by specifically referencing compensation (Prov 3:27–28; Lev 19:13; Rom 4:4; 1 Tim 5:18), how to treat others (Gen 1:27; Mal 2:10, 1 Sam 16:7), how to lead (Prov 11:14; Ps 78:72), and respecting the diversity of others (Lev 19:16; Mark 3:14–15; 1 John 4:8).

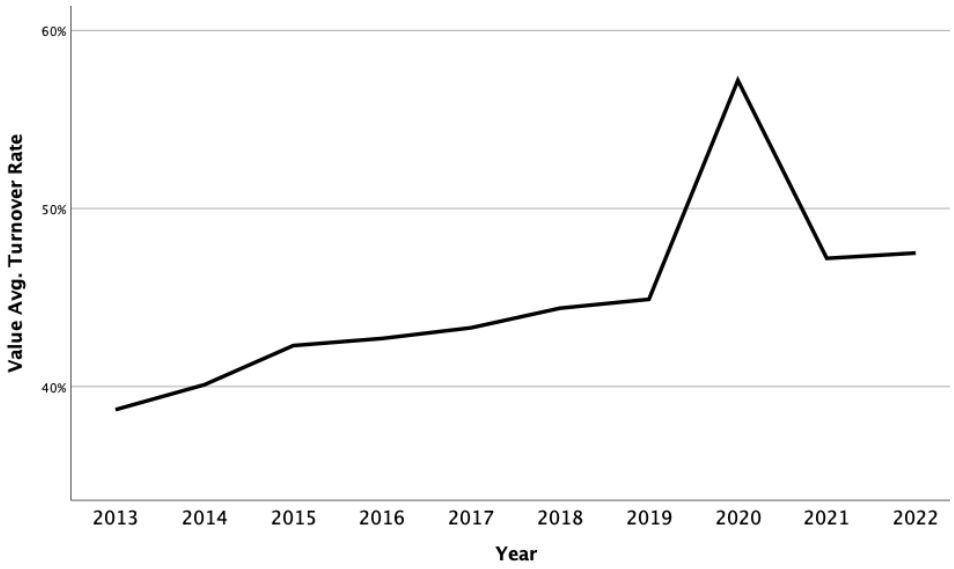
Based on these and many other examples, the Bible supports variables in life stage and how those variables may impact an employee's decision to voluntarily attrit.

Problem Statement

The annual turnover rate in the United States was 38.7% in 2013 and steadily increased year over year to 47.5% in 2022 (see Figure 1; BLS, n.d.).

Figure 1

Annual Attrition Rates 2013–2022



Note. Data are from "Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey," 2013–2022, by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d. (https://data.bls.gov/timeseries/JTS000000000000000TSR). In the public domain.

U.S. employers spent $2.4 trillion in 2021 related to employee turnover (WORQDRIVE, 2022). With prices continuing to rise and unemployment rates at a 50-year low, employers need to better understand what drives attrition and retention and if life stages impact the reasons behind attrition today (BLS, n.d.).

Recent research indicated that the reasons employees decided to stay or leave an organization include role type and role autonomy (Mehta, 2021); compensation and benefits (El-Rayes et al., 2020); tenure, peer relationships, and support; time to complete work; and the time between promotions (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020), well-being, including WLB and mental health (Espasandín-Bustelo et al., 2021); culture (including diversity, bias, discrimination, office politics, policies, and inequity (J. S. Jones et al., 2018); and leadership (Hoffman & Tadelis, 2021). Other research sought to understand if workplace attitudes and job satisfaction rates differed by generation and whether differences were more pronounced in group rather than between groups (Cucina et al., 2018). But with attrition rates continuing to increase and median salaries increasing by 15% over the last 5 years (Statista, n.d.-b), understanding what drives voluntary attrition remains key to businesses reducing backfill costs, where possible, while also evaluating potential changes in compensation, ways of working, and other factors most concerning to their employees. This study assessed the push and pull factors employees consider when they voluntarily leave a company while also determining if a relationship between the factors and employee life stage was present.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quasiexperimental quantitative study was to evaluate if there was a relationship between push and pull factors (dependent variables) and employee life stage (independent variable).

Research Question and Hypotheses

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a relationship between employee job attrition and life stage?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between job retention and employee life stage?

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between push factors of job attrition and life stage. (Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between push factors of job attrition and life stage.)

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between pull factors of job retention and life stage. (Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between pull factors of job retention and life stage.)

Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

This study assumed that the participants responded honestly to all survey questions. Attempts were made to use a representative sample of the working population in the United States at the time of this study. But, as Fowler (2009) stated, achieving a representative sample was not likely because of using social media, in this case LinkedIn and Facebook, as the primary method of survey distribution and the need for participants to complete the survey using technology. The distribution model and data gathering conditions limited the sample.

Theoretical Foundations of the Study

The study's theoretical foundation included four theories. The theory of psychosocial development (Erikson, 1963) and the model of life development (Levinson, 1979) offered much-needed insights into how people grow and develop throughout their lives and how this development impacts how people make decisions and engage with others. By also reviewing the motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 2017) and the pull-push-mooring theory (Moon, 1995), a better determination was made regarding the

impact attrition and retention may have on employees as well as how specific factors of attrition may affect their decision-making processes when voluntarily leaving an organization.

The biblical foundations for this study included elements of life stage development, fair pay, diversity, relationships with others, and ways to lead. While some may consider life stage development a modern concept, the writer of Hebrews discussed life stage development as it relates to a Christian's faith journey (Heb 5:13–14). In addition to offering guidance about the changes an employee experiences throughout their life, scripture also offers guidance on how employers should treat their employees. From paying employees (Lev 19:13; Prov 3:27–28) and valuing diversity (Lev 19:16; 1 Cor 9:23–24; 1 John 4:8; Mark 3:14–15) to environments valuing healthy relationships with others (Gen 1:27; Mal 2:10; 1 Sam 16:7) and providing effective and respectful leadership (Ps 78:72; Prov 11:14; Acts 20:28–30), the concepts in this study align with God's plan for treating others and fulfilling God's commandment of loving those around you (Mark 12:30–31).

Definition of Terms

The following is a list of definitions of terms that were used in this study.

Attrition—the departure of employees from the organization for any reason (voluntary or involuntary), including resignation, termination, death, or retirement. The attrition rate is the rate at which employees leave an organization divided by the average number of employees at the organization over a given period (Gartner, n.d.-a).

Employee—A person who works for an employer; specifically, a person employed for wages or salary and in a position below the executive level (Merriam-Webster, n.d.).

Flextime—the management practice where employees can choose their workday's starting and ending times (Kiran & Khurram, 2018).

Life Stage—Periods of time closely associated with one's biological age when crucial activities and psychological adjustments must occur (Ornstein et al., 1989).

Moorings—social expressions that allow a person to materialize physical, and psychological well-being, while also serving to bind a person to a particular place (Moon, 1995).

Professional Self-Efficacy—beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997).

Pull Factors—factors that are assumed as having a negative influence on the quality indicators of life in the current situation (Moon, 1995).

Push Factors—positive factors drawing someone to the destination (Moon, 1995).

Total Rewards—the combination of benefits, compensation, and rewards that employees receive from their organizations. This can include wages and bonuses, recognition, workplace flexibility, and career opportunities (Gartner, n.d.-b).

Work–Life Balance (WLB)—an aspect of employee well-being related to the employee's ability to manage personal and professional responsibilities with adequate time for rest and leisure. Everyone may define their ideal WLB differently (Gartner, n.d.-c).

Significance of the Study

Since 2013, attrition rates increased almost 10% (BLS, n.d.), and employers spent $2.4 trillion on backfill costs related to employee turnover in 2021 (WORQDRIVE, 2022). With unemployment rates reaching a 50-year low (BLS, n.d.), the need to attract and retain talent remains critical for many organizations throughout the United States. The results of this study may help companies better understand what drives employees to attrit voluntarily. Additionally, this study offers insights into how life stages affect reasons for voluntary attrition. With this information, companies may alter their financial planning regarding employee rewards and benefits, as well as their ways of working.

By providing this information, the researcher desired to contribute to positive economic change related to companies in the United States. With a better understanding of what drives employee attrition, companies may create workplaces that more effectively motivate employees to work and encourage them to stay.

Summary

The introduction to this study included background information regarding the current attrition rates in the United States, costs U.S. employers paid to backfill these positions, the lack of recent research outlining what drives voluntary attrition in the workplace today, and if these reasons differ by employee life stages. After reviewing current theories regarding human development, psychosocial development, the two-factor model of motivation, and migration theories based on pull-push-moorings, the researcher realized a gap in research regarding what drives employee attrition and whether a relationship exists between these factors and employee life stage.

The study's purpose included evaluating the push and pull factors employees weigh when they consider voluntarily leaving a company and whether these factors have a relationship with employee life stage. The researcher sought to answer the research questions to help companies reduce voluntary attrition, thereby reducing backfill costs. The next chapter provides a comprehensive review of the current literature on employee attrition and theories regarding human development, psychosocial development, human motivation factors, and migration factors as well as the biblical foundations that support employee attrition and human life stage variances.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This study investigated possible differences between life stages and reasons for employee job attrition or job retention. Beginning with the theory of psychosocial development (Erikson, 1963) and moving to the model of life development (Levinson, 1979), employee motivation factors (Herzberg et al., 2017), and reasons for migration (Moon, 1995), the literature review comprises current research regarding how employees view their roles in organizations and how they weigh reasons for attrition. In addition to evaluating life stages, this chapter reviews reasons for job retention and job attrition. This study also evaluated job attrition and job retention using the motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 2017) and the pull-push-mooring theory (Moon, 1995). Using these four theories as the foundation, a review of current literature on employee attrition and retention framed the discussion and informed the researcher on how to proceed with this study. Biblical references regarding life stage development and employee/employer relations were also reviewed.

Description of Search Strategy

The search strategy for the literature review focused on voluntary attrition and excluded involuntary attrition. The review included peer-reviewed articles, journals, books, periodicals, industry-specific publications, and biblical passages, resulting in 94 references selected for their relevance to employee attrition and life stage variances. Multiple electronic databases were used, including ABI/INFORM Global, Academic Search Premier, Business Source Primer, EBSCOHost, PsycArticles, PsycINFO, SAGE Journals, SOCIndex, and Strong's Concordance. The key search terms included

employee attrition, workplace happiness, employee turnover, leadership, engagement in the workplace, motivation theory, life development, and employee motivation. The search strategy for a biblical review began with a word study on life, pay, earnings, relationships, leadership, and compassion. This review also included articles addressing how employers treat employees using a biblical approach.

Review of Literature

The literature review consists of three sections. The first section contains an overview of theoretical frameworks. Beginning with Erikson and ending with Moon, each theory provided insights into individuals' development and decision-making processes. The second section reviews current research on attrition and retention and ties recent research back to the theoretical frameworks. The final section offers a biblical foundation for employees and employers in today's working environments.

Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development

Erikson's (1968) theory of psychosocial development evaluates eight stages of the human developmental lifespan. His theory focuses on culture and social relationships, which departed from Sigmund Freud's psychoanalytic theory by attributing growth to biological instinct (Orenstein & Lewis, 2022). In addition, Freud's psychosexual theory begins with life (birth) and ends around the age of 5 years, whereas Erikson's theory evaluates life stages starting with birth and ending with maturity. This fundamental difference allowed Erikson's model to evaluate life stages from birth to death while focusing on crises people have during each stage and actual events and outcomes from each life stage (Erikson, 1968).

Erikson (1968) based human development on the epigenetic principle of maturation. He further suggested that genetic factors and environmental and social forces influence development and the developmental experience. With each stage, a crisis occurs. With each crisis, the person either responds in an adaptive or maladaptive way. Should the person fail to adapt, later life stages may show an inability to adapt to other crises. With growth from stage to stage, individuals mature and build psychosocial strengths.

Erikson divided the human developmental lifetime into eight stages, as shown in Table 1. Although Erikson intended his stages to apply to humans throughout their lifespans, each stage can also be applied to their experiences in the workforce. With each stage, crises arise again in the workplace and impact reasons for attrition.

Table 1

Erikson's Eight Stages of Psychosocial Development

Age	Stage	Strength
Birth to 12 months	Trust versus mistrust	Hope
1–3 years	Autonomy versus shame and doubt	Willpower
3–6 years	Initiative versus guilt	Purpose
6–11 years	Industry versus role confusion	Competence
Adolescence	Identity versus role confusion	Fidelity
Young adulthood	Intimacy versus isolation	Love
Middle age	Generativity versus self-absorption	Care
Old age	Integrity versus despair	Wisdom

Stage 1: Trust Versus Mistrust

Occurring during infancy—between the time of birth and approximately 18 months of age—individuals face their first crisis: trust versus mistrust (Erikson, 1963).

By allowing mother figures out of sight without anxiety or rage, infants display trust, and they begin to understand social trust through feeding, depth of sleep, and relaxation of their bowels. This time also offers infants the opportunity to start understanding mistrust. In doing so, they begin recognizing others in their environment who exhibit dangerous behaviors or offer unsafe situations.

During this oral sensory stage, the basic virtue of hope for the individual begins to arise within the infant. With this newfound hope, the infant progresses into the second psychosocial stage (Erikson, 1968). While infants learn to trust, this trust concept also appears in the workforce (Yadav et al., 2020). Trust upholds balance in an organization and is built by organizational structures, people management policies, culture, organizational justice, support, and management actions (Yadav et al., 2020).

Stage 2: Autonomy Versus Shame and Doubt

Between ages 2 and 3 years, young children face a second crisis that provides them the opportunity to learn and understand autonomy and doubt and shame (Erikson, 1963). As muscular maturation begins, these children are faced with holding on to an object, person, or idea or letting go. During this time, the ability to choose for oneself becomes a critical component of the autonomous ability to decide. As they learn to walk, talk, control bowel elimination, and self-feed, the need for understanding how to make decisions for oneself provides the outcome of boundary setting and autonomy (Erikson, 1963).

During these beginning stages of self-reliance, empowerment and autonomy coalesce while shame and doubt are reduced, resulting in the fundamental virtue of willpower (Erikson, 1963). When employees perceive a lack of autonomy or

empowerment and the inability to create boundaries in the workplace, increased attrition rates may occur as a result (Gold, 2022).

Stage 3: Initiative Versus Guilt

During the formative preschool years, children 3–5 years of age begin identifying with their same-sex parent through observing and imitating behaviors (Erikson, 1963). Should they begin feeling signs of competition with the same-sex parent, it may result in feelings of guilt (Erikson, 1963); however, when children in this stage take a healthy approach to initiatives, the outcome is a sense of purpose and the ability to move into the fourth psychosocial stage (Erikson, 1968).

Like the exploratory phase outlined by Erikson in Stage 3, employee empowerment may lower attrition rates (Kennedy et al., 2022). In a similar study, Ma and Zhou (2021) found that empowerment positively impacted retention rates through the mediating effect of psychological capacity.

Stage 4: Industry Versus Inferiority

In this stage, children ages 6 to 11 years realize that they must produce to gain praise and recognition (Erikson, 1968). With the mastery of ambulatory and organ modes already achieved, the crisis of industry versus inferiority begins. During these primary school years, teachers, adults, and peers judge children's abilities to produce work products. When students deliver said product, they stave off the feeling of inferiority, and a new sense of confidence remains. This confidence results from their ability to deliver while finding a sense of purpose (Erikson, 1968). Like school-aged children, employee retention increases when employees receive feedback and support from their supervisors

and when combined with their own feedback-seeking behavior (Deshpande & Gupta, 2021).

Stage 5: Identity Versus Role Confusion

Childhood ends in this stage, which occurs between ages 12 and 18 years (Erikson, 1968). This is due to the onset of puberty and a person's ability to begin understanding and managing the world of skills, tools, and formal learning. In previous stages, children learned bodily functions and growth, but in this stage, they must review bodily functions again, but through a new lens.

With this focus on body and self, youth begin developing a sense of identity that is both ego and confidence. In contrast, an inability to develop this sense of identity can result in role confusion, both as an individual and as a member of a group or tribe. During this formative time, youth may begin approaching sexual encounters with others to further develop a sense of self. Through these social relationships (both platonic and sexual), they form an essential virtue of fidelity, for both self and others. Once the stage of adolescence is complete, these individuals transition into adulthood and its resulting three psychosocial phases (Erikson, 1968).

In reviewing Stage 5 and its effects on employees, identity similarly impacts individuals in their careers. When reviewing identity in the workplace, King et al. (2021) divided identity into three categories. At the highest level (macro level), King et al. saw employee identity as the images employees perceive about themselves in relation to their industry. At the organizational level (meso level), King et al. saw employee identity tied to organizational culture and their part within the culture. Lastly, at the micro level, the

team determined individual traits, needs, and motivating factors comprising what most employees saw as their own identifying factors (King et al., 2021).

Stage 6: Intimacy Versus Isolation

Erikson's psychosocial stages introduce adulthood in Stage 6, beginning with young adulthood (Erikson, 1968). Classified as the time between 19 and 40 years of age, these individuals begin looking at the possibility of intimacy with others. With less focus on mastering self and more emphasis on others, young adults seek connection through close friendships and romantic relationships, often leading to sexual encounters. Should a young adult not rise to the crisis of intimacy with others, the outcome may be isolation. This isolation is not to say a person never engages others; rather, it is described as avoidance of contact that could lead to intimacy with others. The outcome of this stage is love for others (Erikson, 1968).

Like Stage 6 in Erikson's theory, employees seek intimacy through close friendships in the workplace. Researchers have found that peer relationships in the workplace are directly linked to increased attrition rates (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020). When employees do not have strong relationships with their coworkers, retention rates decrease (Haldorai et al., 2019).

Stage 7: Generativity Versus Stagnation

Once individuals achieve love and intimacy, they reach what Erikson (1968) considered middle adulthood (ages 41 to 65 years). During this time, people begin to reconcile their impact on their future with the impact they believed possible, not only for their own but for future generations. With this newfound desire to guide the next generation, middle-aged adults focus more intently on their work and parenthood.

While some may assume parenting achieves this stage, Erikson did not. He argued that generativity resulted in guiding the next generation and included one's own children and others' children as well. Should adults in this life stage not achieve generativity, they may fall victim to stagnation. An individual may experience a strong need for pseudointimacy with others through this personal stagnation. This pseudointimacy may result in self-indulgence and early physical or psychological invalidism (Erikson, 1968). Similarly, as employees age, their desire to feel valued and useful increases (Mendryk, 2017). As Erikson (1968) outlined, this desire aligns with Stage 7 and shows the importance of generativity in the workplace.

Stage 8: Ego Integrity Versus Despair

In Erikson's (1968) final psychosocial stage, adults 65 years of age and older enter a mature life stage. During this time, they have an opportunity to reflect on their own lives and evaluate their accomplishments and shortcomings. They face the crisis of ego integrity whereby they reconcile their achievements as they compare them to the potential they had and the goals they set in earlier stages in life. Should this time of reconciliation not occur, they may experience feelings of failure and despair. In addition, a time of self-reflection may result in newfound wisdom (Erikson, 1968).

Mendryk (2017) researched the importance of legacy and its impact on employees nearing retirement age. The decision to self-select for attrition through retirement often occurred when employees saw that their ability to further the organization no longer outweighed their desire to move to a new phase in life (Mendryk, 2017).

Levinson's Model of Life Development

Like Erikson's work, Levinson's (1979) model of life development (see Table 2) theorizes the existence of life stages based on milestones and focuses on critical achievements or activities that participants experienced as a part of their growth and development. Upon review, many of the accomplishments and activities in this model also occur in the workforce, and employees mention them when discussing reasons for attrition.

Table 2

Levinson's Model of Life Development

Life stage	Age (in years)	Tasks accomplished
Early adulthood	20–40	
Early adult transition	17–22	Evaluating one's place in the world as an individual
Entering the adult world	23–28	Development of personal identity in the areas of work and nonwork (e.g., family, community)
Thirties transition	29–33	Evaluation of accomplishments of 20s and adjustments to life structure adopted
Settling down	34–39	Striving toward the achievement of personal and professional goals Strengthening commitments to work, family, and community
Middle adulthood	40–60	
Midlife transition	40–45	Evaluation of life structure created in the 30s
Entering middle adulthood	46–50	Development of greater stability as answers to questions in previous stages become incorporated into mindset
Fifties transition	51–55	Raising questions about life structure previously adopted
Culmination of middle adulthood	56–60	Answering questions previously and adjustment to life choices
Late adult era	60+	
Late adult transition	60–65	Conclusion of efforts of middle adulthood and preparation of the next era

Preadulthood

Levinson's (1979) model of life development spends less time evaluating the critical milestones of children and adolescents and focuses on adult activities and achievements. Levinson noted key occurrences during preadulthood, including the protection a family provides and the necessary socialization that establishes a foundation to build later in adult development. Additionally, individuals learn to distinguish themselves from others and demonstrate the ability to resolve emotional issues that may arise. Ending with puberty and body growth and development, Levinson found that this time in a person's life is the first quarter of life. It allows for immaturity and vulnerability before entry into the adult world (Levinson, 1979). Similarly, Mehta (2021) argued the importance of employee autonomy and individuality.

While Levinson (1979) noted this need for self-actualization in preadulthood, it remains a central theme for employees today. Whereas Levinson noted the impact a person's culture has on one's foundation during preadulthood, Obenauer (2019) argued the important role culture plays in employees' work experiences and how these experiences can affect their decisions to stay in an organization.

Early Adulthood

As preadulthood ends at approximately 20 years of age, early adulthood begins and lasts until about 40 years of age (Levinson, 1979). During this time, achieving key milestones allows four substages to emerge. Between ages 17 and 22 years, adults begin transitioning into adulthood as the result of leaving their nuclear family units. During this time, they begin thinking about their roles in society and how they may differ from family, classmates, and other institutions that previously served as foundational

components in their lives (Levinson, 1979). In addition to the roles employees play in their communities and organizations, many also consider the roles they play in the lives of their customers (Bastos & Barsade, 2020). Employees who work with customers to provide an experience describe their work as more meaningful than if they only sold a product (Bastos & Barsade, 2020).

Once early adults transition into adulthood, between ages 23 and 28 years, they begin developing their own identities, both personally and professionally (Levinson, 1979). During this time in people's lives, their roles in their families, work tribes, and community tribes become solidified. Toward the end of this period, people transition into their late 20s or early 30s and use this time to reflect on their 20s and evaluate their choices and accomplishments (Levinson, 1979). Similarly, according to King et al. (2021), this season of life also includes a time of self-reflection and individual identity and ties back to the macro-, meso-, and microlevel identity of a person's industry and organization as well as to one's self-identity.

As Levinson (1968) outlined, individuals spend their mid to late 30s settling down and working to achieve personal and professional goals. In this period, strong commitments are made to family, work, and community. With this period of settling down, people begin transitioning into middle adulthood (Levinson, 1979).

Middle Adulthood

Like a person's experience in early adulthood, their journey with another over the subsequent 20 years (ages 40–60 years) can also be subdivided using milestones of achievement or reflection (Levinson, 1979). People in this period of life typically review the structure of their lives in their 30s, which allows them to answer questions about their

morality and achievements to date. As individuals enter their 40s, they also enter middle adulthood between ages 46 and 50 years and achieve the milestone of developing more stable work and home lives.

As people enter their 50s, their middle adulthood results in another look back on previously accepted norms. This culmination of the first half of life results in answering questions previously posed, both personally and professionally, while adjusting one's own ideals and goals in preparation for the second half of life (Levinson, 1979). As a part of this middle adulthood evaluation, people may seek to create more personal wealth and stability through increased work responsibility and job promotion (Sackett, 2019), higher compensation (El-Rayes et al., 2020), or improved WLB (H. Black et al., 2019).

Late Adulthood

While Levinson (1979) primarily focused on individuals' experiences between ages 20 and 60 years, he also noted critical milestones after 60 years of age. From retirement and potential familial changes, including the deaths of spouses and other close relatives, Levinson distinguished this time as another time for reflection regarding the impact one has made and the realization of one's finite mortality. In a study on manager interactions with sunsetting employees, Topa et al. (2009) found that aging employees who experienced poor health, negative working conditions, or a positive attitude toward retirement showed increased attrition rates.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Two-Factor Model of Motivation)

According to the two-factor theory, employees are influenced by motivation and hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 2017). If an employee experiences neither factor, a higher level of dissatisfaction and a lower level of motivation may occur. Hygiene, the

first factor, may influence employees' opinions of their work and consists of working conditions, quality of supervision, salary, status, security, company, job, company policies and administration, and interpersonal relations. These hygiene factors may prevent employees from being satisfied with their work but cannot motivate them solely on their presence (Herzberg et al., 2017).

Motivation factors also influence employees (Herzberg et al., 2017). These factors include achievement, recognition, advancement, empowerment, responsibility, and the work itself. When employees positively experience both hygiene and motivation factors, they may experience both job satisfaction and job motivation. This combined experience results in increased levels of overall outcome potential. Given the importance of removing barriers that prevent employee satisfaction, employers must focus on hygiene factors first and then ensure employees also experience motivation factors (Herzberg et al., 2017).

Pull-Push Theory

Lee's (1966) theory of migration describes why people move from one geographic location to another and is often referred to as the pull-push theory. Push factors have a negative influence on an individual's quality of life, making the current location untenable. This may result in people desiring to leave their current locations for a more desirable place to live. In contrast, pull factors are the positive factors that draw individuals to new locations. Comprising internal factors (perceptions, growth, development, etc.) and external factors (regional decline, social changes, catastrophe, etc.), this theory offers critical insights into the factors that drive individuals away or cause them to stay. While this theory provides insights into what factors may cause a

person to leave, it does not offer insights into factors that balance the equation and result in unexpected decision-making (Lee, 1966).

As a result of these missing insights, Moon (1995) updated Lee's original theory to include moorings, resulting in the pull-push-mooring theory. Moorings, which Moon (p. 514) defined as "social expressions that allow a person to materialize physical, psychological well-being, while also serving to bind a person to a particular place," are life course issues, cultural issues, and spatial issues that may impact the decision-making process keeping individuals from simply weighing the pull and push factors and moving forward with their decisions.

After Moon (1995) updated Lee's pull-push theory on migration, several research teams have used the pull-push-mooring theory to evaluate attrition in specific workforces. In their review of factors affecting hotel employees, Haldorai et al. (2019) stated that of the push factors they measured (compensation, time to complete work, advancement opportunities, and WLB), the time needed to complete work became the only push factor affecting employees, while culture served as the only pull factor with any significance. Similarly, Porto Bellini et al. (2019) found that when employees experienced high levels of autonomy, a lowered desire to attrit resulted from job insecurity.

Employee Attrition and Its Effects

Employee attrition refers to a reduction in employee count in an organization due to employee or employer decisions (Raza et al., 2022). In a 2021 study by Alexander et al., 40% of employees polled indicated they were at least somewhat likely to leave their current role in 3 to 6 months. Of the 40% who indicated their intention to leave, 64% would do so without having a new position in place before resigning (Alexander et al.,

2021). Estimated costs of replacing one employee range from .5 to 2 times an employee's annual salary (McFeely & Wigert, 2019). An employer with 1,200 employees with average salaries of $50,000 could expect to spend between $12.9 and $51.6 million per year in backfill costs.

Employee attrition, whether voluntary or otherwise, negatively impacts customers' images of company brands, resulting in unit profitability declines (Subramony & Holtom, 2012). In Kumar and Yakhlef (2016), customers perceived attrition to negatively impact service capabilities and performance in service quality, project delivery, and knowledge loss. These changes in engagement, performance, and service quality affect the service chain model, which ties back to company profitability through lost sales (Lambert et al., 2021).

Factors Affecting Attrition

As employers began expecting workers to return to the office after the COVID-19 pandemic, many employees cited the lack of flexibility and increased commute time as common reasons to attrit (Chow et al., 2022). In addition to working from home (WFH), other reasons employees have offered for choosing to attrit include compensation (Haldorai et al., 2019), benefits (Gloor et al., 2018), tenure (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020), daily commute (Obenauer, 2019), business travel requirements (Haldorai et al., 2019), peer relationships and support (Haldorai et al., 2019), time needed to complete work (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020), time between promotions (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020), WLB (Rathnaweera & Jayathilaka, 2021), leadership (Stoker et al., 2022), personal autonomy (Mehta, 2021), and culture (DeSouza et al., 2017).

Unlike other reasons, corporate culture affects employees in many ways. Of these effects offered, key themes include diversity (Obenauer, 2019), bias (Stephens et al., 2020), equity in decision-making (Kollmann et al., 2020), office politics (Rath, 2017), inequity (Backhus et al., 2019), sexual orientation discrimination (Van Gilder, 2019), racial bias/discrimination (Stevens & Shriver, 2022), and corporate social responsibility (Espasandín-Bustelo et al., 2021).

Compensation. Employers assume compensation as a primary motivation for voluntary attrition (El-Rayes et al., 2020). In their 2020 study, El-Rayes et al. found that approximately 13% of voluntary resignations occurred with no change in salary, 5% received a salary increase of more than 150%, and 36% of participants took a reduced salary as a part of their new position. In contrast to El-Rayes et al.'s findings, Haldorai et al. (2019) found that compensation had no significant effect on their subjects' short-, medium-, or long-term intention to voluntarily leave a role. The difference in results occurred when other reasons for attrition coincided with compensation as a critical factor (Haldorai et al., 2019).

Benefits. In addition to base pay (compensation), employees often indicate benefits as another reason for voluntary attrition (Turnea & Prodan, 2020). With many total rewards packages offering noncompensation benefits, including health insurance, long- and short-term disability, opportunities and development, WLB, and performance and recognition, employees consider benefits as less essential factors in their decisions (Rai et al., 2019). While many human resources departments combine compensation and noncompensation benefits to become total rewards, both Turnea and Prodan (2020) and Rai et al. (2019) separated the components of the total rewards package to ensure

participants considered benefits other than compensation when assessing their intention to stay.

Tenure. According to the BLS (2020), very little change occurred in overall employee tenure from 2010 (4.2 years) to 2020 (4.1 years). But when reviewing median tenure by age group, younger employees changed jobs much more frequently than their older counterparts. As shown in Table 3, the job change rate increased for every age group over the 10-year period examined (BLS, 2020).

Table 3

Changes in Job Rate From 2010 to 2020

Age group (in years)	Median rate 2010 (in years)	Median rate 2020 (in years)
25–34	3.1	2.8
35–44	5.1	4.9
45–54	7.8	7.5
55–64	10.00	9.9
All ages	4.2	4.1

Note. Data are from "Employee Tenure in 2020," by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d. (https://www.bls.gov/news.release/archives/tenure_09222020.pdf). In the public domain.

Studies by Srivastava and Tiwari (2020) and Pratt et al. (2021) found that organizational tenure negatively affects attrition rates. As employees stay in a company for more extended periods, voluntary attrition decreases compared to their colleagues with less tenure (Pratt et al., 2021). Total working years and years at a company become two of the six most important features when evaluating an employee's likelihood to voluntarily leave an organization (Pratt et al., 2021).

Daily Office Commutes. From 2006 to 2019, the average one-way commute to work increased by more than 10% (Burd et al., 2021). Additionally, 9.8 % of commuters —an almost 2% increase—traveled at least 1 hr to and from work daily. Daily commutes may offer more insight into attrition since the COVID-19 pandemic allowed many employees to work from home for the first time. Srivastava and Tiwari (2020) found that daily commute is among the top five reasons employees voluntarily leave an organization.

One key aspect of the daily commute may also include employees' start and stop times in their work environments (Kiran & Khurram, 2018). In their study on flextime and happiness, Kiran and Khurram (2018) found that employees remained more committed, engaged, and satisfied when given the flexibility to build their schedules to accommodate their specific family and traveling needs.

Relationships With Peers. While Srivastava and Tiwari (2020) and Haldorai et al. (2019) noted that good working relationships with peers reduced attrition rates in the workforce, other research teams identified specific instances where strained office relationships resulted in increased attrition rates. Short- and longer-term turnover intentions increased when employees experienced higher rates of interpersonal tension (Haldorai et al., 2019). When employees described their peer relationships positively, they exhibited decreased voluntary attrition (Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020).

Extra Time Needed to Complete Work. The BLS found that the average number of hours employees worked in the United States went from 33.9 in 2009 to 34.7 in 2021 (Statista, n.d.-a).– During the COVID-19 pandemic, while many employees worked from home, the average workday for full-time employees lengthened by 48.5 min

(Maurer, 2020). WFH further exacerbated the issue with average work weeks increasing in weekly hours. Employees in Srivastava and Tiwari (202) said that the number of hours needed to complete work became a key component in whether they left an organization.

Time Between Promotions. Organizations like the Society for Human Resource Managers have purported 3 years as an average time between promotions (Sackett, 2019). In a recent survey that evaluated employee attitudes, Richardson and Antonello (2022) found that 36% of respondents in the United States expected to receive a promotion in the next 12 months. While some employees climb the corporate ladder with greater speed, others lag and may even choose to stay in lower roles compared to their high-climbing counterparts. Although this average may seem arbitrary, Umasankar and Ashok (2013) and Srivastava and Tiwari (2020) both concluded that time between promotions remained a key factor in voluntary employee attrition.

Work–Life Balance. A seven-culture study by Haar et al. (2014) evaluated WLB's impact on job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and mental health. Findings included a positive correlation between WLB and both job and life satisfaction. Participants with lower WLB scores had higher rates of both anxiety and depression (Haar et al., 2014). An empirical review by Wood et al. (2020) indicated WLB as a causal factor for work engagement. Based on the employees' perceived WLB levels, higher attrition may occur when employees feel their WLB does not align with their expectations (Wood et al., 2020). Having a mindset that focuses on self-efficacy, growth, control, and self-awareness may result in the desired outcome of WLB. Based on these mindset foci, employees in H. Black et al. (2019) exhibited behaviors in the workplace that led to WLB, which reduced voluntary attrition.

Effective Leadership. Comprising idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, transformational leadership remains a key factor in voluntary employee attrition (Chang et al., 2013). A direct relationship exists between leader rudeness and attrition, with employees believing attrition through resignation the only way to escape from an abusive leader (Rath, 2017). When evaluating the impact influential leaders have on their teams, replacing a leader who scored in the 10th percentile for leadership competencies with a leader who scored in the 90th percentile reduced total subordinate labor costs by at least 5% from lowered backfill rates (Hoffman & Tadelis, 2021).

Autonomy. With the increase in WFH opportunities resulting from the COVID-19 pandemic, Mehta (2021) found a direct relationship between workplace autonomy and work engagement. Autonomous working environments may reduce attrition rates by improving work engagement (Wood et al., 2020). While employees saw autonomy as a positive work attribute, leaders in Mehta shared their concerns regarding autonomy based on a perceived lack of company culture that resulted from WFH scenarios.

Corporate Culture. The U.S. workforce comprised approximately 260,000,000 employees in 2021, with women making up more than 51% of the total (BLS, 2021). Non-Hispanic Whites accounted for more than 75% of the workforce, followed by 18% Hispanic, 13% Black, 6% Asian, and 1% American Indian/Native Alaskan (BLS, 2021). In addition, researchers have estimated that between 15%–20% of the workforce is neurodivergent (Doyle, 2019), and recent polls suggested the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community composed approximately 5% of the U.S. population with 1 in 6 in Generation Z self-identifying as LGBT (J. Jones, 2021). With the increase

in diversity, the need to help employees understand ways of engaging with a diversified workforce also increases. A 2020 estimate showed that organizational spending in diversity, equity, inclusion, and belonging training, programs, and other awareness tactics may exceed $8 billion (Mehta, 2021).

Employees who feel connected to their culture share a desire to look for a job at a rate 55% less than their disconnected counterparts (Morin & Barrett, 2022). The same study showed that those who felt disconnected felt burned out “always” or “very often” at a 68% lower rate and thrived in their current role at a rate of 37% higher than their disconnected colleagues. While defining corporate culture remains challenging for companies, Gallup (n.d., para. 4) defined corporate culture as “how we do things around here.” Given this idea of culture encompassing how a company functions, how it builds a positive or negative culture for its employees rests mainly with the employees in the company (Gallup, n.d.).

Each person brings a unique concept of self into the workplace, and each employee’s experiences, cultural activities, ethnic history, and relationships with others help create that self-identity (Fiske & Taylor, 2020). Through this individual identity, employees must learn to balance their unique individuality with their need for acceptance and inclusion in a larger group. In Espasandín-Bustelo et al. (2021), employees who felt a part of a group and remained focused on a mutual outcome experienced increased rates of workplace happiness and became a part of the larger group or clan. This resulted in their feeling as though they joined a group with a greater purpose.

Gender Bias. Although current surveys indicate women accounting for more than 50% of the workforce, female employees in Carmona-Cobo et al. (2019) reported higher

workplace incivility than their male counterparts. When evaluating female leaders, male and female subordinates held female leaders to a higher level of leadership ability standards than male leaders. Women who led teams with low female representation scored lower than if their teams were more equally split between men and women (Gloor et al., 2018). While the perception of women's competence remains lower in the workplace in relation to evaluations, pay disparity also remains an issue. Women earned, on average, $0.825 for every $1 made by men in 2021

Racial Bias. Based on the median weekly income of U.S. employees, racial bias in pay also serves as a litmus test for a corporation's culture (BLS, 2021). Employees who self-identified as Asian earned the highest weekly wage with $1,310 per week in October 2021. Whites followed with $1,004, Blacks earned $794, and Hispanics fell further behind with an average median weekly income of $758 in October 2021 (BLS, 2021).

While income disparities by race are the most significant, Black employees also experience a bias against their natural hair. Dawson et al. (2019) found that some Black women who did not conform to Eurocentric hairstyles for their place of employment experienced labeling that included "unprofessional," "angry," or as having "bad hair." This bias resulted in the U.S. Congress passing the CROWN Act in 2022, which prevents employers from discriminating against people for wearing their hair in a natural style based on their heritage and ethnicity.

Non-White employees also experience other biases (Crown et al., 2020). While almost 12% of the U.S. population is Black, only about 5% of doctors are Black (Reed, 2023). A recent survey of the Black Surgical Society members found that 84% of women

and 86% of men experienced race-based bias in their place of employment. Black women experienced greater bias rates than their Black male counterparts in coaching, career progression, and compensation. Both men and women recounted blatant racial discrimination and varying racial bias (Crown et al., 2020).

While Black men and women in Hernandez et al. (2019) made, on average,79 cents for every $1 made by their White counterparts, some of this discrepancy may occur from bias in the salary negotiation process. Hiring managers perceived that Black candidates "overstepped" during the negotiation process more often than their White counterparts. This resulted in hiring managers hiring fewer Black candidates or offering lower salaries than White candidates who employed the same tactics (Hernandez et al., 2019).

The Asian American/Pacific Islander (AAPI) community experience a different type of bias (Byrd et al., 2021). Remarks received by members of this community include comments about their looks and language, that their accents are hard to understand, and that they should go back to their home countries (Byrd et al., 2021). In addition, this group experiences bias through the model minority myth—a belief that AAPI community members are problem-free, high-achieving employees. According to Byrd et al. (2021), this belief has resulted in company leaders minimizing, dismissing, or glossing over complaints and incidents filed by the AAPI community.

Sexual Orientation Bias. The LGBT community also experiences workplace bias. Based on their survey of studies from 1997–2007, Badgett et al. (2007) found that over 41% of the LGBT community experienced workplace harassment and that gay men received between 10% and 32% less income than their heteronormative counterparts.

Sexual minorities fell victim to microaggressions and ostracism daily, with some ostracism resulting from language choices. Additionally, some experienced bias when others referred to their same-sex partner as a roommate or friend but referred to a heteronormative employee's partner as a spouse (Badgett et al., 2007).

Religious Bias. Many employees feel they must leave their religious beliefs outside their place of employment (Schneider et al., 2022). Nearly one third (*n* = 11,356, 27%) of respondents in a national population survey reported perceiving religious discrimination in the workplace. Of those who experienced discrimination, most claims were from Muslim employees (63%) who experienced others calling them extremists (Schneider et al., 2022). Those who self-identified as Jewish (52%) shared that their coworkers mocked them for "keeping track of the money" or other anti-Semitic remarks. In contrast, those who identified as Christian felt ostracized or experienced "othering" during holiday periods or through a lack of inclusion while experiencing being called names such "Ms. Holy" or "Preacher Boy" (Schneider et al., 2022).

Neurodiversity Bias. With nearly 20% of the American population being classified as neurodiverse, this group faces unemployment or underemployment at rates as high as 90% (Doyle, 2019). Some companies work with their neurodiverse employees to find roles where they thrive, while others remain leery of creating a workplace that includes this group of employees. Many challenges come from negative attitudes and stereotyping from leaders and colleagues. Some companies respond by refraining from hiring altogether for fear of being uncompetitive or not flexible enough (Krzeminska et al., 2019).

Corporate cultures show increased bias through three activities: perfectionism, power hoarding, and individualistic ideas (McNutt, 2021). When employers encourage diversity of perspectives in meetings and on teams, increase context in discussions, and work to find common ground with others, employees begin finding commonalities through their work. This leads to less bias and greater inclusivity (Stephens et al., 2020).

Employee Retention

Employee retention, also referenced as embeddedness, consists of factors that encourage individuals to stay in an organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). Much like reasons for attrition, multiple factors influence a person's reasons to stay and include psychological, social, and financial factors (Porter et al., 2019).

As King et al. (2021) noted, three levels compose an employee's identity that may improve employee retention in an organization. The macro level, consisting of employees' attachments to their industry, offers social and psychological safety in their roles. At an organization's meso level, culture and policies include a person's financial well-being as well as psychological and social factors. Lastly, the micro level, consisting of needs, motivations, and traits, also offers employees stability in their current roles (King et al., 2021).

Biblical Foundations of the Study

The Bible does not specifically reference employee life stages, nor does it refer to employee attrition. Passages in both the Old and New Testaments describe ways employers should treat their employees (Prov 3:27–28; Rom 4:4; Mal 2:10; John 8:15). The Bible also addresses Christians' spiritual life stages by referring to their ability to tolerate teachings by differentiating between milk and meat (Heb 5:13–14). The

understanding that people experience life differently and their current spiritual life stages may differ from that of another is seen in Paul's letter to the church in 1 Cor 9:23–24.

Compensation

Beginning with Lev 19:13, the Bible issues warnings against oppressing or robbing others. In addition to paying people fairly, the verse indicates that payment should occur promptly. Proverbs reiterates this by instructing readers to refrain from withholding goods from those who earned them and to provide payment on time (Prov 3:27–28). Similarly, the New Testament addresses paying employees their due in Rom 4:4 and 1 Tim 5:18, with Christ directing that "the laborer deserves his wages" in the latter.

Relationships With Others

The treatment of others is a key theme throughout the Bible. Whether a person wants to consider that God created humankind in His likeness (Gen 1:27), that all of creation came from one Father (Mal 2:10), that outward appearance should not direct interactions engaging others (1 Sam 16:7; John 8:15), or that God shows no partiality (Rom 2:11; Gal 3:28; Acts 10:34), God expects His creation to offer the same respect for one another as He does and clearly states that all are equal in His eyes.

Leadership

Whether a person leads a team or a nation, those in authority bear responsibility for conducting themselves in a way that uplifts those they lead while also showing God's love. The psalmist describes David's ability to lead with an upright heart and skillful hand (Ps 78:72). Prov 11:14 reiterates the notion of expert leadership with a warning that people fall without proper guidance from more experienced leaders.

In the New Testament, Christ outlines how influential leaders lead through His washing of the disciples' feet. In John 13, as a part of the Last Supper, Christ offers that leaders should humble themselves and take care of their subordinates while those who follow live by the same example by serving others. Later, the New Testament reminds readers to care for everyone in the group (Acts 20:28–30).

Diversity and Culture

The church in Corinth provided evidence that Paul understood people's diversity and talents. When Paul wrote to the Corinthians, he reminded them of the importance of diversity when he outlined the differences in spiritual gifts. Like the Body of Christ, each employee receives a unique set of talents and experiences that help shape the Body of Christ for His benefit (1 Cor 12). With unique skills come unique needs. As a result, learning to work and live in harmony with others remains critical for corporations and the Body of Christ (Lev 19:16; Mark 3:14–15; 1 John 4:8).

Summary

This literature review focused on possible differences between life stages based on Erikson's theory of psychosocial development and Levinson's model of life development. These theories provided a solid foundation for understanding how employees' life stages may differ throughout their lives and may impact how attrition factors change decision-making throughout a person's career. In conjunction with Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Moon's pull-push-mooring theory, it is possible to see how attrition factors may differ by person and specific life stage.

In addition to these theoretical underpinnings, an examination to better understand why employees voluntarily leave an organization helped solidify current understanding

while presenting a gap in the current research. In addition, a review of scripture provided insights into the Bible's guidance on how best to treat employees in order to reduce attrition in business today. Only because of this review could the researcher see that while employers understand reasons for deterioration at the employee level, current research does not indicate how employee life stages affect voluntary attrition.

The next chapter describes the methodology, research design, analytical approach, and strategies selected to conduct the present study and answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

Overview

Chapter 3 presents a summary of the procedures used in this quantitative study. This study focused on how employee life stages impact voluntary attrition and retention in the workforce today. Participants were adults 18 years of age and older working full time and currently employed in the United States. In addition to collecting demographic data, the survey included a 10–point Thurstone-type scale to measure factors impacting decision-making regarding voluntary attrition and retention. To determine if there was a difference in the importance assigned to reasons for attrition and retention by life stage, the Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to assess whether medians were equal across groups, following guidance in Green and Salkind (2016).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a relationship between employee job attrition and life stage?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between job retention and employee life stage?

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between push factors of job attrition and life stage. (Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between push factors of job attrition and life stage.)

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between pull factors of job retention and life stage. (Null hypothesis: There is no relationship between pull factors of job retention and life stage.)

Research Design

A quasiexperimental nonparametric procedure was employed to assess both hypotheses. Variables included both nominal and ordinal data. The measurement variable did not meet the normality assumption required in order to conduct a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). As a result, a Kruskal-Wallis test was selected instead.

Kruskal-Wallis tests include three assumptions (Green & Salkind, 2016). The first assumption indicates that a continuous distribution for the test variables is the same for the different groups tested. Secondly, the cases represent random samples from the populations, and scores on the test variable are independent of one another. Lastly, the *p* for the chi-square is approximate and increases in accuracy as sample sizes increase (Green & Salkind, 2016).

Participants

G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) was used to determine the sample size for the Kruskal-Wallis tests. This analysis indicated the appropriate sample size as 305 (see Appendix A). To achieve adequate sampling, quantitative researchers must randomly select the sample from the population from which they wish to generalize the results (T. R. Black, 1999). The study population included adults who were currently employed full-time and living in the United States. Rather than focusing on any one business, the population was open to all business types, thereby preventing exclusion from any part of the U.S. working population. As a part of the participant demographics, subjects were asked about their line of work and type of compensation (salaried, hourly, etc.).

Participants were recruited using Facebook and LinkedIn. To achieve adequate sampling, quantitative researchers should randomly select their sample from the

population from which they wish to generalize the results (T. R. Black, 1999). To obtain a sample, these two social media platforms were leveraged to garner participation. Participation was open to any adult 18+ years of age living in the United States who was currently employed and working full time. See Appendix B for a LinkedIn post example.

Study Procedures

This study was submitted to Liberty University's institutional review board for approval prior to collecting data. Human subjects were used for the analysis; however, minimal risk to participants was expected. All data collected through the online survey were anonymous and kept confidential. The study sample was collected through convenience sampling, which allowed anyone on LinkedIn or Facebook who saw the researcher's posts or subsequent shares of the post to have the same chance of participating in the study. Study participants completed a Qualtrics-hosted survey online through either Facebook or LinkedIn. While completing the survey, participants were offered the opportunity to receive a summary of the study results by sharing their email.

Data were collected as they were received over a 21-day period. The original social media posts garnered 480 responses, and the resulting data were analyzed using SPSS. To determine if life stage impacted the reasons for job attrition and job retention, Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted for each variable and life stage.

Instrumentation and Measurement

This study relied on survey data that allowed the researcher to gather respondents' thoughts and feelings when the survey was administered, as recommended in Christensen and Johnson (2016). The survey items comprised questions from six previously administered surveys.

Originating Surveys

Job Characteristics Scale

Questions 1, 2, and 7 in Sections 2 and 3 of the survey originally appeared in the Job Characteristics Scale (Near, 1985). Cronbach's alpha values for this survey in the original study were 0.70 for pay-related questions and 0.90 for autonomy-related questions. Factor analysis in the original study suggested six factors: supervisor, challenge, coworkers, difficulty, benefits, and time (Near, 1985).

Aggregate Job Satisfaction Survey

Questions 3, 4, and 5 in Sections 2 and 3 of the survey originally appeared in the Aggregate Job Satisfaction Survey (González-Romá & Hernández, 2016). Test–retest reliability, measured at two times during the original study, produced intraclass correlation coefficient values of 0.29 and 0.66, while Cronbach's alpha for the aggregated scores was 0.91.

Job Dissatisfaction Scale

Question 6 was used in Sections 2 and 3 and originally appeared in the Job Dissatisfaction Scale (Zhang et al., 2020). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.74 for the survey in the original study.

Job Satisfaction of Persons with Disability Scale

Question 8 was used in Sections 2 and 3 of the survey and originally appeared in the Job Satisfaction of Persons with Disability Scale (Brooks et al., 2020). This scale had Cronbach's alpha values of 0.90 in the original study. Bivariate correlations were calculated between the instrument and its subscales and related constructs (i.e., perceived organizational support, work engagement, and life satisfaction) to evaluate construct

validity. There were statistically significant correlations between the job satisfaction instrument and related constructs (Brooks et al., 2020).

Commuting Stress Measures

Question 9 appeared in Sections 2 and 3 of the survey and was originally used in the Commuting Stress Measures (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016). The coefficient alpha for the scale was 0.82 in the original study.

Intentions and Motivations for Using Teleworking Systems Questionnaire

Question 10 appeared in Sections 2 and 3 of the survey and originally appeared in the Intentions and Motivations for Using Teleworking Systems Questionnaire (Venkatesh & Speier, 2000). The Cronbach's alpha for each motivation and intention type exceeded 0.90 for the original survey. A factor analysis was used to support the convergent and discriminant validity of the measure in the original study.

Demographics

The survey in the present study began with demographic questions to garner information regarding employment status, country of employment, level of education, years in the current role, career level, contribution type (individual or people manager), and current age.

Reasons for Attrition and Retention

Sections 2 and 3 of the survey employed a 10–point Thurstone-type scale (Thurstone, 1929) to understand factors impacting decision-making regarding voluntary attrition. Since reasons for attrition and retention do not work as opposites, the researcher asked participants to rate each factor individually using a 10-point scale where 0 was not important and 10 was most important. Factors in Sections 2 and 3 included

compensation, benefits, daily commute, WFH, relationships with coworkers, the time needed to complete work, the time between promotions, WLB, leadership, autonomy, and corporate culture. See Appendix C for the complete survey.

Operationalization of Variables

Life Stage (Age)—This variable was an ordinal variable, created from the participant's self-reported age in the survey's demographics section. The researcher used age to group participants into life stages using Levinson's (1979) model of life development

Factors for Attrition—This variable was an ordinal variable and was measured by the total mean score on questions used from the following questionnaires: Job Characteristics Scale (Near, 1985), Aggregate Job Satisfaction Survey (González-Romá & Hernández, 2016), Job Dissatisfaction Scale (Zhang et al., 2020), Job Satisfaction of Persons with Disability Scale (Brooks et al., 2020), Commuting Stress Measures (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016), and the Intentions and Motivations for Using Teleworking Systems Questionnaire (Venkatesh & Speier, 2000).

Factors for Retention—This variable was an ordinal variable and was measured by the total mean score on questions used from the following questionnaires: Job Characteristics Scale (Near, 1985), Aggregate Job Satisfaction Survey (González-Romá & Hernández, 2016), Job Dissatisfaction Scale (Zhang et al., 2020); Job Satisfaction of Persons with Disability Scale (Brooks et al., 2020), Commuting Stress Measures (Amponsah-Tawiah et al., 2016), and the Intentions and Motivations for Using Teleworking Systems Questionnaire (Venkatesh & Speier, 2000).

Data Analysis

Exploratory data analysis was conducted first and involved computing descriptives (frequencies, percentages, means, medians, standard deviations) of the demographic variables, independent variable (life stage), and dependent variables (factors for attrition and retention). Three tests were conducted on the data. A Shapiro-Wilk test was used to determine if the data were normally distributed. Results showed the data were not normally distributed. This finding showed the need to use Kruskal-Wallis to analyze differences between means of each group (Green & Salkind, 2016). Like the ANOVA test, Kruskal-Wallis tests analyze the differences between the means of giving groups. When results indicated a *p* value less than 0.05, one or more groups' distribution differs from the others. Upon learning which factors showed *p* values less than 0.05, a Tukey HSD post hoc analysis was conducted to find which groups differed.

Delimitations, Assumptions, and Limitations

The aim in this quantitative study was to examine if there were differences in reasons for attrition and retention by employee life stage. The research design used in this study was not intended to determine the actual cause of voluntary attrition for employees in any life stage. Rather, it was meant to understand if employees in differing life stages assigned different levels of importance to various work factors because of their life stage. The research was confined to the United States.

It was assumed that the participants would respond honestly to all survey questions. Although attempts were made to use a representative sample of the U.S. working population at the time of the study, it was likely unachievable (Fowler, 2009) because of using social media (LinkedIn and Facebook) as the primary distribution

method and the need for participants to complete the survey using technology. Both the distribution model and data gathering conditions limited the sample. Additionally, the researcher assumed the research design was appropriate and applied throughout the study process and that the study sample was representative of full-time adult employees currently working in the United States.

Although random sampling is ideal for this type of research, convenience sampling that was open to any user on LinkedIn and on Facebook resulted in directional data that can provide a foundation for future studies on these topics. Additionally, the survey questions used came from other instruments, and while each had adequate reliability and validity, those results were not based on using the surveys in conjunction with one another. Using specific questions from various scales and surveys may have impacted the validity and reliability of the survey questions.

Summary

While many quantitative studies have been conducted on factors affecting attrition and retention, more research is necessary on statistical differences between attrition and retention factors and employee life stages. Of the studies completed, none provided any ranking of factors, nor did they identify potential differences in responses based on employee life stages.

The present study's primary aim was to understand if there were differences in the importance assigned to reasons for job attrition or job retention among individuals in various life stages. This chapter addressed the approach used to answer both research questions, the research design, and the research rationale. In addition, the researcher

outlined the population, sampling strategies, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis. Chapter 4 details the statistical analysis for each of the research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Overview

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses for each of the research hypotheses. Firstly, a summary of the entire participant dataset, descriptive statistics of demographic variables, and descriptive statistics of the study variables are presented. The researcher employed the Kruskal-Wallis H test to determine if the importance assigned to the reasons for employee job attrition (push factors) and job retention (pull factors) differed by employee life stage. Post hoc analysis was then conducted when statistically significant overall differences among life stages were found, as recommended in Green and Salkind (2016).

LinkedIn and Facebook posts garnered 480 responses to the survey. To participate, respondents were required to be at least 18 years of age, currently residing in the United States, and employed full time. After removing participants who were ineligible and those who did not complete the survey, data from 386 participants remained.

Descriptive Results

Descriptive statistics were reported for 386 respondents. The mean age was 46 years (SD = 13.315). Of those who completed the survey, 68.9% currently held salaried positions, and 61.7% were individual contributors. See Table 4 for age ranges, years in current role, career level, and level of education. See Appendix D for business sectors and states represented by participants.

Table 4

*Participant Demographics (*N = *386)*

Characteristic	*n*	%
Age range (in years)		
18–28	49	12.7
29–39	77	19.9
40–50	108	28.0
51–60	92	23.8
60+	60	15.5
Years in current role		
0–4	152	39.4
5–10	96	24.9
11–14	22	5.7
15–20	41	10.6
21–25	26	6.7
25+	49	12.7
Career level		
Entry level	44	11.4
Intermediate	84	21.8
Midlevel	154	39.9
Senior/executive	104	26.9
Education level		
Did not complete high school	2	0.5
High school graduate	20	5.2
Some college	49	12.7
Associate degree	33	8.5
Bachelor’s degree	150	38.9
Master’s degree	94	24.4
Doctoral degree	32	8.3
Postdoctorate education	6	1.6

Study Findings

Data were exported from Qualtrics into SPSS v. 29. The researcher screened the data to ensure all participants were of legal age, lived in the United States, held a full-time job, and completed the survey. Those who did not were removed from the study.

Assumptions for Kruskal-Wallis

The Kruskal-Wallis test has three assumptions (Green & Salkind, 2016). The first assumption indicates that a continuous distribution for the test variables is the same for the different groups tested. Secondly, the cases represent random samples from the populations, and scores on the test variable are independent of one another. Lastly, the *p* for the chi-square is approximate and increases in accuracy as sample sizes increase (Green & Salkind, 2016).

Based on the assumptions outlined in the Kruskal-Wallis test, the researcher conducted a Shapiro-Wilk analysis to evaluate if the data were normally distributed. Results indicated the data were not normally distributed, which ruled out using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) test for these data (see Tables 5 and 6).

Table 5

Tests of Normality—Attrition

Variable	Life stage (in years)	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	*df*	Sig.
Compensation	18–28	0.847	49	< .001
	29–39	0.233	77	< .001
	40–50	0.205	108	< .001
	51–60	0.201	92	< .001
	60+	0.191	60	< .001
Benefits	18–28	0.85	49	< .001
	29–39	0.156	77	< .001
	40–50	0.167	108	< .001
	51–60	0.189	92	< .001
	60+	0.213	60	< .001
Overall company	18–28	0.941	49	0.017
	29–39	0.168	77	< .001
	40–50	0.167	108	< .001
	51–60	0.194	92	< .001
	60+	0.26	60	< .001
Coworker engagement	18–28	0.89	49	< .001
	29–39	0.151	77	< .001
	40–50	0.117	108	< .001
	51–60	0.154	92	< .001
	60+	0.174	60	< .001
Management	18–28	0.901	49	< .001
	29–39	0.157	77	< .001
	40–50	0.166	108	< .001
	51–60	0.185	92	< .001
	60+	0.215	60	< .001
Future opportunities	18–28	0.881	49	< .001
	29–39	0.125	77	< .001
	40–50	0.181	108	< .001
	51–60	0.184	92	< .001
	60+	0.144	60	< .001

Variable	Life stage (in years)	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	*df*	Sig.
Autonomy	18–28	0.934	49	0.008
	29–39	0.172	77	< .001
	40–50	0.211	108	< .001
	51–60	0.233	92	< .001
	60+	0.226	60	< .001
Work–life balance	18–28	0.861	49	< .001
	29–39	0.267	77	< .001
	40–50	0.199	108	< .001
	51–60	0.253	92	< .001
	60+	0.234	60	< .001
Daily commute	18–28	0.913	49	0.002
	29–39	0.17	77	< .001
	40–50	0.167	108	< .001
	51–60	0.187	92	< .001
	60+	0.172	60	< .001
Work from home	18–28	0.883	49	< .001
	29–39	0.196	77	< .001
	40–50	0.189	108	< .001
	51–60	0.205*	92	< .001
	60+	0.161	60	< .001

Table 6

Tests of Normality—Retention

Variable	Life stage (in years)	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	*df*	Sig.
Compensation	18–28	0.86	49	< .001
	29–39	0.268	77	< .001
	40–50	0.172	108	< .001
	51–60	0.226	92	< .001
	60+	0.214	60	< .001
Benefits	18–28	0.892	49	< .001
	29–39	0.21	77	< .001
	40–50	0.226	108	< .001
	51–60	0.2	92	< .001
	60+	0.214	60	< .001
Overall company	18–28	0.878	49	<.001
	29–39	0.14	77	<.001
	40–50	0.155	108	< .001
	51–60	0.192	92	< .001
	60+	0.161	60	< .001
Coworkers	18–28	0.91	49	0.001
	29–39	0.129	77	< .001
	40–50	0.127	108	< .001
	51–60	0.133	92	< .001
	60+	0.197	60	< .001
Management	18–28	0.891	49	< .001
	29–39	0.153	77	< .001
	40–50	0.221	108	< .001
	51–60	0.183	92	< .001
	60+	0.161	60	< .001
Future opportunities	18–28	0.88	49	< .001
	29–39	0.123	77	< .001
	40–50	0.17	108	< .001
	51–60	0.148	92	< .001
	60+	0.151	60	< .001
Autonomy	18–28	0.904	49	< .001
	29–39	0.146	77	< .001
	40–50	0.21	108	< .001
	51–60	0.247	92	< .001

Variable	Life stage (in years)	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	*df*	Sig.
	60+	0.193	60	< .001
Work–life balance	18–28	0.866	49	< .001
	29–39	0.188	77	< .001
	40–50	0.181	108	< .001
	51–60	0.238	92	< .001
	60+	0.2	60	< .001
Daily commute	18–28	0.88	49	< .001
	29–39	0.174	77	< .001
	40–50	0.188	108	< .001
	51–60	0.185	92	< .001
	60+	0.2	60	< .001
Work from home	18–28	0.876	49	< .001
	29–39	0.168	77	< .001
	40–50	0.222	108	< .001
	51–60	0.202	92	< .001
	60+	0.161	60	< .001

Based on the Shapiro-Wilk results, the researcher then conducted Kruskal-Wallis H tests. An alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance for all statistical tests. This section includes the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test for push and pull factors and the related post hoc analyses where appropriate and based on overall statistical significance.

Reasons for Attrition

Based on Lee's (1966) theory of migration, evaluating push factors that negatively impact an individual's quality of life in their current role may help explain what factors push employees away. Using Kruskal-Wallis, tests were conducted on each factor (compensation, benefits, overall company, coworker engagement, management, future opportunities, autonomy, WLB, daily commute, and WFH) to determine whether reasons for employee attrition differed by life stage.

The Kruskal Wallis test revealed a nonsignificant overall (omnibus) test for factors focused on compensation, benefits, coworker engagement, management, and daily commute. See Appendix E for test statistics. Kruskal-Wallis tests on overall company, future opportunities, autonomy, WLB, and WFH did show results that were statistically significant.

Overall Company

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance ascribed to the overall company as a reason for leaving differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 14.083$, $p = .007$; $\eta^2 = 0.037$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the p- η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a statistically significant relationship did exist, pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a significant mean difference between the 29–39 age group ($M = 6.10$, $SD = 2.784$) and the 40–50 age group ($M = 7.38$, $SD = 2.398$), $p = .012$.

Future Opportunities

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to future opportunities as a reason for leaving differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 15.812$, $p = .003$; $\eta^2 = 0.041$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a

significant mean difference between the 60+ age group (M = 4.77, SD = 3.402) and each of the following age groups: 18–28 (M = 6.53, SD = 3.069), p = .016; 29–39 (M = 6.43, SD = 2.844), p = .009; 40–50 (M = 6.85, SD = 2.575), $p < 0.001$; and 51–60 (M = 6.18, SD = 2.983), p = .030.

Autonomy

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to autonomy as a reason for leaving differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 23.704$, $p < 0.001$; $\eta^2 = 0.062$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a significant mean difference between the 18–28 age group (M = 6.33, SD = 2.772) and the following age groups: 40–50 (M = 7.96, SD = 2.153), p = .004; and 51–60 (M = 8.06, SD = 2.260), p = .003. In addition, the post hoc test found a difference between the 60+ age group (M = 6.25, SD = 3.482) and the 40–50 age group (M = 7.96, SD = 2.153), $p < 0.001$; and the 51–60 age group (M = 8.06, SD = 2.260), $p < 0.001$.

Work–Life Balance

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to WLB as a reason for leaving differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 12.084$, p = .017; $\eta^2 = 0.031$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, pairwise

comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a difference between the 60+ age group (M = 6.72, SD = 3.320); the 40–50 age group (M = 8.04, SD = 2.300), p = .015; and the 51–60 age group (M = 8.27, SD = 1.973), p = .003.

Work From Home

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to work from home as a reason for leaving differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 12.476$, p = .014; $\eta^2 = 0.032$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, a pairwise comparison was conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a difference between the 60+ age group (M = 5.03, SD = 3.723) and the 51–60 age group (M = 7.15, SD = 3.070), p = .003.

Reasons for Retention

Like push factors that drive employees away from their current roles, pull factors entice employees to stay in those roles (Lee, 1966). Using Kruskal-Wallis, tests were conducted on each factor to determine whether the importance assigned to retention factors (compensation, benefits, overall company, coworker engagement, management, future opportunities, autonomy, WLB, daily commute, and WFH) differed by life stage. Results were not statistically significant for the following factors: compensation, benefits, overall company, coworker engagement, management, future opportunities, autonomy,

and daily commute. However, Kruskal-Wallis tests were statistically significant for autonomy, WLB, and WFH. See Appendix F for test statistics.

Work–Life Balance

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to WLB as a reason for staying differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 10.237$, $p = .037$; $\eta^2 = 0.027$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance could be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a difference between the 18–28 age group ($M = 6.49$, $SD = 3.235$) and the 51–60 age group ($M = 7.875$, $SD = 2.486$), $p = .047$.

Work From Home

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to determine if the importance assigned to WFH as a reason for staying differed by life stage. The results were statistically significant, $H(4) = 11.578$, $p = .021$; $\eta^2 = 0.030$, rejecting the null hypothesis. Although the null hypothesis was rejected, the η^2 indicated that only a small portion of the variance can be attributed to the employee life stage. Because a relationship existed, a pairwise comparison was conducted using Tukey's HSD to identify which age groups showed statistically significant differences from each other. The post hoc test found a difference between the 51–60 age group ($M = 6.80$, $SD = 3.427$) and the 60+ age group ($M = 5.0$, $SD = 3.682$), $p = .033$.

Summary

This chapter reviewed the statistical analyses and findings for both research hypotheses. Descriptive statistics were reported, and hypothesis testing and analysis were then discussed. The purpose of this study was to examine if there were differences in the importance assigned to various push factors of job attrition and pull factors of job retention by life stage. From the general research questions, two hypotheses were presented.

The first hypothesis focused on the relationship between push factors of job attrition and life stage. Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted to determine the importance assigned to push factors statistically significantly differed by life stage. Five of the 10 factors did not show results in statistically significant tests, whereas the other five did. However, with small effect sizes, the practical significance of these findings is somewhat lacking. Nevertheless, because of the statistically significant omnibus tests for these five factors, a pairwise comparison was conducted on each factor to determine which life stages were significantly different from each other.

The second hypothesis looked at the relationship between pull factors of job retention and life stage. Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted to determine if the importance assigned to pull factors were significantly different by life stage. Seven of the 10 factors did not result in statistically significant tests, and the three that achieved statistical significance also had low effect sizes. However, the three factors with statistically significant omnibus tests were followed up with pairwise comparisons on each factor to determine which life stages were significantly different from each another.

The final chapter begins with a reiteration of the study's purpose and nature and a discussion of why the study was conducted. It offers a summary of key findings and an interpretation of those findings. Chapter 5 compares the findings to the literature review in Chapter 2 and confirms this study extends knowledge in the discipline. It concludes with limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Overview

Chapter 5 is a reiteration of the study purpose and nature, a discussion of why it was conducted, and a summary of key findings. An interpretation of the findings and how they confirm and extend knowledge in the discipline by comparing them with the literature review in Chapter 2 is included. These findings are also analyzed and interpreted in the context of the theoretical framework. Lastly, limitations and recommendations for further research are provided.

The purpose of this quasiexperimental quantitative study was to evaluate whether a relationship existed between employee life stages and reasons for employee attrition and employee retention. With attrition rates steadily increasing year over year from 38.7% in 2013 to 47.5% in 2022 (BLS, 2023), employers need to understand what drives attrition and retention and if these reasons differ depending on the employee's life stage. This understanding is key to reducing backfill costs and potentially investing in employees' overall compensation more effectively and efficiently.

Many researchers have studied reasons for employee attrition and retention (Bastos & Barsade, 2020; Bennett et al., 1993; Chang et al., 2013; DeSouza et al., 2017; Disher et al., 2021; Espasandín-Bustelo et al., 2021; Gloor et al., 2018; Haar et al., 2014; Hernandez et al., 2019; Hoffman & Tadelis, 2021; Joy & Radhakrishnan, 2012; Kiran & Khurram, 2018; Krzeminska et al., 2019; Moin & van Nieuwerburgh, 2021; Obenauer, 2019; Rath, 2017; Srivastava & Tiwari, 2020). However, evaluating attrition and retention through a lens of employee life stage was not well represented in the literature.

This study sought to answer two research questions:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between employee job attrition and life stage?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between job retention and employee life stage?

Summary of Findings

In answer to RQ1, the reasons for employee job attrition differed by life stage for five of the 10 factors. In answer to RQ2, the reasons for employee job retention differed by life stage for three of 10 factors. Answers to both RQs are further discussed next.

Reasons for Attrition (Push Factors)

When asked how they rated each factor for attrition and its importance on their decision to voluntarily leave a role, respondents in each life stage answered similarly for five of the 10 factors: compensation (M = 7.49, SD = 2.612), benefits (M = 7.30, SD = 2.698), coworker engagement (M = 6.06, SD = 2.919), management (M = 6.59, SD = 2.798), and daily commute (M = 7.05, SD = 2.785). This indicated that while these factors do play a role in respondents' decision-making, no one in any life stage ranked these factors differently than their counterparts in other life stages.

Each of these factors is considered a hygiene factor in Herzberg's two-factor model of motivation (Herzberg et al., 2017), and organizations should consider them equally when evaluating how employees may react should these factors change negatively. When evaluating the results for the factors that showed statistical significance, differences between life stages offered interesting insights at the factor level and the macro level.

Overall Company (Culture)

The results indicated that participants aged 40–50 years (M = 7.38, SD = 2.398) place a higher level of importance on their companies' culture than the average employee (M = 6.83, SD = 2.687). The most substantial difference was between this age group and their 29–39-year-old coworkers (M = 6.10, SD = 2.784).

Future Opportunities

Participants in the 60+ age group (M = 4.77, SD = 3.402) were the only group to place a lower level of importance on future opportunities as a reason for attrition in comparison to all other age groups: 18–28 (M = 6.53, SD = 3.069), 29–39 (M = 6.43, SD = 2.844), 40–50 (M = 6.85, SD = 2.575), and 51–60 (M = 6.18, SD = 2.983).

Autonomy

When considering autonomy, the 40–50 (M = 7.96, SD = 2.153) and 51–60 (M = 8.03, SD = 2.260) age groups both placed higher levels of importance on this factor than their 18–28 (M = 6.33, SD = 2.772) and 60+ (M = 6.72, SD = 3.320) age group counterparts.

Work–Life Balance

WLB plays a larger role in the decision-making process for the 40–50 (M = 8.04, SD = 2.300) and 51–60 (M = 8.27, SD = 1.973) age groups than all other groups, while the 60+ group (M = 6.72, SD = 3.3210) placed the least emphasis on WLB.

Work From Home

When evaluating WFH, the 51–60 age group (M = 7.15, SD = 3.070) showed a much higher level of importance for this factor than their 60+ (M = 5.03, SD = 3.723) age group counterparts.

Reasons for Retention (Pull Factors)

When asked how they rated each factor for retention and its importance in their decision to stay in a role, participants in each life stage answered similarly for seven of the 10 factors: compensation (M = 7.17, SD = 2.797), benefits (M = 6.91, SD = 2.883), overall company (culture; M = 6.41, SD = 2.879), coworker engagement (M = 6.17, SD = 3.039), management (M = 6.28, SD = 3.021), future opportunity (M = 5.82, SD = 3.157) and daily commute (M = 6.90, SD = 3.057). While each of these factors plays an important role when evaluating retention, none of the life stages were distinct from the others.

Autonomy

Despite a statistically significant omnibus test, there were no statistically significant pairwise comparisons for autonomy. Thus, it must be concluded that there are no meaningful differences between life stage groups. However, the largest difference between groups occurred between participants aged 51–60 (M = 7.73, SD = 2.669) and 29–39 (M = 6.49, SD = 3.287) years.

Work–Life Balance

Like autonomy, WLB is a key retention factor for those aged 51–60 years (M = 7.875, SD = 2.486), while its impact on those 18–29 years of age (M = 6.49, SD = 3.235) is minimal in comparison to the average of all respondents (M = 7.26, SD = 2.846).

Work From Home

While WFH appeared to have little impact on most participants, those in the 51–60 age group (M = 6.80, SD = 3.427) placed the greatest level of importance on it while

those in the 60+ group (M = 5.0, SD = 3.682) placed little value on this factor as a reason to stay in a current role.

Discussion of Findings

Observed differences among life stages regarding the various factors investigated in this study addressed the research questions about potential relationships between factors for attrition and retention and life stage. Yes, there is a relationship between life stage and factors of attrition and retention. But the study findings offered little insight into how different employees respond to these factors during different life stages and if the theoretical frameworks used for this research were further supported. Upon review of the results and the theoretical frameworks on which this study was built, several themes appeared.

Levinson's Model of Life Development Remains Valid

Adults ages 18–28 years are focused on establishing themselves in their careers and creating an identity separate from their family and friends (Levinson, 1979). They are least likely to push back against a lack of autonomy at work, which is probably the result of their need for guidance and leadership from more senior employees and leaders. While they are creating a place for themselves, their 29–39-year-old counterparts have created a structure for their lives and are working on creating and achieving personal and professional goals. During this time, their commitment to work, community, and family increases, and they appear to approach their work like that of their younger colleagues (Levinson, 1979).

While those in their 20s and 30s in the present study remained closer to the average mean, those in their 40s and 50s placed a greater level of importance on factors

for attrition than their older and younger counterparts. This finding aligns with Levinson's model based on where they are in life and where their focus lies. Employees in their 40s spent their 20s and 30s creating the careers and lives they wanted and have begun taking time to evaluate themselves and their careers. With higher responses on factors including company culture, autonomy, and WLB, this group has spent time reflecting on their own systems of morality and whether they are aligned with their company's values or not. Their level of comfort in their career is likely high, and their desire to have the autonomy to make decisions that create the WLB they expect at this point in their career could be the reason for their higher scores for these factors.

Like their 40–50-year-old counterparts, those between the ages 50 and 60 also have heightened expectations for their career and their company (Levinson, 1979). With children likely out of the house, they are creating or needing to create a new balance between home, family, and community since time commitments have changed. Their desire for autonomy and WLB, and their need for flexibility, like WFH, make this group interesting as they work to create their new lifestyle while also ensuring they establish their desired lifestyle for the remainder of their career (Levinson, 1979).

While the earlier groups differed from one another on various factors, one trend became clear when looking at the responses of those participants in the 60+ age group. As Levinson (1979) rightly mentioned, this group may spend time looking back on the legacy they have created. They are spending time creating transition plans for their lives during their retirement years. As a result, they are the least likely to consider future opportunities as a reason to leave and place less value on WLB and WFH than their

younger colleagues. This may be the result of working becoming less of a focus and a stopgap until retirement (Levinson, 1979).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Model of Motivation Aligns With This Research

Much like Herzberg found (Herzberg et al., 2017), hygiene factors appeared to be nonnegotiables for employees in the current study when considering factors for attrition. Of the factors that one may consider hygiene factors using Herzberg's theory, all respondents treated them equally, and no specific group served as an outlier. Of those who showed a relationship, each factor was a motivation and was specifically an empowerment factor. Although Herzberg did not evaluate hygiene and motivation through a lens of life stages, those more likely to consider motivation factors as reasons to consider attrition were in the middle of their careers. They have proven themselves, but they also have enough time left in their careers to consider finding better opportunities they find appealing if they deem their current roles lack motivation factors (Herzberg et al., 2017).

Biblical Implications and Factors for Attrition and Retention

Scripture offers factors for a job that one may consider nonnegotiable. Those covered in scripture include compensation (Lev 19:13; Prov 3:27–28; Rom 4:4; 1 Tim 5:18), relationships with others (Gen 1:27; 1 Sam 16:7; John 8:15; Rom 2:11; Gal.3:28; Acts 10:34), and leadership (Ps 78:72; Prov 11:14; Acts 20:28–30). These principles align with previous theories and are not seen as more or less important based on any specific life stage.

Based on the results of analyzing attrition factors and retention factors by life stage, this study's findings support both Levinson's theory and Herzberg's theory while

also providing new insights into how employees may see these factors differently based on their life stages. This new view of attrition and retention by life stage may also serve as a way forward when evaluating how these factors impact companies overall.

Implications

While this study does not offer a silver bullet solution for employers across the United States to instantly reduce attrition nor recoup the $2.4 trillion spent in 2021 from employee turnover (WORQDRIVE, 2022), it does offer insights on how life stages may impact how employees evaluate factors for attrition and retention. At a micro level, it shows variances in certain employees' responses to specific factors that are seen as more critical at various life stages. It also offers insights into which factors are most impactful to all employees, no matter the life stage, including compensation, benefits, coworker engagement, management, and daily commute.

At a macro level, this study shows employers that employees' needs change with time, and creating a one-size-fits-all approach may result in increased attrition rates. Of the factors that showed the greatest variance by life stage, none are particularly costly. Whether offering a blended work model where WFH is a choice, or ensuring a greater sense of autonomy, none of these factors place an increased strain on the employer. When employers look at these factors and create a more varied model for employees, they may be seen as amenable, less rigid, and more employee focused.

Limitations

A key study assumption was that all participants answered all questions honestly. While attempts were made to use a representative sample of working adults in the United States, this was not likely since the researcher obtained participants only using online

means (LinkedIn and Facebook). This reliance on technology for engagement distribution and data collection likely limited the sample (Fowler, 2009). In addition, while survey questions were confirmed at the individual level, overall validation and reliability were not tested prior to administering the survey. This may have also affected the validity of the results compared to previous studies of a similar type. Since each factor with statistical significance also had small eta-squared effect sizes, replication of this survey should be considered, given the relatively low practical significance.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this study focused on employee life stage, race, gender, or role type were not taken into consideration when evaluating responses. These aspects may offer greater insights in future research. In addition, all factors were looked at individually, and how participants might rank these factors was not evaluated. Doing so may further support Lee's (1966) pull-push theory while also offering greater insights into how much weight each of the factors has. Lastly, broadening the sample pool to include online and offline participation may create a more holistic view of how employees would respond while also capturing a more diverse workforce that is not often found on LinkedIn and other social media channels.

Summary

With unemployment in the United States at a 50-year low (BLS, 2023), the need to attract and retain talent remains key for organizations both large and small. Some may attract talent through short-term means, like sign-on bonuses and other temporary solutions, but the need to evaluate what factors matter most to employees remains critical for all employers if they seek to reduce turnover. This study was conducted to answer

whether a relationship exists between employee job attrition and employee life stage and between employee job retention and employee life stage. This quasiexperimental quantitative study garnered 480 responses. After removing participants who were ineligible or did not complete the survey, data from 386 participants remained.

Results of employing the Kruskal-Wallis H test showed a relationship between five of the 10 attrition factors and employee life stages and three of the 10 retention factors and employee life stages. This study shows that employee life stage does affect the ways in which employees evaluate factors for attrition and retention. If employers want to reduce attrition and backfill costs, truly understanding what drives attrition for their employees is paramount to long-term success.

The study results suggested that employees do not treat all factors equally and that some of these differences can be attributed to their life stages. Using theoretical frameworks by Levinson, Herzberg, and Lee, findings from this study increased the understanding of employee attrition and retention using a lens of the employee life stage. The results show that while life stage may change how employees value some factors, other factors are consistent throughout the employee life cycle. This understanding offers HR professionals and other key leaders insights into ways they can evaluate their employee benefits package and ways of working. Doing so may reduce attrition and unnecessary backfill costs while improving the overall employee experience.

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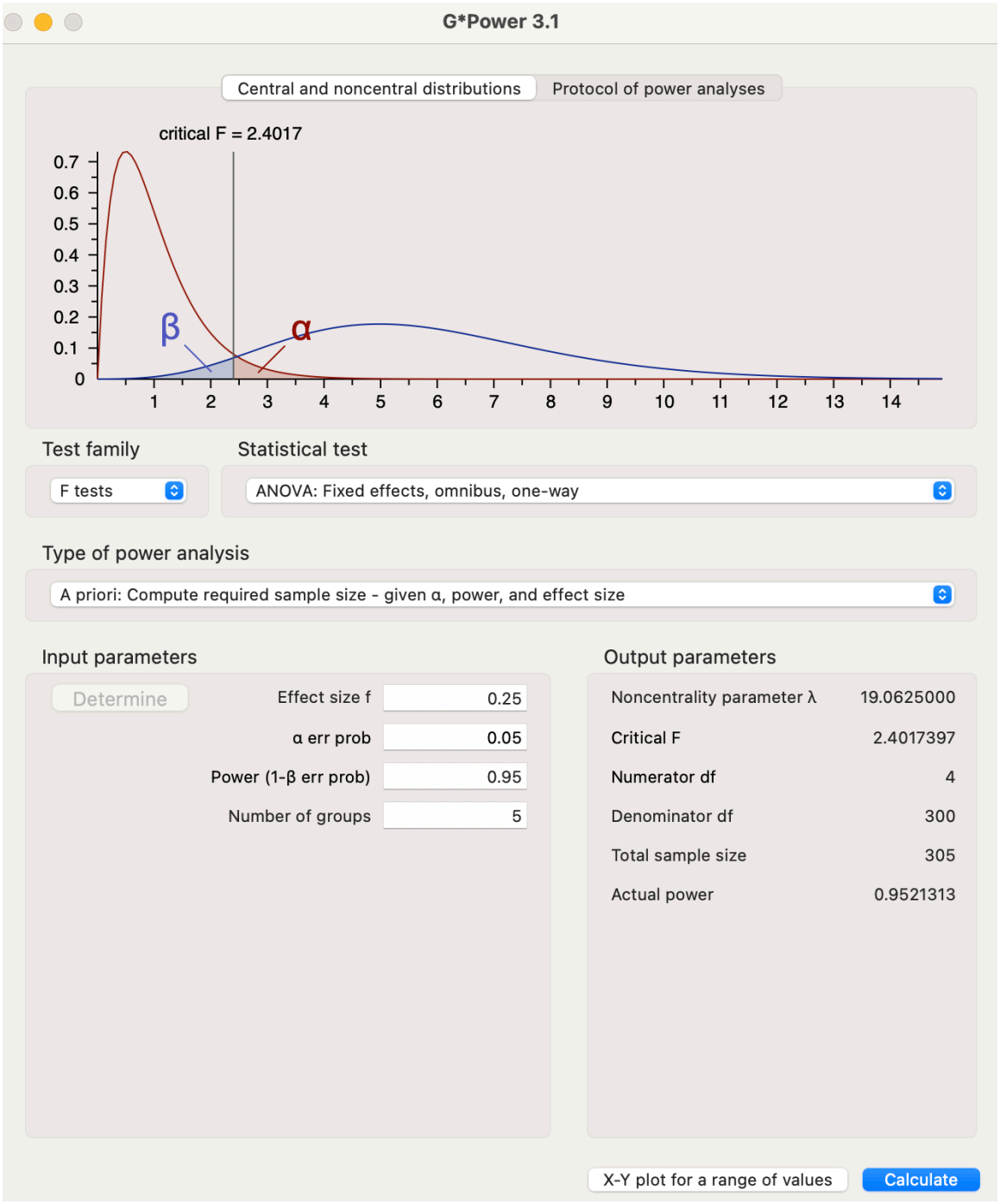
APPENDIX A: STATISTICAL DATA FOR SAMPLE SIZE



APPENDIX B: LINKEDIN POST FOR RECRUITMENT

Josh Whitton, MA, MA. Ed, PhD Candidate (He/Him) • You
Senior Marketing, Strategy, and Operations Executive
3w •

I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Ph.D. in Psychology at Liberty University. The purpose of my research is to evaluate the reasons for employee attrition and employee retention according to life stage. To participate, you must be 18 years of age or older, living in the United States, and a full-time employee. Taking part in this research project is voluntary. Participants will be asked to participate in one (1) online survey consisting of 30 questions, which should take about 10 minutes to complete.

If you would like to participate and meet the study criteria, please click the link provided at the end of this post. A consent document will be provided as the first page of the survey. Please review this page, and if you agree to participate, click the "proceed to survey" button at the end.

To take the survey, click the link. Thank you!

APPENDIX C: SURVEY QUESTIONS

Section One

Please select the response that best answers each question.

1. Are you currently employed in a full-time role?
   a. Yes
   b. No
2. Are you currently living and working in the United States?
   a. Yes
   b. No
3. What is your level of education?
   a. I did not complete high school
   b. I obtained a high school diploma or a GED
   c. I attended college but did not earn a degree
   d. Associate degree
   e. Bachelor's degree
   f. Master's degree
   g. Doctorate
   h. Post-Doc
4. How many years have you been in your current role?
   a. 0–4 years
   b. 5–10 years
   c. 11–14 years
   d. 15–20 years
   e. 21–25 years
   f. 25+ years
5. What is your current career level?
   a. Entry-level
   b. Intermediate
   c. Mid-level
   d. Senior or executive level
6. Are you an individual contributor or a people manager?
   a. Individual contributor
   b. People manager
7. Which best describes your employment type?
   a. Hourly
   b. Salary
8. What is your current age?
   a. Scroll Wheel for ages (18–100)
9. In which sector do you currently work?
   a. Business, consultancy, or management
   b. Accountancy, banking, or finance
   c. Charity and voluntary work
   d. Creative arts or design
   e. Energy and utilities
   f. Engineering or manufacturing

g. Environment or agriculture
h. Healthcare
i. Hospitality or events
j. Computing or IT
k. Law
l. Law enforcement and security
m. Leisure, sport, or tourism
n. Marketing, advertising, or PR
o. Media or digital
p. Property or construction
q. Public services or administration
r. Recruitment or HR
s. Retail
t. Sales
u. Science or pharmaceuticals
v. Social care
w. Teacher training or education
x. Transport or logistics
y. Other

10. What state do you reside in? (scroll of all states in alphabetical order)

Section Two – Reasons to Leave Your Current Role

Although you may be content in your current position if another employer were to contact you regarding a role in their company, how would you rank the following factors for evaluating whether to leave your current role?

On a scale of 0 (zero) to 10 (zero being not important at all and 10 being the most important), please rank the following factors/reasons you might consider leaving your current role. For example, if an employee's daily commute is three hours, she may more highly rank a reduced daily drive time and the ability to work from home while placing less importance on increased compensation.

Please note: Factors are independent of one another, so you can have multiple factors with the same score.

1. Pay is good
2. Fringe Benefits are good (health insurance, sick leave, vacation, PTO, flex time, etc.)
3. The company, considered overall.
4. The personal relationships with your coworkers.
5. The direct supervision you receive.
6. Career opportunities.
7. Freedom to decide how to work (autonomy).
8. The job is good for my lifestyle (work–life balance).
9. My journey to and from work (daily commute).
10. Given that I had access to work from home (telecommute), I would.

Section Three – Reasons to Stay in Your Current Role

While another company may contact you regarding an exciting role within their company, rank the following factors that would prevent you from leaving your current company.

On a scale of 0 (zero) to 10 (zero being not important at all and 10 being the most important), please rank the following factors/reasons to stay in your current role. For example, if an employee would not consider leaving because his current role allows him to work from home, which reduces his daily commute and improves his work–life balance, he may rank each of those as reasons not to even consider leaving.

Please note: Factors are independent of one another, so you can have multiple factors with the same score.

1. Pay is good
2. Fringe Benefits are good (health insurance, sick leave, vacation, PTO, flex time, etc.)
3. The company, considered overall.
4. The personal relationships with your coworkers.
5. The direct supervision you receive.
6. Career opportunities.
7. Freedom to decide how to work (autonomy).
8. The opportunity you have to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home-related duties adequately.
9. My journey to and from work (daily commute).
10. Given that I had access to work from home (telecommute), I would.

Thank you for your time in completing this survey. Please provide an email address in the box below if you want to receive a copy of the results.
EMAIL:

APPENDIX D: SECTORS AND STATES REPRESENTED BY PARTICIPANTS

Table D1

Business Sectors Represented by Participants

Sector	*n*	%
Accountancy, banking, or finance	18	4.7
Business, consultancy, or management	21	5.4
Charity and voluntary work	2	0.5
Computing or IT	25	6.5
Creative arts or design	7	1.8
Energy and utilities	8	2.1
Engineering or manufacturing	16	4.1
Environment or agriculture	4	1.0
Health care	65	16.8
Hospitality or events	6	1.6
Law	8	2.1
Law enforcement and security	2	0.5
Leisure, sport, or tourism	2	0.5
Marketing, advertising, or public relations	11	2.8
Media or digital	6	1.6
Other	47	12.2
Property or construction	6	1.6
Public services or administration	16	4.1
Recruitment or human resources	5	1.3
Retail	25	6.5
Sales	15	3.9
Science or pharmaceuticals	10	2.6
Social care	3	0.8
Teacher training or education	47	12.2
Transport or logistics	11	2.8

Table D2

States Represented by Participants

State	*n*	%
Alabama	9	2.3
Alaska	2	0.5
Arizona	5	1.3
Arkansas	4	1.0
California	78	20.2
Colorado	6	1.6
Connecticut	2	0.5
District of Columbia (DC)	1	0.3
Florida	51	13.2
Georgia	7	1.8
Idaho	2	0.5
Illinois	27	7.0
Indiana	5	1.3
Iowa	3	0.8
Kansas	2	0.5
Kentucky	8	2.1
Louisiana	6	1.6
Maine	2	0.5
Maryland	6	1.6
Massachusetts	6	1.6
Michigan	5	1.3
Minnesota	10	2.6
Mississippi	2	0.5
Missouri	5	1.3
Nebraska	1	0.3
Nevada	2	0.5
New Hampshire	1	0.3
New Jersey	11	2.8
New Mexico	3	0.8
New York	15	3.9
North Carolina	11	2.8
North Dakota	2	0.5
Ohio	12	3.1
Oklahoma	1	0.3
Oregon	2	0.5
Pennsylvania	12	3.1
Rhode Island	1	0.3

State	*n*	%
South Carolina	2	0.5
Tennessee	5	1.3
Texas	19	4.9
Utah	1	0.3
Virginia	9	2.3
Washington	10	2.6
West Virginia	2	0.5
Wisconsin	8	2.1
Wyoming	2	0.5

APPENDIX E: KRUSKAL-WALLIS H TEST AND TUKEY HSD TESTS FOR PUSH FACTORS

Table E1

*Descriptive Statistics for Push Factors (*N = *386)*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Compensation	7.49	2.612	0	10
Benefits	7.30	2.698	0	10
Overall company	6.83	2.687	0	10
Coworker engagement	6.06	2.919	0	10
Management	6.59	2.798	0	10
Future opportunities	6.24	2.992	0	10
Autonomy	7.32	2.774	0	10
Work–life balance	7.75	2.636	0	10
Daily commute	7.05	2.785	0	10
Working from home	6.29	3.592	0	10
Life stage	3.0959	1.24989	1.00	5.00

Table E2

*Mean Ranks for Push Factors (*N = *386)*

Variable	Life stage (in years)	*n*	Mean rank
Compensation	18–28	49	181.62
	29–39	77	194.62
	40–50	108	215.65
	51–60	92	192.22
	60+	60	163.84
	Total	386	
Benefits	18–28	49	168.70
	29–39	77	178.25
	40–50	108	212.81
	51–60	92	202.33
	60+	60	185.03
	Total	386	
Overall company	18–28	49	167.57
	29–39	77	162.27
	40–50	108	215.47
	51–60	92	203.37
	60+	60	200.08
	Total	386	
Coworker engagement	18–28	49	196.94
	29–39	77	191.16
	40–50	108	197.40
	51–60	92	194.60
	60+	60	184.99
	Total	386	
Management	18–28	49	187.00
	29–39	77	178.60
	40–50	108	200.87
	51–60	92	211.30
	60+	60	177.37
	Total	386	

Variable	Life stage (in years)	*n*	Mean rank
Future opportunities	18–28	49	207.09
	29–39	77	197.99
	40–50	108	213.61
	51–60	92	190.24
	60+	60	145.43
	Total	386	
Autonomy	18–28	49	146.71
	29–39	77	186.09
	40–50	108	214.10
	51–60	92	220.98
	60+	60	162.01
	Total	386	
Work–life balance	18–28	49	169.74
	29–39	77	208.01
	40–50	108	201.90
	51–60	92	207.21
	60+	60	158.13
	Total	386	
Daily commute	18–28	49	179.09
	29–39	77	199.20
	40–50	108	200.68
	51–60	92	204.53
	60+	60	168.12
	Total	386	
Work from home	18–28	49	180.12
	29–39	77	195.82
	40–50	108	201.13
	51–60	92	215.23
	60+	60	154.38
	Total	386	

Table E3

Test Statistics for Push Factors

Variable	Kruskal-Wallis H	*df*	Asymp. sig.
Compensation	9.387	4	.052
Benefits	8.238	4	.083
Overall company	14.083	4	.007
Coworker engagement	.578	4	.965
Management	5.710	4	.222
Future opportunities	15.815	4	.003
Autonomy	23.704	4	< .001
Work–life balance	12.084	4	.017
Daily commute	5.603	4	.231
Work from home	12.476	4	.014

Note. Grouping variable: life stage.

Table E4

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variable: Overall Company

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	6.39	2.556	49
29–39	6.10	2.784	77
40–50	7.38	2.398	108
51–60	7.14	2.434	92
60+	6.65	3.267	60
Total	6.83	2.687	386

Table E5

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Overall Company

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	93.665[a]	4	23.416	3.320	.011	.034
Intercept	16144.164	1	16144.164	2289.100	< .001	.857
Life stage	93.665	4	23.416	3.320	.011	.034
Error	2687.050	381	7.053			
Total	20782.000	386				
Corrected total	2780.715	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .034$ (adjusted $R^2 = .024$).

Table E6

Multiple Comparisons for Dependent Variable: Overall Company

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	.28	.485	.977	–1.05	1.61
	40–50	–.99	.457	.194	–2.25	.26
	51–60	–.75	.470	.495	–2.04	.53
	60+	–.26	.511	.986	–1.66	1.14
29–39	18–28	–.28	.485	.977	–1.61	1.05
	40–50	–1.28*	.396	.012	–2.36	–.19
	51–60	–1.04	.410	.086	–2.16	.09
	60+	–.55	.457	.755	–1.80	.71
40–50	18–28	.99	.457	.194	–.26	2.25
	29–39	1.28*	.396	.012	.19	2.36
	51–60	.24	.377	.970	–.79	1.27
	60+	.73	.428	.431	–.44	1.90
51–60	18–28	.75	.470	.495	–.53	2.04
	29–39	1.04	.410	.086	–.09	2.16
	40–50	–.24	.377	.970	–1.27	.79
	60+	.49	.441	.799	–.72	1.70
60+	18–28	.26	.511	.986	–1.14	1.66
	29–39	.55	.457	.755	–.71	1.80
	40–50	–.73	.428	.431	–1.90	.44
	51–60	–.49	.441	.799	–1.70	.72

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 7.053.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table E7

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variable: Future Opportunities

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	6.53	3.069	49
29–39	6.43	2.844	77
40–50	6.85	2.575	108
51–60	6.18	2.983	92
60+	4.77	3.402	60
Total	6.24	2.992	386

Table E8

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Future Opportunities

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	177.826[a]	4	44.456	5.181	< .001	.052
Intercept	13482.283	1	13482.283	1571.216	< .001	.805
Life stage	177.826	4	44.456	5.181	< .001	.052
Error	3269.283	381	8.581			
Total	18494.000	386				
Corrected total	3447.109	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .052$ (adjusted $R^2 = .042$).

Table E9

Multiple Comparisons for Dependent Variable: Future Opportunities

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	*SE*	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	.10	.535	1.000	–1.37	1.57
	40–50	–.32	.505	.969	–1.70	1.06
	51–60	.35	.518	.963	–1.07	1.77
	60+	1.76*	.564	.016	.22	3.31
29–39	18–28	–.10	.535	1.000	–1.57	1.37
	40–50	–.42	.437	.869	–1.62	.77
	51–60	.24	.452	.983	–1.00	1.48
	60+	1.66*	.504	.009	.28	3.04
40–50	18–28	.32	.505	.969	–1.06	1.70
	29–39	.42	.437	.869	–.77	1.62
	51–60	.67	.416	.495	–.47	1.81
	60+	2.09*	.472	< .001	.79	3.38
51–60	18–28	–.35	.518	.963	–1.77	1.07
	29–39	–.24	.452	.983	–1.48	1.00
	40–50	–.67	.416	.495	–1.81	.47
	60+	1.42*	.486	.030	.09	2.75
60+	18–28	–1.76*	.564	.016	–3.31	–.22
	29–39	–1.66*	.504	.009	–3.04	–.28
	40–50	–2.09*	.472	< .001	–3.38	–.79
	51–60	–1.42*	.486	.030	–2.75	–.09

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 8.581.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table E10

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable: Autonomy

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	6.33	2.772	49
29–39	7.03	3.039	77
40–50	7.96	2.153	108
51–60	8.03	2.260	92
60+	6.25	3.482	60
Total	7.32	2.774	386

Table E11

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Autonomy

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	215.078[a]	4	53.770	7.458	< .001	.073
Intercept	18054.010	1	18054.010	2504.281	< .001	.868
Life stage	215.078	4	53.770	7.458	< .001	.073
Error	2746.728	381	7.209			
Total	23637.000	386				
Corrected total	2961.806	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .073$ (adjusted $R^2 = .063$).

Table E12

Multiple Comparisons for Dependent Variable: Autonomy

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.70	.491	.612	–2.04	.65
	40–50	–1.64*	.462	.004	–2.90	–.37
	51–60	–1.71*	.475	.003	–3.01	–.40
	60+	.08	.517	1.000	–1.34	1.49
29–39	18–28	.70	.491	.612	–.65	2.04
	40–50	–.94	.400	.135	–2.03	.16
	51–60	–1.01	.415	.110	–2.14	.13
	60+	.78	.462	.449	–.49	2.04
40–50	18–28	1.64*	.462	.004	.37	2.90
	29–39	.94	.400	.135	–.16	2.03
	51–60	–.07	.381	1.000	–1.11	.97
	60+	1.71*	.432	< .001	.53	2.90
51–60	18–28	1.71*	.475	.003	.40	3.01
	29–39	1.01	.415	.110	–.13	2.14
	40–50	.07	.381	1.000	–.97	1.11
	60+	1.78*	.446	< .001	.56	3.00
60+	18–28	–.08	.517	1.000	–1.49	1.34
	29–39	–.78	.462	.449	–2.04	.49
	40–50	–1.71*	.432	< .001	–2.90	–.53
	51–60	–1.78*	.446	< .001	–3.00	–.56

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 7.209.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table E13

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable: Work–Life Balance

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	7.33	2.649	49
29–39	7.81	2.952	77
40–50	8.04	2.300	108
51–60	8.27	1.973	92
60+	6.72	3.320	60
Total	7.75	2.636	386

Table E14

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Work–Life Balance

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	107.029[a]	4	26.757	3.968	.004	.040
Intercept	20743.064	1	20743.064	3076.222	< .001	.890
Life stage	107.029	4	26.757	3.968	.004	.040
Error	2569.095	381	6.743			
Total	25868.000	386				
Corrected total	2676.124	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .040$ (adjusted $R^2 = .030$).

Table E15

Multiple Comparisons for Dependent Variable: Work–life Balance

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.48	.475	.851	–1.78	.82
	40–50	–.71	.447	.506	–1.94	.52
	51–60	–.95	.459	.241	–2.20	.31
	60+	.61	.500	.740	–.76	1.98
29–39	18–28	.48	.475	.851	–.82	1.78
	40–50	–.23	.387	.975	–1.29	.83
	51–60	–.47	.401	.772	–1.57	.63
	60+	1.09	.447	.108	–.14	2.31
40–50	18–28	.71	.447	.506	–.52	1.94
	29–39	.23	.387	.975	–.83	1.29
	51–60	–.23	.368	.969	–1.24	.78
	60+	1.32*	.418	.015	.17	2.47
51–60	18–28	.95	.459	.241	–.31	2.20
	29–39	.47	.401	.772	–.63	1.57
	40–50	.23	.368	.969	–.78	1.24
	60+	1.56*	.431	.003	.37	2.74
60+ Years	18–28	–.61	.500	.740	–1.98	.76
	29–39	–1.09	.447	.108	–2.31	.14
	40–50	–1.32*	.418	.015	–2.47	–.17
	51–60	–1.56*	.431	.003	–2.74	–.37

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 6.743.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table E16

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable: Work From Home

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	5.86	3.606	49
29–39	6.27	3.666	77
40–50	6.45	3.707	108
51–60	7.15	3.070	92
60+	5.03	3.723	60
Total	6.29	3.592	386

Table E17

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Work From Home

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	175.236[a]	4	43.809	3.483	.008	.035
Intercept	13488.066	1	13488.066	1072.437	< .001	.738
Life stage	175.236	4	43.809	3.483	.008	.035
Error	4791.844	381	12.577			
Total	20227.000	386				
Corrected total	4967.080	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .035$ (adjusted $R^2 = .025$).

Table E18

Multiple Comparisons of Dependent Variable: Work From Home

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.42	.648	.968	–2.19	1.36
	40–50	–.60	.611	.866	–2.27	1.08
	51–60	–1.30	.627	.238	–3.01	.42
	60+	.82	.683	.748	–1.05	2.70
29–39	18–28	.42	.648	.968	–1.36	2.19
	40–50	–.18	.529	.997	–1.63	1.27
	51–60	–.88	.548	.495	–2.38	.62
	60+	1.24	.611	.254	–.43	2.91
40–50	18–28	.60	.611	.866	–1.08	2.27
	29–39	.18	.529	.997	–1.27	1.63
	51–60	–.70	.503	.636	–2.08	.68
	60+	1.42	.571	.096	–.14	2.99
51–60	18–28	1.30	.627	.238	–.42	3.01
	29–39	.88	.548	.495	–.62	2.38
	40–50	.70	.503	.636	–.68	2.08
	60+	2.12*	.588	.003	.51	3.73
60+	18–28	–.82	.683	.748	–2.70	1.05
	29–39	–1.24	.611	.254	–2.91	.43
	40–50	–1.42	.571	.096	–2.99	.14
	51–60	–2.12*	.588	.003	–3.73	–.51

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 12.577

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

APPENDIX F: KRUSKAL-WALLIS H TEST AND TUKEY HSD TESTS FOR PULL FACTORS

Table F1

*Descriptive Statistics for Pull Factors (*N = *386)*

Pull factor	*M*	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Compensation	7.17	2.797	0	10
Benefits	6.91	2.883	0	10
Overall company	6.41	2.879	0	10
Coworkers	6.17	3.039	0	10
Management	6.28	3.021	0	10
Future opportunities	5.82	3.157	0	10
Autonomy	7.06	3.021	0	10
Work–life balance	7.26	2.846	0	10
Daily commute	6.90	3.057	0	10
Work from home	5.91	3.801	0	10
Life stage	3.0959	1.24989	1.00	5.00

Table F2

Mean Ranks for Pull Factors

Variable	Life stage (in years)	*n*	Mean rank
Compensation	18–28	49	182.86
	29–39	77	185.85
	40–50	108	204.24
	51–60	92	194.42
	60+	60	191.27
	Total	386	
Benefits	18–28	49	168.69
	29–39	77	184.23
	40–50	108	206.00
	51–60	92	194.79
	60+	60	201.19
	Total	386	
Overall company	18–28	49	187.71
	29–39	77	170.23
	40–50	108	193.01
	51–60	92	209.16
	60+	60	204.97
	Total	386	
Coworkers	18–28	49	184.90
	29–39	77	184.64
	40–50	108	193.10
	51–60	92	192.10
	60+	60	214.76
	Total	386	
Management	18–28	49	187.80
	29–39	77	172.08
	40–50	108	204.59
	51–60	92	209.73
	60+	60	180.80
	Total	386	

Variable	Life stage (in years)	*n*	Mean rank
Future opportunities	18–28	49	205.06
	29–39	77	190.18
	40–50	108	205.36
	51–60	92	193.09
	60+	60	167.61
	Total	386	
Autonomy	18–28	49	161.61
	29–39	77	176.32
	40–50	108	210.59
	51–60	92	217.86
	60+	60	173.48
	Total	386	
Work–life balance	18–28	49	166.32
	29–39	77	186.31
	40–50	108	202.37
	51–60	92	216.84
	60+	60	173.18
	Total	386	
Daily commute	18–28	49	167.17
	29–39	77	193.82
	40–50	108	199.06
	51–60	92	210.85
	60+	60	177.98
	Total	386	
Work from home	18–28	49	169.86
	29–39	77	194.47
	40–50	108	199.43
	51–60	92	217.90
	60+	60	163.48
	Total	386	

Table F3

Test Statistics for Pull Factors

Variable	Kruskal-Wallis H	*df*	Asymp. sig.
Compensation	1.887	4	.756
Benefits	4.715	4	.318
Overall company	6.024	4	.197
Coworker engagement	3.012	4	.556
Management	6.856	4	.144
Future opportunities	5.105	4	.277
Autonomy	15.082	4	.005
Work–life balance	10.237	4	.037
Daily commute	6.536	4	.163
Work from home	11.578	4	.021

Note. Grouping variable: life stage.

Table F4

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variable: Autonomy

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	6.35	3.025	49
29–39	6.49	3.287	77
40–50	7.54	2.776	108
51–60	7.73	2.669	92
60+	6.50	3.312	60
Total	7.06	3.021	386

Table F5

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Autonomy

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	134.101[a]	4	33.525	3.779	.005	.038
Intercept	17061.491	1	17061.491	1922.972	< .001	.835
Life stage	134.101	4	33.525	3.779	.005	.038
Error	3380.407	381	8.872			
Total	22766.000	386				
Corrected total	3514.508	385				

Note. [a]R^2 = .038 (adjusted R^2 = .028).

Table F6

Multiple Comparisons of Dependent Variable: Autonomy

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.15	.544	.999	–1.64	1.35
	40–50	–1.19	.513	.141	–2.60	.22
	51–60	–1.38	.527	.068	–2.83	.06
	60+	–.15	.574	.999	–1.73	1.42
29–39	18–28	.15	.544	.999	–1.35	1.64
	40–50	–1.04	.444	.132	–2.26	.17
	51–60	–1.23	.460	.058	–2.50	.03
	60+	–.01	.513	1.000	–1.41	1.40
40–50	18–28	1.19	.513	.141	–.22	2.60
	29–39	1.04	.444	.132	–.17	2.26
	51–60	–.19	.423	.991	–1.35	.97
	60+	1.04	.480	.196	–.28	2.35
51–60	18–28	1.38	.527	.068	–.06	2.83
	29–39	1.23	.460	.058	–.03	2.50
	40–50	.19	.423	.991	–.97	1.35
	60+	1.23	.494	.096	–.13	2.58
60+	18–28	.15	.574	.999	–1.42	1.73
	29–39	.01	.513	1.000	–1.40	1.41
	40–50	–1.04	.480	.196	–2.35	.28
	51–60	–1.23	.494	.096	–2.58	.13

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 8.872.

Table F7

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variable: Work–Life Balance

Life stage (in years)	*M*	*SD*	*n*
18–28	6.49	3.235	49
29–39	6.95	3.099	77
40–50	7.53	2.681	108
51–60	7.87	2.486	92
60+	6.88	2.817	60
Total	7.26	2.846	386

Table F8

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Work–Life Balance

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	87.001[a]	4	21.750	2.734	.029	.028
Intercept	18176.390	1	18176.390	2284.361	< .001	.857
Life stage	87.001	4	21.750	2.734	.029	.028
Error	3031.572	381	7.957			
Total	23473.000	386				
Corrected total	3118.573	385				

Note. [a]R^2 = .028 (adjusted R^2 = .018).

Table F9

Multiple Comparisons of Dependent Variable: Work–Life Balance

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.46	.515	.901	–1.87	.95
	40–50	–1.04	.486	.207	–2.37	.29
	51–60	–1.38*	.499	.047	–2.75	–.01
	60+	–.39	.543	.951	–1.88	1.10
29–39	18–28	.46	.515	.901	–.95	1.87
	40–50	–.58	.421	.642	–1.73	.57
	51–60	–.92	.436	.216	–2.12	.27
	60+	.06	.486	1.000	–1.27	1.40
40–50	18–28	1.04	.486	.207	–.29	2.37
	29–39	.58	.421	.642	–.57	1.73
	51–60	–.34	.400	.913	–1.44	.76
	60+	.64	.454	.616	–.60	1.89
51–60	18–28	1.38*	.499	.047	.01	2.75
	29–39	.92	.436	.216	–.27	2.12
	40–50	.34	.400	.913	–.76	1.44
	60+	.99	.468	.219	–.30	2.27
60+	18–28	.39	.543	.951	–1.10	1.88
	29–39	–.06	.486	1.000	–1.40	1.27
	40–50	–.64	.454	.616	–1.89	.60
	51–60	–.99	.468	.219	–2.27	.30

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 7.957.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table F10

Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variable: Work From Home

Life stage (in years)	*M*	Std. deviation	*n*
18–28	5.08	3.791	49
29–39	5.87	3.850	77
40–50	6.06	4.008	108
51–60	6.80	3.427	92
60+	5.00	3.682	60
Total	5.91	3.801	386

Table F11

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for Dependent Variable: Work From Home

Source	Type III sum of squares	*df*	Mean square	*F*	Sig.	Partial η^2
Corrected model	159.606[a]	4	39.901	2.813	.025	.029
Intercept	11834.133	1	11834.133	834.439	< .001	.687
Life stage	159.606	4	39.901	2.813	.025	.029
Error	5403.399	381	14.182			
Total	19054.000	386				
Corrected total	5563.005	385				

Note. [a]$R^2 = .029$ (adjusted $R^2 = .018$).

Table F12

Multiple Comparisons of Dependent Variable: Work From Home

(I) Life stage (in years)	(J) Life stage (in years)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.	95% CI	
					LL	UL
18–28	29–39	–.79	.688	.782	–2.67	1.10
	40–50	–.98	.649	.553	–2.76	.79
	51–60	–1.72	.666	.075	–3.55	.10
	60+	.08	.725	1.000	–1.91	2.07
29–39	18–28	.79	.688	.782	–1.10	2.67
	40–50	–.19	.562	.997	–1.73	1.34
	51–60	–.93	.582	.494	–2.53	.66
	60+	.87	.649	.665	–.91	2.65
40–50	18–28	.98	.649	.553	–.79	2.76
	29–39	.19	.562	.997	–1.34	1.73
	51–60	–.74	.534	.638	–2.20	.72
	60+	1.06	.606	.401	–.60	2.73
51–60	18–28	1.72	.666	.075	–.10	3.55
	29–39	.93	.582	.494	–.66	2.53
	40–50	.74	.534	.638	–.72	2.20
	60+	1.80*	.625	.033	.09	3.52
60+	18–28	–.08	.725	1.000	–2.07	1.91
	29–39	–.87	.649	.665	–2.65	.91
	40–50	–1.06	.606	.401	–2.73	.60
	51–60	–1.80*	.625	.033	–3.52	–.09

Note. Based on observed means. The error term is mean square (error) = 14.182.

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.