

Five Generations and Only One Workforce

How Successful Businesses Are Managing a Multigenerational Workforce



Information Resources Management Association



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Five Generations and Only One Workforce:

How Successful Businesses Are Managing a Multigenerational Workforce

Information Resources Management Association
USA

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MISSION

Every day all over the world, researchers are making groundbreaking discoveries that address current challenges and solve complex problems across a variety of fields. Due to advancements in technology, changes in demographics, adjustments to societal norms, the development of political and economic structures, and more, new theories, methods, strategies, techniques, and applications are constantly being established in response to both existing and evolving issues.

Based on the success of IGI Global's latest Trending Topics Campaign, which provides news snippets and trending research breakthroughs relevant to IGI Global content, IGI Global has launched this new book series, titled the **Trending Topics Book Series**, which offers small anthologies of reprinted IGI Global book chapters and journal articles hand-selected by IGI Global's Executive Editorial Board on topics currently trending and stirring up discussion and/or controversy.

Spanning across topics such as the multigenerational workforce, legislation for sustainability, emotional branding, privacy on mobile devices, robotics in healthcare, and bio-based product development, this book series aims to provide researchers, academicians, professionals, and students with the most up-to-date studies in order to advance knowledge across all industries.

COVERAGE

- Bio-Based Product Development
- Inclusive Learning
- Aging Workforce
- Emotional Branding
- Library Budget Challenges
- Millennials
- Eco-Cities
- Business Sustainability
- Plan S and Open Access Movements
- Privacy on Mobile Devices

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Preface

As the retirement age increases and professionals choose or are forced to work into an advanced age, companies are challenged to manage and engage a workforce that can include as many as five generations: Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Generation X, Millennials or Generation Y, and Generation Z. Modern businesses must now have the ability to attract and hire Millennial and Generation Z workers in order to ensure their longevity, while also retaining their older workers and the organizational knowledge they contribute in order to maintain efficiency and ultimately stay successful in a competitive economy. This leads to complications when attempting to meet the needs and wants of generations that have very different motivations, skillsets, communication styles, and career expectations.

The resultant diversity of employees in the workspace can also create challenges to employers as issues of discrimination, including ageism, can arise. Creating and maintaining a comfortable environment for workers of all ages, educational levels, genders, etc. is imperative for developing an effective workforce. By encouraging tolerance and positivity, while also recognizing the unique skills that diverse workers can contribute, managers can improve teamwork, creativity, and the overall work performance of their staff.

In response to the need for advanced research that can address these current issues and offer innovative solutions, IGI Global is pleased to offer this comprehensive reference of reprinted IGI Global book chapters and journal articles that have been hand-picked by our senior editorial staff on this topic that is currently trending and stirring up discussion and controversy within the field of business. The following book aims to equip managers, executives, human resources professionals, business practitioners, and industry professionals with the ability to hire, manage, and retain a multigenerational workforce that will allow their business to thrive, and will empower academicians and researchers with a better understanding of modern workforce challenges.

Based on the success of IGI Global's latest Trending Topics Campaign, which provides news snippets and trending research breakthroughs relevant to IGI Global content, this compilation intends to address the main concerns in the workforce today including training initiatives for older employees who are reentering the workplace and younger employees who are entering a professional work environment for the first time. Readers will come to understand best managerial practices for supervising and effectively utilizing skillsets specific to workers of each generation while promoting positive collaboration amongst employees of all ages.

The following book is designed to act as a single reference source on conceptual, methodological, and technical aspects, and will provide insight into emerging topics including but not limited to youth employment, senior workers, aging workforce, employee engagement, ageism, and workplace diversity. The chapters within this publication are sure to provide readers with the tools necessary for further research and discovery in their respective industries and/or fields.

Five Generations and Only One Workforce: How Successful Businesses Are Managing a Multigenerational Workforce is organized into five sections that provide comprehensive coverage of important topics. The sections are:

1. Ageism and Discrimination
2. Aging Workforce
3. Managing Generational Dynamics
4. Millennial Workers
5. Youth Employment

The following paragraphs provide a summary of what to expect from this invaluable reference source:

Section 1, "Ageism and Discrimination," opens this extensive reference source by addressing the latest challenges organizations must overcome when managing a diverse workforce, including discriminatory views on the ages of workers. The first chapter in this section, "Workplace Discrimination: The Most Critical Issue in Managing Diversity," authored by Profs. Shikha Sharma and Nimarta Mann from Punjabi University, India, highlights discriminatory behavior at work and suggests steps that need to be undertaken to remove discrimination from the workplace setting. The second and final chapter in this section, "Women, Ageism, and Sexism: Changing Paradigms," by Prof. Sumita Parmar from Radboud University, The Netherlands, takes a look at the changing demographics of the world and examines how the needs of an aging population make it imperative for governments to factor old-age policies and programs in national planning.

Preface

Section 2, “Aging Workforce,” offers chapters that discuss training and education initiatives for older workers who are still employed or who may have re-entered the workforce, in order to provide them with the skills needed to remain knowledgeable and efficient in a rapidly changing workspace. The first chapter in this section, “Analyzing the Influential Factors of Older Worker’s Job Training Participation,” by Profs. Sung-Eun Cho and Young-Min Lee from Sookmyung Women’s University, Seoul, South Korea, explores determinants of middle-aged workers’ participation in job training and provides implications to vitalizing middle-aged workers’ participation in job training. The second and final chapter in this section, “Baby Boomers and Online Learning: Exploring Experiences in the Higher Education Landscape,” written by Profs. Malaika T. Edwards and Petra A. Robinson of Louisiana State University, USA, examines appropriate learning strategies for baby boomers who are seeking higher education to equip themselves with the skills needed to remain competitive in the workplace.

Section 3, “Managing Generational Dynamics,” presents coverage on strategies that companies can utilize to promote positive communication, engagement, and motivation across all generations present in the workforce. The first chapter in this section, “Effective Management of Generational Dynamics in the Workplace,” by Profs. Sandra G. Bowman and Sean W. Mulvenon from the University of Arkansas, USA, discusses the need for companies to embrace changes that actively demonstrate respect and inclusion for all generations in order to create a more productive work environment. In the second chapter of this section, “Communicating Across the Generations: Implications for Higher Education Leadership,” authored by Prof. Carolyn N. Stevenson of Kaplan University, USA, emphasizes understanding common characteristics of each generational group in order to develop a strategy for motivating all employees and students in higher education. The third chapter, “Would You Accept a Facebook Friend Request From Your Boss? Examining Generational Differences,” by Profs. Katherine A. Karl, Richard S. Allen, and Charles S. White from the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, USA; Prof. Joy Van Eck Peluchette from School of Business, Lindenwood University, USA; and Prof. Douglas E. Allen from Bucknell University, USA, offers a comprehensive study on generational differences in self-disclosure, communication preferences, and the integration of personal and professional contacts on social media. Authored by Profs. Kate Magsamen-Conrad, Jeanette M. Dillon, Lisa K. Hanasono, and Paul Anthony Valdez of Bowling Green State University, USA, the fourth chapter in this section, “Developing an Intergroup Communication Intervention Curriculum: Enhancing Workforce Skills Across Generations,” uses technology pedagogy to bridge the divide between generations and provides needed technology skills training to older adults in a community setting to improve intergroup relationships, foster positive civic attitudes and skills, and reduce ageist attitudes of younger adults. In the final

chapter of this section, “Towards a Reference Framework for Generational Analyses on Information Technology Professionals,” by Prof. Pedro Jácome de Moura Jr. of UFPB, João Pessoa, Brazil and Prof. Diogo Henrique Helal of FUNDAJ-MEC, Recife, Brazil propose a framework that supports research on intergenerational dynamics in the field of information technology (IT) and contemplates dimensions related to technological contemporary changes, culture bearers, knowledge transmission and sharing, and intergenerational conflict.

Section 4, “Millennial Workers,” offers an in-depth look at one of the most widely-studied generations and examines how their career expectations and skillsets can be effectively managed and integrated into the workplace. Authored by Prof. Meng-Shan Tsai from Clouder Technology Inc., Taiwan, the first chapter in this section, “The Important Issues for Millennial Workers,” allows readers to understand the important issues facing Millennials and their behavior in the workplace including communication skills and style and how Millennials view conflict and conflict management. The second chapter in this section, “Millennial Leadership Model,” by Prof. Heather M. W. Petrelli of the University of South Florida, USA, offers a model for Millennial leadership that outlines clear expectations, open and respectful communication, consistent feedback, flexibility, involved decision making, and provided opportunities for growth. In the third chapter of this section, “Challenge of Millennials in Project Management: Insights on Attitudes and Perceptions of Generation Y in Software Development Projects,” written by Prof. Nihan Yıldırım of Istanbul Technical University, Turkey and Prof. Yeliz Korkmaz from Bahçeşehir University, Istanbul, Turkey, an understanding of the expectations and attitudes of Generation Y employees are examined from a project management perspective in order to develop solutions and tools for improving the motivation and effectiveness of Generation Y workers. The final chapter of this section, “Millennial Teamwork and Technical Proficiency’s Impact on Virtual Team Effectiveness: Implications for Business Educators and Leaders,” authored by Profs. C. Matt Graham, Harold Daniel, and Brian Doore of the University of Maine, USA, studies Millennial students tasked with developing a database management system within a virtual environment and finds that training students and workers on how to communicate, collaborate, exchange ideas, and share information better within virtual environments will improve virtual team effectiveness, which should translate into greater virtual teams project outcomes.

Section 5, “Youth Employment,” takes a critical look at the issue of youth unemployment throughout developed and developing economies and strategizes methods to effectively integrate younger employees into the current workforce. The first chapter in this section, “Youth Employment,” by Prof. Şenol Öztürk from Kırklareli University, Turkey, examines policies implemented around the world to help combat and solve the issues of youth unemployment. The second and final chapter in

Preface

this section, “Technology Adoption for Addressing Precarious Youth Employment Issue,” authored by Prof. Azizul Hassan from Cardiff Metropolitan University, Bangladesh, outlines the role of information and communication technology (ICT) as a latent option to minimize issues generated from precarious youth employment.

Although the primary organization of the contents in this work is based on its five sections, offering a progression of coverage of the important concepts, methodologies, technologies, applications, social issues, and emerging trends, the reader can also identify specific contents by utilizing the extensive indexing system listed at the end.

Section 1

Ageism and Discrimination

Chapter 1

Workplace Discrimination: The Most Critical Issue in Managing Diversity

Shikha Sharma

Punjabi University, India

Nimarta Mann

Punjabi University, India

ABSTRACT

Diverse workforce is now a global phenomenon. The quality of interaction between people of diversified cultures in the organization has significant association with the marketing, managing, as well as human resource functions. The majority organizations are indulging in diversity management programmes so that they can benefit from the varied skills. But discriminatory behaviour against people of different backgrounds than majorities in the workplace act as a hindrance in taking full advantage of workplace diversity. This chapter reveals different forms in which discrimination can arise in a discrimination-free environment. The organizational as well as individual factors that cause discrimination at the workplace are discussed. The aftereffects that are related to discriminatory behavior at work, which render both employees as well as organization at disadvantage, are also highlighted. The chapter will help by highlighting the issue faced by thousands of employees every year and suggesting steps that need to be undertaken to remove discrimination from the workplace settings.

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INTRODUCTION

With rise in globalization, organizations are becoming more multifarious. Interaction between organizations as well as individuals of different cultural backgrounds is also increasing at a fast pace, which has led to opening of broad employment opportunities throughout the globe. Employers are interested in hiring employees of diverse backgrounds to take advantage of different kind of skills, technical knowledge and experiences. Having diverse workforce is advantageous for both employees as well as organizations as it augments opportunities for new markets, employment, innovation, and organization's image (Esty et al. 1995). A variety of intelligence, expertise and characteristics are required by organizations in order to achieve success. Diverse employee pool assures that an organization has extensive mixture of knowledge and expertise at workplace which takes them on verge over others.

With the various benefits involved there also arise some negative aspects that are related to the effective management of diverse workforce. Organizations dedicated to diversified manpower wish to build an atmosphere where everyone, irrespective of their demographic, social, cultural, economic or any other differences in their background, does their best for the organization. Workplace diversity actually means building an environment where all members of organization can work collectively and with harmony regardless of their disparities. Effective management of diverse workforce involves making most out of the different and unique talents but certain barriers act as hindrance in this.

One of the most critical issues which are prevalent in this respect is of Workplace Discrimination. Workplace discrimination denotes to differential treatment while recruiting, assigning job positions, evaluations and payments. Several types of harassments also come under workplace discrimination (Devah, 2009). It involves treating persons differently mostly because of their gender, age, race or physical appearance. For example if there is a situation where a female candidate is offered a lower salary package than a male candidate for the same job responsibilities, or a candidate is denied employment due to age, then in both cases female candidate as well as aged candidate are victims of workplace discrimination.

Merely having the knowledge of what workplace discrimination means cannot help any organization in getting rid of it until and unless the reason for its origination in the work settings is identified. By having knowledge of the major reasons that lead to creation of a work environment that is not supportive of diversity helps organizations to take preventive measures.

Workplace discrimination can be anticipated at different levels of employment decisions, such as, hiring, compensation, Promotions, Fringe benefits, authority allocation, trainings, etc. On the whole, it precipitates and intensifies in equal treatment at workplace.

Workplace Discrimination

Workplace discrimination leads to various negative effects on employee as well as organization as a whole. Victims of discrimination may reduce their efforts at workplace which may further lead to reduction in productivity of organization, it can also cause various psychological and health related problems in employees.

To effectively manage a diverse workforce one should be aware of the challenges involved. Knowledge of the concept of workplace discrimination, its various types, factors that give rise to such discrimination and its consequences proves to be of great support for those who are involved in managing diverse workforce.

CHALLENGES TO WORKPLACE DIVERSITY

Workplace diversity involves people of multifarious characteristics working collectively in an organization. In current scenario, organizations are hiring people of diverse backgrounds to take advantage of different skills to become more and more successful. It seems very easy to employ diverse workforce at same organization and put them at work in same departments but it includes people of different gender, age, qualifications, nationality, religious beliefs, etc. Diversity implicates one's beliefs about themselves as well as others in the organization that in turn influences their day to day behaviour with each other.

To make most of the skills of such a diverse workforce every organization is required to take efficient human resource management functions. The competent Human resource functions need to tackle various issues that confront with diverse workforce such as communication problems and compliancy.

The advancements and of an organization is to a very extent related to its competency in managing its diverse workforce effectively and deriving full benefits from it. Effective Management of diverse workforce involves organizations ability to promptly address the challenges of workforce diversity and successful development and implementation of plans and policies to tackle the issues.

Successful implementation of diversity programs leads to various benefits for the organization but there exist many threats that act as hindrance. One of these challenges is of Workplace Discrimination which adversely affects well being of employees as well as organizations.

Discrimination at Workplace

Invalidating or restricting the right of equal opportunity or employment by differentiating or excluding any person on the basis of gender, race, religion or nationality is termed as workplace discrimination. (ILO Convention No.111,1958)

Discrimination means any unfavourable conduct or intention to treat any person unfavourably due to any particular characteristic. Discrimination at workplace is the most intricate and complicated issue in present time. It is very tough to recognize and differentiate the root cause of this obstacle in managing diverse workforce.

Workplace discrimination includes sheer misconduct on the job mixed up with various hidden forms of behaviours having more powerful impact. The most contiguous forms of workplace discrimination include disparate treatment at pre- and post-employment stages.

- **Pre-Employment Discrimination:** Discrimination at the stage of pre-employment means differential treatment with members of minority groups during process of recruitment and selection.
- **Post-Employment Discrimination:** Discrimination at the post-employment stage refers to discrimination while placing members of minority groups on job, allocating responsibilities, setting of wages and compensation, providing career advancement opportunities as well as daily interactions during work.

Discrimination also exists in the form of biased policies, structure, practices and systems of organizations that render minorities to disadvantage.

When various factors interact in a complicated diverse organizational system, discrimination arises as an issue which is faced by the minorities by not even noticing its existence. These hidden biases lead to major problems of race, sex, age, etc. based discrimination at the workplace. It has detrimental effects on the well being of the victims of discrimination.

Targets of workplace discrimination mostly are females, disabled people, aged people and homosexuals who are treated less favourably in comparison to males, heterosexuals, physically and mentally fit and younger people. When an employee is treated unfavorably on the basis of a social group, gender or race to which that employee belongs ignoring his/her individual talent then that employee is said to be victim of workplace discrimination. Perceiving an employee as less capable of performing tasks due to certain disability, gender or age is considered illegal on the part of employer. Furthermore an organization cannot deny employment to a person because of their association with a person of particular ethnicity, race or religion. Harassment of an employee also comes under workplace discrimination.

The most evident form of workplace discrimination is racial and ethnicity based, but recently other forms of discrimination have also gained strong attention. Various bases on which employees are discriminated before and after employment include:-

Workplace Discrimination

- **Disability:** Disability discrimination implies discriminating physically challenged people by not recruiting them, not providing suitable support mechanisms at work or paying them less as compared to others. Disable people are put to face financial deprivation due to such disparate treatment.
- **Age:** With the heightened trend of retrenchment and reconstitution of workforce as well as more stress on younger generation in current recession period the workers of older age are facing more discrimination at the workplace.
- **Gender:** Despite the extensive growth made by women in their financial status, there still exist situations that render female employees at disadvantage in the workplace. Jobs are segregated on the basis of gender, women are underpaid as compared to male counterparts and they are given less opportunities for advancement and rarely promoted to the top positions.
- **Sexual Orientation:** Discriminating on the basis of sexual orientation of a person may probably be the least cited area among all other categories that form basis for workplace discrimination still it is evident from various studies that homosexuals face disparate treatment in getting job as well as income.

While framing company policies and practices it is the responsibility of employers to maintain uniformity despite of the differences in gender, religion, age or ethnicity of employees. For example:- A policy of short hair of all employees in an organization may not be considered discriminatory if it is requirement of job in spite of being unacceptable by people of certain religion.

The wider universal meaning of discrimination is to make distinction. Still, it is considered by majority people as derogatory or negative word as it usually involves associating unfair perceptions to disparities among people that give rise to differential actions against them. These kinds of discriminatory behaviour in an organization cause heartbreak and distress. Workplace discrimination is therefore a communal integrity concern where one solution is advised to be juridical control. Discrimination takes place when a person faces differential treatment because of a personal attribute, whether it is not visibly unfavourable treatment.

Discrimination is dealing with someone in a different manner as compared to others. It takes place in situations where an employer behaves less favourably with one worker as compared to others at work without considering their worth. For example: - If a female employee gets lesser amount for similar work done by her male counterpart, then she is victim of workplace discrimination due to her gender. In another example if an older worker is left out for new technology trainings then he is victim of workplace discrimination due to his age.

Following studies show the prevalence of workplace discrimination in organizations in different countries despite of increase in need for diverse workforce on a global pace.

Upadhyay et al. (2005) studied the issues related to gender discrimination in Indian IT industry and found significant differences between male and female with regard to career advancement opportunities. Women were provided jobs at low positions with lower pay and limited growth opportunities.

Bendick et al. (2010) empirically examined the role of employer in employment discrimination on the basis of race/ethnicity in prosperous restaurants of New York City. Matched Pair Testing was used to test employers' unbiased acknowledgements to demographic features of employees. For conducting test, 37 employees and college students were recruited as testers. The testers performed 138 tests in Manhattan during the period of January 2006 and June 2007 out of which 43 tests were completed. Various forms of biasness in hiring practices of employer were found as coloured applicants were more rejected while recruiting as compared to white applicants despite of similar education and experience. In many cases coloured applicants were not allowed to apply, were not offered job interview and were asked suspecting questions. Even post hiring discrimination was found as coloured employees were offered lower pay and positions as compared to their white counterparts at work which leads to lower quality of work for them. It was found that 39% of tested restaurants were biased in their hiring practices. Post hiring discrimination was not tested and even biasness on the basis of gender and age were not tested as pairs were different only in terms of race or ethnicity.

Brauer et al. (2011) analysed the role of changing persons' perceptions about their dissimilarity with members of other ethnicity on level of discrimination. Experimental study was made on undergraduate students of psychology from Clermonte University, France. It was concluded that if perceptions about similarity with other groups is increased then it further reduces the level of prejudice and discrimination.

Cavico et al. (2013) inquired the issue of inequality faced by employees who perceive themselves as less attractive. They investigated the legal, ethical and practical aspects of the problem of existence of discrimination based on physical appearance at the time of hiring and at workplace. With a view to understand the legal aspects all the federal, state and civil laws related to employment and found that it was not illegal to discriminate on the basis of looks at workplace and it was also not safeguarded by any law. For studying whether it is justified to discriminate against someone on the basis of his/her physical appearance four approaches to ethics related to egoism, relativism, utilitarianism and Kantian were studied and was found that it was not unethical to discriminate on the basis of physicality. Practicality was studied from the point of view of stakeholders, customers, workers and managers.

Workplace Discrimination

After doing all scrutiny outcome of the study was that discrimination on the basis of how a person looks is legal and moral but it turns illegal if it is related to any other form of discrimination which is secured by employment law.

Parrey et al. (2013) critically investigated secondary data from Census 2001 about ratio of working male versus working female in major districts of Jammu & Kashmir. It was found that ratio of working women was lower than working men and major factor contributing to this difference was discrimination at workplaces on the basis of gender of employee. Women willingly worked more than required by their job specifications yet their contributions were given less consideration than their male colleagues. Such unindemnified work lead to lower female to male ratio which ultimately reduce productivity of organisations.

Musilova et al. (2014) observed the presence of age related discrimination in the constitution of Czech Republic in relation to Corporate Social Responsibility of organisations. Secondary sources such as investigation reports of adjudicator and verdicts of Czech courts were analysed for the study. Maximum numbers of cases of age discrimination were found in the advertisement of vacancy by the organisations. Older people were treated unequally while hiring and while at the job. There was also lack of proper policies to gain knowledge from ageing workforce. Main reason of presence of such kind of biasness was social perceptions about low competency level and learning skills of aged workforce. Equal and justified treatment with employees of all age comes under corporate social responsibility of every organisation failing which leads to lower performance of the company.

Discrimination can arise at any point in the work setting. Some of the areas in which employees face disparate treatment at workplace are as follows:

- Denial of employment opportunity.
- Discharging or Reducing shifts at work.
- Withholding training and career advancement opportunities.
- Getting less amount paid compared to others with equal qualifications and experience for the same work done.
- Deliberate withholding of required knowledge for performing job.
- Given unrealistic goals to achieve.
- Getting jokes or slurs directed due to personal characteristic.

Employers are liable to protect employees at all levels of employment, such as:

- **Recruitment:** While job advertisements and conducting interviews it must be taken care of that someone is not put to disadvantage and everyone gets equal opportunity to apply Terms and conditions of employment should not be biased. Everyone should get equal chance of getting trained for up gradation

of their skills. Promotions should not be biased due to prejudiced behaviour. While transferring employees on other job or area disparate treatment should not be done. Performance appraisals should be based on performance and not on personal characteristic. Nobody should be restrained from employment benefits. No one should be demoted or dismissed unfairly. When someone is being subjected to improper jokes, slurs or taunts on the basis of their personal characteristics or because of their association with particular social group.

- **Salary & Wages:** Salary & Wages should be assigned on the basis of job responsibilities carried out by individuals and there should not be any discrimination. For example, paying less wages to women for same work done by male employee.
- **Interview:** Asking questions related to personal life, children, health conditions, age, religion and rejecting a person on the basis of their answers on above mentioned questions neglecting their qualifications and experience is also considered as discriminatory behavior prior to recruitment.
- **Dismissal:** When a female is dismissed from the job on getting pregnant she is victim of workplace discrimination even if someone is dismissed because of their religious beliefs or any other personal characteristic they are victims of workplace discrimination.

ANTECEDENTS OF WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION

Nowadays, organizations recruit from diverse areas due to increase in globalization. We can easily see a mixture of employees of different ages, ethnicity, nationalities and gender. In such a diversified workforce when people of different backgrounds come together its bit natural for them to have different point of views different interest areas and different standards of living. There exist various factors that give rise to discriminatory behaviours at the workplace. Some of these causes are due to difference in individual characteristics. For example: - A male manager may favour male subordinates which lead to discrimination against females. Factors that lead to occurrence of workplace discrimination are not limited to individual factors but also include various causes present at the Organizational level. Discriminatory policies and procedures inherited in the organization structure also leads to discrimination against certain individuals. Following are some Individual and Organizational level antecedents that lead to Workplace Discrimination.

Individual Level

- **Stereotypes:** Stereotypes are denoted to “a set of attributes ascribed to a group and imputed to its individual members simply because they belong to that group” (Heilman 1983). It generally includes improper and unfavourable inferences about any group and its members. Stereotypes impose negative effects on career advancement opportunities of members of group. Many scholars have conducted research on misleading perceptions, stereotypes and assumptions of managers. (Kanter 1977) studied behaviours of managers and found that they are unwilling to allocate the responsibility of performing highly critical activities to those employees who they perceive to have lower capability to perform efficiently. In spite of the fact that this kind of highlighted critical activities lead to development in career. (Morrison & Von Glinow 1990).
- **Stigmatization:** Stigma is a symbol of disrespect, disrepute, dishonour or admonishment, assigned to a person’s character. Various studies conducted in this perspective have proved that those persons who have such stigma attached to their reputation due to their age, race or gender came across varied forms of discrimination at work
- **Self-Restricting Behaviors:** Scholars have identified the fact that females and members of minority groups at times intentionally back out from various opportunities that can lead to development in their career graph, this kind of behaviour is termed as Self Restricting or Limiting Behaviour. This kind of behaviour includes both impulsive as well as competent element. Self limiting behaviour is inherited as an impulsive element in a person’s mind when a person faces disparate and negative treatment for many years. On the other hand, the competence element comes when a person is not provided opportunity to work on challenging tasks which causes reduced competence level as compared to members of majority groups in the workplace.

Organizational Determinants

Various organizational factors determine whether discriminatory behaviour is supported, overlooked, or strongly confronted in an organization. These factors include organizational culture, structure, strategies, climate, personnel management practices as well as type of leadership which play a crucial role in determining the magnitude of workplace discrimination.

- **Leadership:** Top leadership plays very important role in strengthening of diversity management programmes in any organization. Discriminatory behaviour of top management reduces the strength of diversity drive in an organization. If the top leaders of an organization are not strongly committed to effective management of diversity programmes all others in organization get an indication that discriminatory behaviour is tolerable and is not a big issue.
- **Strategies and Policies:** It is always stated in clear and precise terms in formal strategies and policy manuals of organization that discriminatory behaviour will not be accepted in any situation and organization strongly commits to the diversity management programme. But in some cases unintentionally the organizational policies render some people at disadvantage.
- **Organization Culture:** Weak organizational culture in which members of the organization do not have consensus fail to promote diversity and discourage discriminatory behaviours.
- **Organization Structure:** Greater workforce composition of homogeneous characteristics in an organization leads to favourable treatment for those of similar characteristics in employment related decisions. Apart from employment related decisions people of diverse characteristics are also excluded from social gatherings and networks due to various communication barriers
- **Human Resource Management Function:** If Human Resource Management function is strong in an organization it possesses great influential power on the behaviours of employees. Organizational policies that promote diversity are strongly followed and discriminatory treatment is strongly opposed.

TYPES OF WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION

Discrimination exists before and after employment in different form. In spite of being accepted as a dire necessity to encourage equal opportunity in employment at a global level, the issue of workplace discrimination still persist as a major problem in managing global diverse workforce. Two types of discrimination exist in an organization-direct and indirect.

Direct Discrimination

When an employee is treated unfavourably due to any personal characteristic like age, gender, race or disability, it is termed as direct. For example, if a teaching job was open only for female applicants it would be called direct discrimination. The

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main reason that leads to direct discrimination is false assumptions or perceptions about capability of people with particular characteristics. Some people also become victims of direct discrimination due to their association with certain groups or people.

Indirect Discrimination

When employment conditions in an organization render employees of particular characteristic at disadvantage as compared to others working in same status, it is called Indirect Discrimination. For example: - if a job advertisement invites only clean shaven candidates it is unjustified for members of particular religion. Whether intentionally done or not this kind of treatment is considered illegal. It arises in the form of illogical conditions and policies that lead to unfavourable treatment of some particular persons.

Harassment

Everyone is entitled to protection from unjust treatment or harassment at workplace. Harassment is defined as behaviour which is disrespectful and threatening for any employee in the organization. Employees harass other employees having distinct characteristic by making racial or sexist comments or directing slurs or jokes in order to degrade, weaken or torture the victim. For example, making fun of someone at work by uploading photoshopped picture of that person on company's wall portraying him/her as a joker. It also includes sexually harassing someone at work.

Victimisation

Victimisation is a situation that arises as a result of discriminatory treatment reported by the victim. Victims of workplace discrimination who raised voice against the system are sometimes treated unfairly due to the complaints made by them in the form of withholding their promotions, false allegations etc.

CONSEQUENCES OF WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION

Facing discrimination at work has many detrimental effects on the well being of individual. Effects of being discriminated last much longer in the mind of victims than just a single day bad experience. Many victims get distressed and serious health issues because of facing workplace discrimination. Some individuals indulge in unhealthy behaviours with intention to harm organization or some other individual to compensate the discriminatory behaviour faced by them. A work environment

where discrimination exists not only negatively affects the victims but also renders the diversity management programmes of the organization as void. It spoils the reputation of the organization in the market place and is considered not a good place to work at. Along with the reputation organization also loses to utilize diverse skills as its diversity image no longer remains prevalent. Last but not the least financial losses as a result of penalties from discrimination claims cannot be overlooked.

Discriminatory behaviour done by even one individual in an organization can have its effect on the organization as a whole. Even one instance that creates an impression that particular organization is unfair to females, minorities, disabled persons or homosexuals leads to long term difficulties in getting people from these groups at work. The crippling consequences of discrimination at workplace are hostile work environment, weakened workforce and reduced profitability of the organization.

Detailed description of various after effects of Workplace discrimination are as follows:

Reduced Productivity

Employees who face discriminatory treatment at workplace get demotivated and their productivity is reduced. The absenteeism and turnover rate is also increased which leads to increased efforts in recruiting and training new employees which further reduces productivity of the organization.

- **Legal Consequences:** Discrimination charges in the court often impose fines and penalties on the employer. If the employer loses the case filed against them they need to pay high amount as compensation as well as legal fees of the victim. Court can also order the employer to give the job back to an employee who is terminated unfairly.
- **Reduced Income and Revenue:** If an organization is publicized as being engaged in discriminatory behaviours it also loses its customers and consequently sales and revenue fall down.
- **Reduced Employee Morale:** Facing discrimination at workplace effect mental as well as physical health of the victim employees. According to the reports of Equal Employment Opportunity Commission being victim of unjust treatment at workplace leads to stress, anxiety and depression in employees. They are least interested in doing work enthusiastically when they are aware of the fact that advancement procedure in the organization is unjust and biased and not related to actual performance.
- **Hostile Work Environment:** The most substantial effect of workplace discrimination is the creation of hostile work environment. It becomes very difficult for the diverse workforce to work in such a negative work environment

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due to lack of trust and communication gaps. Satisfaction level of employees working in such environment is also very low.

- **Increase in Unemployment:** Discrimination in hiring and recruitment in the form of biased selection procedures lead to increase in unemployment rate by not recruiting suitable candidates of certain characteristics even if the position remains unfilled.

Therefore, a single act of discrimination has its effects on individual, organization as well as society.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Some steps if undertaken properly can help in reducing workplace discrimination and improving the work environment by making it a better place to work at for diverse workforce.

- **Unbiased Job Allocation:** Allocating job responsibilities on the basis of ability of the employee and not under the influence of any stereotypes associated. This will remove the biasness in the process of allocation of authorities and responsibilities and everyone will be provided equal opportunity despite of differences in personal characteristics.
- **Formalization:** Following more formal and disciplined methods for performance evaluations which assess the efforts of all employees on an equal measure. Formalization of performance evaluations removes the biased performance evaluations by properly defining the standards of performance.
- **Reward Based Promotion:** Linking rewards with promoting diversity friendly environment for top leaders. Rewards act as motivation for leaders to take actions to promote and instil more diversity friendly environment.
- **Interactive Environment:** Promoting more interactions among members of organization by creating formal networks. This kind of initiative by organizations helps members of diverse communities and background to communicate with each other which further leads to a friendly environment.
- **Diversity Trainings:** Time to time organizing diversity trainings in an organization educates employees about Equal Employment Opportunity rights as well as creates cultural awareness among them.
- **Anti-Discrimination Laws:** Proper laws should be formulated by Government to protect rights of employees at workplace.

CONCLUSION

Majority corporate in the 21st Century are strong supporters of inclusion of diverse workforce at their places. Yet maximum organizations having diverse work culture face many challenges while managing its day to day interactions. Workplace discrimination is the biggest and most critical issue that acts as hindrance in the successful implementation of diversity management programmes. Lack of commitment and disinterest towards diversity management programmes by the top management as well as governing authorities further increases the problem of disparate treatment at workplace. Problem of discrimination is constantly becoming worse to worst despite of various steps taken by organizations to eliminate it from its work settings.

It is the primary responsibility of organizations to frame transparent and unbiased policies and strategies related to the employment. Top leaders who are responsible for making various employment related decisions should act fairly and not show prejudice or biasness in their decisions.

Healthy work environments that promote and respect diverse cultures are subject to attraction by most skilled persons. Discrimination free environment leads to increase in morale of employees as it inculcates feeling of mutual trust and cooperation among them and others at work. Happy employees further lead to increase in profitability and productivity of organization. The organization also have verge over other competitors in the market as more reputable organization.

Hence, for effective management of diverse workforce with distinct characteristics like different age group, gender, nationalities, race, appearance, physical attributes, languages every organization first needs to check that policies, top leaders or any other aspect is not discriminatory that renders any particular group at disadvantage. Any complain or hint related to discriminatory behaviour should be taken seriously and strong corrective action to rectify it should be taken so that it is not repeated in future. It should be stated in clear and precise terms to the employees of the organization that any kind of discriminatory behaviour is not acceptable in the workplace. An organization that is able to build an image of discrimination free workplace becomes more competent and also builds a good reputation in society. More customers as well as more skilled and qualified people get linked to the organization.

To conclude the chapter, we must say that workplace discrimination still persist as a major challenge in front of organizations in management of diverse workforce but having true knowledge of its various forms and factors that give rise to discrimination at workplace, one can prevent such actions to take place in future.

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Chapter 2

Women, Ageism, and Sexism: Changing Paradigms

Sumita Parmar

Radboud University, The Netherlands

ABSTRACT

This chapter looks at the changing demographics of the world and examines how the needs of an aging population make it imperative for governments to factor old-age policies and programs in national planning. The chapter then interrogates the situations and problems of the elderly in India, focusing on old women and old widows who are distinct in their socio-economic and psychosocial needs. It dwells on the slowly changing perceptions and attitudes of both the old and the young towards each other in urban centers and stresses how rural India remains largely untouched by these changes.

GLOBAL SCENARIO

One of the consequences of development has been the gradual increase in longevity of human life. This is a global phenomenon and more people today are living longer across the world. Japan, for example, is a country where due to a declining birth rate and an aging population, the growth rate of the population has been slow and working-age population is projected to decline by nearly 4% by 2022 (Help Age, 2014). As a result, a sizable population consists of older citizens. Similarly, the Scandinavian countries also have slow rates of population growth and national policies have been tailored to suit the needs of the citizens. Australians too are living

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and working for longer. By 2013 the number of Australians aged 65 and over had increased by 533,000 from five years previously, and 17% of people aged 45 and older expected to work beyond the age of 70 (Help Age, 2014).

Thus, as a consequence of growing life expectancy, many countries have a substantial number of aged persons as part of their populations, a part that is also expected to increase steadily. Ageism happens when this population- of people above 60- are discriminated against. In other words, discrimination on the basis of a person's age is called "Ageism". Demographics indicate that the overall impact of how old or young the population of a country is, influences government policies and the nature of its programmes and at least some of the resources of a nation are customized to the needs of this section of the population. The nature of social schemes that run, the kind of work that NGOs do, even the focus of medical research that is done, is impacted by the demographics of a country. It is interesting to note that national policies in countries where there is a much faster rate of growth, and where the young are more in number, have different trajectories in contrast to those countries where the population is older.

A major test that faces societies with a substantial older citizenry is how to harness the potential contributions of the aged for constructive purposes rather than seeing them as a burden. The challenge lies in perceiving them, as in fact they are, a resource pool with a variety of expertise, a reserve that has been generally neglected and under-used. However, a twin challenge that this extended life expectancy poses to the government is also the issue of funding and supporting the aged population.

Both social and economic resources are necessary if the sunset years of a person's life are to be lived qualitatively. Some of these are provided by the Government while others come from individual resources. In America for example, the majority of senior citizens benefit from the Social Security Scheme - a government social insurance plan to which people contribute through taxation during the time they are employed. It forms their major source of income after retirement. There are several parallel schemes run at the state, national and local levels for old persons. Local initiatives such as "Campus Kitchens Projects and soup kitchens that cater to the needs of old people so that they are not hungry or socially isolated are common. However, writing for Global Age Watch Index 2014, Mary O'Hara of Los Angeles states that the modest nature of social security payments and the high reliance on it means that the US has a higher incidence of elder poverty than most other countries (Help Age, 2014).

Older Working Persons

Although the World Economic Forum report shows that the situation is not improving much for women in 20 percent of countries, even then, things are still relatively better

Women, Ageism, and Sexism

for women now than they were before (Status of Women in the States, n.d.). In many countries, related to the increase in longevity, slow population growth rate, better health care systems, and the need for older persons to contribute to the economy, women belonging to the senior citizen category (more than 60 years of age) continue to do remunerative work specially in the organized sectors. The majority of older people (aged 65 and above) in the United States are women, and many are active in the workforce. In 2013, nearly 14 percent of women aged 65 and older were in the labour force (Status of Women in the States, n.d.). Employment among older people is high in Norway too, with more than 70% of people aged between 55 and 64 still working – well above the EU average of around 50% (Help Age, 2014).

Japan has, as a national policy, been encouraging older women to continue working. It has encouraged this by several measures such as promoting companies that hire more women, organizing better facilities in terms of day care, flexi working hours etc (Kopf, 2017). In fact, the Japanese Prime Minister made a statement in the UN General Assembly in 2013 referring to older women employees and the country's reformation of its economy through them. "There is a theory called 'Womenomics,' which asserts that the more the advance of women in society is promoted, the higher the growth rate becomes," said Abe. "Creating an environment in which women find it comfortable to work and enhancing opportunities for women to work and to be active in society is no longer a matter of choice for Japan. It is instead a matter of the greatest urgency" (Kopf, 2017). In Russia too, older women, popularly called *babushkas*, continue to work caring for grandchildren and family while the younger generation goes out to work (Paranyushkin, 2016).

In India

The Constitution of India guarantees equality to men and women. Gender equality is not only enshrined in the Constitution, but there is provision for affirmative action that can be taken by both State and Central Governments to benefit women. However, as far as legalities go, there is nothing specific mentioned vis a vis old woman. There are some provisions for old people in the Constitution, such as article 20, which refers to pension and articles 23 & 24 of the Concurrent List that refer to social security and social insurance. But they are indirect in nature. Further, Article 41 of the Directive Principles of state Policy has particular relevance to old age social security. Besides these 125 (1) (d) of the Code of Criminal Procedure 1973, covers the protection of the rights of parents. There are provisions in the different religions too. The Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act, 1956A also protects the right of parents, whereas the Muslim Personal Law clearly talks about the duty of children to care for old parents.

However, the reality is that the implementation of laws and programmes has always been poor in our country and though on paper we have fine laws, their execution leaves much to be desired (the laws regarding dowry, and caste being examples). Thus, in spite of the laws, the condition of a substantial number of aged women in the country is an unhappy one. In contemporary India, because of a large and aging female population, age discriminatory practices are drawing more attention and ageism has become a matter of debate and discussion. In 1992, the IPOP (The Integrated Programme for Older Persons), sponsored by the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, was started to aid the setting up of old peoples' homes. This was followed in 1999 by the formation of the National Council for Older persons. There is also the Annapurna Scheme wherein ten kgs of food grains are distributed to the old (above 65) and needy. But it was not until the year 2007 when the Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act, was brought in, that there was a direct focus on old people and on the duty of the children to look after their old parents. The Act also stipulated that needy parents were to be given a monthly allowance of upto a maximum of ten thousand rupees and that parents could reclaim property that had been taken away by scrupulous children.

The situation in our country vis a vis aging has yet to be acknowledged as a subject meriting careful attention. Ageism is a new concept in India and barely has some work been done on it. The data available is inadequate and empirical research and analysis is in the initial stage. As of now, there are no codified laws in India regarding ageism (Age Discrimination, 2016). The Government needs to mainstream policies concerning the aged and adequate workable frameworks have to be put into place to address the needs of a large part of the population. The growing awareness of gender and its ramifications as it intersects with various issues, has underscored the necessity of making gender a core category of analysis and policy making. However, even though gender is slowly becoming a basic consideration in policy formation, there is a sub-category in it – that of old women- that has been ignored so far and is only now gradually coming to the forefront. It is important to keep in mind that even though women cannot be treated as a monolith and their experience of old age varies depending upon their class, caste, rural or urban location, religion and personal income, they, nevertheless, form a discrete section. In addition, the nature of contributions to society of older women is distinct from that of men, as are their social/emotional needs and health requirements. These differences need to be recognized and catered to.

The Joint Family

The traditional system in India was the joint family system where three generations- parents, their children, along with the grandparents - lived together. Frequently,

a bachelor uncle or a widowed aunt also lived with them. Thus, the family was usually large, and the mother was in charge of running the place while the father was the head of the family. As they grew older, the next generation took over their responsibilities. The power of decision-making gradually shifted from the elderly to the next eldest female member of the family and so it continued (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012). It worked well as a system, and offered many advantages such as an accessible functioning emotional support and security system - a safety net for the family members, especially the children and the older members of the family. However, “the process of modernization and democratization have brought about radical changes in the basic institution affecting both status and security of the aged” (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012).

Feminization of Aging

In India, religion, social custom and patriarchy combine to impact negatively on the situation of old women, especially so if they also happen to be widows, in which case they face multifaceted discrimination. Sexism and ageism are intertwined and their impact compounded where the old women are illiterate and have no income. However, because of the stratification of Indian society, variables such as caste, class, region, religion and culture, impact different sections of old women diversely (Rajan, 2006).

The concept of retirement is inherent in Hindu philosophy which mandates that there are four age-based stages in a human being’s life, namely, childhood, youth, middle age and old age and each stage is ruled by certain guidelines. These stages are called - *Brahmacharya*, when a man is a student, *Grihastha*, where he becomes a householder, *Vanaprastha*, when he retires and is expected to turn towards religion, lead an austere life and go on pilgrimages and *Sanyasa* where he withdraws from worldly matters and renounces the world. These four stages are obviously written with reference to men, but the fundamentals of *sanyasa* apply to women too, more so to widows. The philosophy further decrees that the primary function of a woman is to cater to the needs of her husband in all the ways that she can. He is her *Swami* (lord), the *raison d’etre* of her life. Once he has died there is really no reason for her to continue to live. Therefore, a widow, ostensibly bereft of any purpose in life, should pass the remaining years of her life with austerity and in penance following the prescribed codes of dress and diet. With this attitude embedded deeply in the psyche of society, old widowed women face multiple levels of discrimination

Once women are rendered incapable of contributing to the family because of old age or sickness and ill health, their status changes. No contribution to the family economy makes them a burden and their children may find catering to even their most basic needs irksome (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012). Thus neglect and

insensitive treatment is usually caused by the complete dependence of the women on the families of their sons. With limited incomes and the expenses of bringing up their own children, any expense of an old widowed mother who is not bringing in any resources is resented. This is more likely to be true in lower income households where meagre resources are inadequate in making both ends meet, and naturally result in the neglect of the elderly (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012).

Research indicates that whenever the old women are able to earn some money their status improves proportionately. In a study of the situation of elder and widowed women in the lower income groups in the unorganized sector, it was found that the majority of old women preferred to live with their eldest sons even though the daughters –in- law did not treat them well. Interestingly, most of the women preferred to live with either their eldest or their youngest sons. They said that they got the worst treatment while living with their middle sons! This is a mystifying fact and needs further investigations to discover the reasons behind it. If the mother tried to help her daughters financially in any way then that became a reasons for friction in the family or if she did have some money and did not give it to the family then that too resulted in ill treatment (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012).

Another research project attempted to identify the major issues concerning older women, the causes behind their marginalization and possible ways of addressing them. According to it, due to a life time of marginalization, Indian women have internalized society's ways of looking at them and they do not, as per habit, put their needs before other members of the family. Consequently, many are in poor health, a consequence of cumulative long-term neglect. Most of them feel lonely and isolated in spite of living with their families due to lack of communication with family members. Many of them have the resources and own property but are unable to make use of it since they cannot make financial decisions on their own, either because they simply don't know how to, or because they are not allowed to. The report suggests certain actions to counter this situation; an important one being empowering young girls and teaching them to care for themselves so that they grow into aware and confident women and subsequently into confident older women (Eldis, 2011).

Martha Alter Chen who has done an in-depth study of Hindu widows in rural India, states that “the prevalence of widowhood in India is the highest in the world for all age groups” (Chen, 2000). She claims that the situation of widows in India is unique because:

India is the one country in the world where the burning of the widow on the husband's funeral pyre (Suttee) is still practised. Two to three cases are reported each year although suttee is against the law and the target of rising protest. Second, some Hindu communities in India impose strict codes of dress, demeanor and diet on

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widows throughout their lives, rather than only for a specific mourning period. Third many Hindu communities in India are known for their strict social rules regarding female behaviour which often have dire consequences for widows, especially those who have to manage on their own. Not all widows have relatives they can depend upon for support. And even if they do, not all are willing to support. Many are widowed at a young age and remain so for the rest of their lives as remarriage is not a common practice. Often social norms restrict their rights to residence, property and employment, and impose a gendered vision of labour as well as seclusion. (Chen, 2000)

Women continue to work long into old age. However, their capacity to contribute towards family ketties and indirectly to the national resources is incumbent on the state of their physical, mental and emotional wellbeing. The fact of the matter is that the tendency of recognizing only remunerative work as ‘work’ results in the ‘invisibilization’ of the house work and care that women provide to family members throughout their lives. Women are, in fact, reservoirs of experience and expertise in core areas that pertain to the bringing up, nurturance and sustenance of children, inculcation of good values in them, care of the elderly, and of those who are part of the family. These factors constitute the very basic moral and social foundations of society. It is indeed an irony that the very people who are held responsible for laying the foundations of society and who are frequently described as the custodians of our culture are so completely marginalized in their old age. Too long have women been viewed as burdens and their contributions both actual and potential been ignored. Much of their contributions are intangible but have ramifications and long-term effects that generally do not figure in empirical research programmes. Thus the contributions of older women are nuanced and multidimensional and need to be acknowledged and respected.

Retirement Age

As mentioned earlier, the concept of retirement is ingrained in Indian society where religious Hindu texts divide the age of a human being into four stages, the third one referring to retirement. Officially, when one has reached the age of sixty, in the eyes of the Government, one retires and technically, becomes a “senior citizen”. However, the retirement age in India in different professions varies according to the kind of job one is doing and who the employer is. The same rules apply to both men and women. Thus, for example, University teachers retire at the age of sixty-five with a provision for re-employment till seventy, health and competence permitting. Central government employees generally retire at sixty, while the retirement age in different States varies with government employees retiring at age fifty-eight in Goa,

and sixty in Bengal, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, and Punjab etc. Tamil Nadu, Jharkhand, Arunachal, all have raised the retirement age from fifty-eight to sixty in the last few years. However, by and large the retirement age for most government employees is sixty and there is an attempt to make this uniform for the entire country. Private organizations have the freedom to decide the retirement ages of their employees. (Currently these range from fifty-eight to sixty)

No special provisions are made for aged retired women who have been government employees. In some cases, there is discrimination against women as in the well-known Air India case where air hostesses above the age of 35 were dependent on the discretion of the management for extensions. The case was *Air India Vs Nergesh Meerza and others* where the Supreme Court ruled that this was discriminatory since it gave unbridled power to the management “the Managing Director had been given uncontrolled, unguided and absolute discretion to extend or not to extend the period of retirement after an air hostess attained the age of 35 years” (D’cunha, 2016).

Another crucial aspect that has to be kept in mind while framing any policy on increasing the age of retirement is the very large part of the unemployed population of the country. Much of this number is comprised of young people looking out for jobs. The Government has to do a fine balancing act between providing jobs to the unemployed and simultaneously harnessing the potential contribution of an aging population.

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The issue of the health of older women is another matter that has long been ignored. Since women generally live longer than men, the physical problems they face need to be specifically addressed. Audio - Visual problems are common to both the sexes as are dental difficulties. Where women are at a disadvantage is in their generally poorer health condition, their almost universal anaemic state, and in UTI infections very common amongst them. “There is progressive decline in strength, coordination, energy reserves, stress tolerance and resistance to illness (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012). These are further accentuated by ignorance and an indifferent attitude towards illness among the aged (Gowri, Reddy & UshaRani, 2012). The problems are often psychosomatic brought on by the sense of loneliness and the alienation they experience.

Attitudinal Changes

Public attitudes and perceptions regarding old age in our country are changing, albeit very slowly. Instead of looking at old people as a nuisance and encumbrance

they should be looked at as reservoirs of experience and of expertise. They should also be seen as potential sources of contribution to generation of income for which old-age specific, income generating programmes have to be put into place. Gender plays a significant role in this area as older women have a more tough deal than older men. There are several intersecting factors. More older women are wholly dependent upon their sons for support. Often there is a conflict between the limited resources of the son and the requirements of the old mother. The demands and requirements of wife and children might have to be put aside in the face of the more pressing needs of the mother. This leads to resentment and is manifested in the ill treatment of the aged mother particularly by the daughter-in-law. Problems of isolation and loneliness loom large in the lives of the majority of old women. Those who live with families find the acute generation gap between them and the grandchildren the main reason for the absence of communication in the family.

As a people, we need to sensitize our children towards their grandparents and older people, emphasizing that they too will face the same situation at a later point in their lives, when they become old and dependent. The younger generation are often perceived as self-centred and too focused on careers and material acquisitions. These obsessions make them inconsiderate and insensitive to others. Those who are more vulnerable and emotionally needy, like the older family members, experience the insensitivity more and feel more hurt. Women are the worst sufferers since they tend to be confined more to the home and have limited social access. Hence their isolation is more acute and consequently they are more dependent for social interaction on family members.

Awareness and responsibility about, and sensitivity towards older persons needs to be inculcated through the education system in schools and even in colleges and universities. Awareness about the multiple aspects of an old person's life can also be made through a variety of means including programmes, discussions, debates, advertisements and the ubiquitous social media

Changes in social attitudes do not happen as much due to rational and evolved thinking as due to economic compunctions and considerations. For example, a man pitches in to help his wife do the cooking and household work, not so much because he has become a genuinely considerate partner, but because his wife is also bringing home a substantial pay packet that she would be unable to do if she did not have help at home. Or, a woman from a traditional home, is allowed to step out of the house and take up a job because she is contributing to the family kitty and her earnings help to provide certain luxuries which otherwise the family would have to do without.

Similarly, with the nuclear family becoming more a part of the Indian social scenario, and with more old women around than men, the demand for old age homes has also grown. There was a time, not so long ago, when there was a stigma attached to those who sent their parents to such homes. But with increasing demand, there are

hundreds of old age homes mushrooming all over India and a steady change can be seen in the attitudes of old parents going to them. The homes too have improved over the years catering to the needs of different classes of people. The better ones provide amenities such as round the clock medical services, swimming pools, therapists, special diets and provisions for guests to come and stay for a few days. A growing number of old persons are also happy with such living arrangements, since they are much more secure and better looked after. They have the company of others in similar situations and the sense of isolation is substantially less. No longer is living with one's children the preferred choice, knowing that there will be negligence and lack of adequate care there. Parents can also see that sometimes, due to unavoidable circumstances, their children are unable to looking after them even if they wish to. In all fairness, it has to also be added that sometimes it is difficult for married couples with children living in small flats in cities to accommodate their parents. The circumstances are such that the question is not of whether the son is willing or not to keep the parents, but rather how to make place for them in the already small cramped space available.

There is also the urban phenomena where old people, (often an aged widow) are left alone in large houses, with the children living abroad. There have been innumerable instances where robberies and murders have been committed by supposedly "reliable servants" in whose custody these old people are left and on whom they are completely dependent. Certainly, it would be better for such couples to live in old people's homes where they would have better care and not be left at the mercy of unscrupulous servants.

A recent advertisement being shown on television is radical in content and indicative of changing contemporary attitudes. It shows a mother suggesting to her son that he apply for a housing loan and have his own house. The son is surprised and says that that would mean living apart from his parents, to which the mother responds with a smile that he could look for a place close by. There is no bitterness, complaint or accusation in the mother's tone and the conversation, which takes place as they are driving, smoothly moves on. Although the advertisement is sponsored by a bank encouraging people to take loans to buy houses, the fact, that the suggestion comes from the mother implies that the parents also have a life of their own and would not be bereft or feel abandoned if their son set up his own establishment. There is also, implicit in the conversation, an acknowledgement that the son too has his own life and moving out of the house of his parents would not lessen his concern and love for his them. In a culture where a son moving out from the home of his parents, is viewed as an act of betrayal, the advertisement is suggestive of the changes that are beginning to happen.

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Another growing urban phenomenon that is counter-stereotypical is that of group holidays organized by travel agencies and related organizations for women only. This concept addresses the problem that women, particularly older women, have of wanting to travel and visit places but not being able to do so due to various reasons such as lack of company, the risks of travelling alone, the bother of taking care of the logistics etc. This segment, although miniscule, is comprised of an assortment of women of varying ages and from different backgrounds - retired professionals, housewives, students etc. who have the resources and are willing to spend them on themselves. For older women to have a life of their own is a concept foreign to the majority of Indians. Stereotypes are ingrained and a grandmother is expected to go on pilgrimages rather than on a holiday with her friends, to play the role of nanny and supervisor rather than pursue a hobby, which has long been shelved due to overwork and domestic responsibilities. In any case, as yet, it is very small segment of the population where these options are even thinkable. The winds of change have not touched the vast majority of old women and old widows in India, particularly in the rural areas. A substantial segment are sans economic resources, dependent on the family to look after them and often in poor health brought about by years of lack of care and negligence. When they are freed from the stranglehold of sexism and ageism then only can the claim be made that old women in India are cherished and valued. This can only be achieved by the collective efforts of all stakeholders in society.

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Section 2

Aging Workforce

Chapter 3

Analyzing the Influential Factors of Older Worker's Job Training Participation

Sung-Eun Cho

Sookmyung Women's University, Korea

Young-Min Lee

Sookmyung Women's University, Korea

ABSTRACT

This study explores determinants of middle-aged workers' participation in job training and provides implications to vitalizing middle-aged workers' participation in job training, using logistic regression analysis of Korea Labor Institute (KLIPS) data. As a result, among individual characteristics of older workers, residence in the metropolitan area, family relationship satisfaction, and household status have a significant effect on participation in job training. Regarding job and individual work characteristics, current work experience has a positive relationship. While for corporate characteristics, presence of unions and availability of statutory severance pay have a significant effect on participation in job training. Consequently, this study provides implications for vitalizing the older workers' participation in job training.

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2015, Korea's ratio of elderly people over 65 was 13.1%. When the percentage of the population aged 65 is above 7%, 14%, and 20% of the total population, a society is classified as aging, aged, and super-aged, respectively. After becoming an aging society in 2000, Korea is facing entry into being an aged society by 2018. Korean

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society continues to progress towards super-aged as the life expectancy of Koreans increases. In 2010–2013, the life expectancy of Koreans was 81.3 years, which is higher than in North America or Europe. Although life expectancy is increasing, Korea's working age population rate has been decreasing since 2012 along with population growth, and by 2060, the productive population is expected to decrease to less than half of the total population (Statistics Korea, 2015).

Along with concerns about the aging phenomenon and the productive population decrease, the retirement of the baby boomers (born between 1955 and 1963) has become another social issue. Retirement of 7.1 million baby boomers is a topic that requires social preparation to such an extent that a term has been coined for it: the 'retirement bomb.' Though baby boomers have either already retired or are facing retirement, have about 20 years to live after retirement according to average life expectancy. The result of a survey for baby boomers indicated that 63.9% wished to work after retirement, the biggest reason for this being their reduced income (Jeong, 2010). Even if a national pension is provided, they wish to work for self-development and income maintenance.

Given the characteristics of those who wish to work after retirement, the sustainable use of their skills is an important topic in terms of the workforce. Therefore, the enhancement of individual productivity through training can increase their income-generation capacity (Cho, 2010). Not only does the job training of older workers increase productivity, it also enables them to work for a longer period of their lives. Accordingly, working longer may be an important measure when regarding the workforce in the aging era. The government promotes various policies and projects in order to vitalize job training for older people. To reflect the early retirement phenomenon, the government is also pushing for support funds to help expand the participation of older people in job training and to strengthen their respective counselling systems.

Identifying the factors that affect older workers' participation in job training is a necessary predecessor to developing the skills necessary to increase older workers' rate of participation in job training. Accordingly, the present study aims to analyze the factors that affect older workers' participation in job training and, based on these, find the implications of improving older workers' participation in job training. The research questions in this study are as follows. First, what is the actual condition of job training for older workers? Second, what are the determinants of older workers' participation in job training? Third, what effective measures are there for improving older workers' participation in job training?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Various theories can explain the necessity of job training. First, Shultz (1960)'s human capital theory introduces the concept of human capital and discusses the productivity increase of the labor force through education. He argued that education and training individually increase labor force and income at the same time as socially investing in human capital, which contributes to economic growth. Investment in human capital is oriented towards the long-term in order to secure the competitiveness and driving force integral to productivity improvement in the changing environment. From this perspective, older workers' participation in job training may be considered to be the choice to increase their own competitiveness in the labor market with an interest in continuing labor.

Older workers' participation in job training may also be described using the job search theory. According to the job search theory, individuals make the choice with the greatest utility (either unemployment or re-employment) in the job search process. Thus, utility determines re-employment (McCall, 1970). According to this theory, older workers show their will to be continuously employed by participating in job training because they believe that the utility of continuous employment is higher than that of retirement. They participate in job training to increase their labor productivity and learn new skills for continuous labor. According to Spence (1974)'s selection theory, education and job training are used as tools to show workers' differentiation in the labor market. Job education for older workers can be regarded as a tool to show their productivity to employers when they try to continuously remain in the labor market. As such, the meaning of job training in the labor market can be explained by various ways.

Previous studies on job training for older workers have focused primarily on the effectiveness of job training. Gong and Zhang (2016) stated that the higher the level of knowledge and skills that older workers have, the easier it is for them to find jobs. They also argued that it is necessary to provide various methods for re-employment and company establishment for older workers with a high level of knowledge and skills.

Walker, Cummins and Kunkel (2015) reported that older workers' participation in job training is effective in increasing their employment and wages. They pointed out that the factors that make it difficult for older workers to participate in job training include a lack of awareness of job training programs, fear of being educated at an old age, and the burden of job training expenses. Zwick (2015) insisted that meeting these needs is essential to improve the effectiveness of job training for older workers. Moreover, various methods such as time-flexible training, self-induced training, and on-the-job training are also necessary.

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A study by Kim and Choi, which examined the effect of job training on the employment of the middle-aged, found that job training for the middle-aged has a significant effect on employment status, occupation type, and wage (Kim & Choi, 2004). Although a study by Jeong did not find a significant effect of job training on employment and wage for those aged over 55 years old, the study contended that job training for the aged should be analyzed from various perspectives (Jeong, 2007). Additionally, a study by Ji found that decreasing productivity in accordance with an aging workforce within a company can be counteracted with education and training (Ji, 2016).

Recent studies have focused on the operational aspects of job training for older people and the tasks associated with this. A study by Kim described the current job training situation and the problems with the training program for the middle-aged conducted by the government and presented a future management plan. This study suggested expanding the range of target occupations for the job training of the middle-aged, establishing job training guidelines, measuring the training participation rates, and fostering an educated trainee with expertise training rather than general training (Kim, 2013).

A study by Son presented the challenges of vocational education and training for the middle-aged. This training took place in companies on the basis of an idea of a relationship between vocational education and training for the middle-aged and corporate performance, which has not been sufficiently supported by research, and despite the research that had been conducted on middle-aged workers regarding aging, age, and wages. This study found that the rate of participation in vocational education and training by those in their 50s and 60s was significantly lower than for other age groups, although workers' rate of participation in vocational education and training was continuously increasing. As a result, it suggested increasing social awareness about the aging workforce and educational training, strengthening the quality of company job training, and providing an education combination regarding age management and corporate vocational training to vitalize job training for older workers (Son, 2012).

Kim and Kim (2013) identified the awareness, requirements, and problems of vocational education and training for the middle-aged unemployed in the Gangwon Province and suggested improvement measures. They discussed the meaning of vocational education and training for the middle-aged from the perspectives of a stable career change, re-employment support, a second chance at learning, the creation of conditions inhibiting early retirement, active aging, and the connection of vocational education and training/employment/welfare. Furthermore, they indicated that vocational education and training for the middle-aged should take place in terms of acquiring expertise that can ensure re-employment and enhance the quality of

employment, rather than simply job capacity building. A study by Park (2010) implied that a system that helps vocational education and training support re-employment through continuous skills development of the middle-aged should be built upon skills that middle-age people need to develop, which will require analysis to determine.

As such, multiple studies on job training for middle-aged older workers were conducted. There are studies that have explored the determinants of participation in job training by targeting all workers, employees of small and medium-sized enterprises, the unemployed, adult learners, and the low-income group (Jeong, 1999; Kang, Eo & Choi, 2015; Kim, 2002; Lee, 2015; Son, 2004). However, no study has examined the determinants of participation in job training for older workers. As such, the present study addresses this gap in knowledge and analyzes the factors that affect older workers' participation in job training.

3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.1. Subjects

The present study uses data from the Korea Labor Institute's 'Korean Labor and Income Panel Study (KLIPS).' The KLIPS is a longitudinal sectional survey conducted annually that tracks economic activity, movement in the labor market, income and consumption activity, education and vocational training, and social activities on an annual basis by targeting a panel sample of 5,000 households and their members in non-rural areas. This survey has been completed 18 times since 1998 and is classified into the household material and the individual material of the household's members. Additional surveys have been conducted on different topics each year. In the 17th survey, which was used in this study, an additional survey was conducted on all respondents aged 50–74 years to identify the employment, retirement, economic status, social relations, and health of the elderly (Korea Labor Institute, 2017).

The present study extracted these subjects first, based on their age group (50–60) indicating that they are middle-aged workers. The Prohibition of Employment Discrimination on Age and Promotion of Employment of the Elderly laws were referred to when defining subject groups by age. Although Korea does not have a clear definition of middle-age, those between 50–55 are defined as being semi-aged and those over 55 years are defined as the aged according to Article 2 of the Enforcement Ordinance on the Prohibition of Employment Discrimination on Age and Promotion of Employment of the Elderly. Moreover, Article 19 of the Prohibition of Employment Discrimination on Age and Promotion of Employment of the Elderly law specifies the retirement age of workers as over 60 years. Therefore, the

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people in the aged workers group, ages 50–60, which fall under the target age group subjected to the aforementioned laws, were considered ‘the older cohort,’ and were the subject of this study.

Among them, the unemployed (based on employment status) and wage paid workers (except non-wage labor), were selected as the subjects. The total number of subjects that fit these criteria was 1186. Of them, the number of workers who had experience in participating in job training and the number of workers who did not was found to be 75 (6.3%) and 1111 (93.7%), respectively. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

3.2. Instruments

Variables that are expected to have an effect on the decision to participate in job training, which was set as the dependent variable, were identified through the review of previous studies. Explanatory variables were divided into three factors: individual characteristics, job and individual work characteristics, and company

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

		N	%	Mean	SD	Note
Decision of participation in training	Participated	75	6.3			
	Not participated	1111	73.7			
	Total	1186	100			
Gender (age)	Male	682	57.5	54.63	3.094	Age mean
	Female	504	42.5	54.20	2.981	
	Total	1186	100	54.45	3.053	
Marital status	Married	970	81.8			
	Single	216	18.2			
	Total	1186	100			
Status of householder	Householder	785	66.2			
	Not householder	401	33.8			
	Total	1186	100			
Residential area	Metropolitan area	572	48.1			
	Chungcheong area	123	10.4			
	Honam area	92	7.8			
	Yeongnam area	360	30.4			
	Gangwon Jeju area	39	3.3			
	Total	1186	100			

characteristics. The explanatory variables were set based on the previous studies on the employment competency improvement program for older workers (Chang et al. 2003; Kim & Kim, 2013; Park, 2010). Individual characteristics consisted of basic information, including the research subject's gender and age, and household status, marital status, life satisfaction, and the survival status of parents. The variable related to job and individual work characteristics was composed of whether the job position was permanent, the position of the worker, experience at the current job, job satisfaction, and overall job satisfaction. Last, the company characteristics variable consisted of the characteristics of the company for which the older worker worked, including location, industry, the enrollment status of national pension and employment insurance, the availability of statutory severance pay, and the presence of a union. Table 2 shows the variable description and characteristics.

3.3. Data Analysis

The objective of this study was to analyze the determinants of older workers' participation in job training. For this, logistic regression analyses were conducted using the decision to participate in job training as a nominal dependent variable. When a dependent variable is measured using a binary scale, logistic regression analysis is the method used to analyze the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables (Seong, 2014). This study investigated the characteristics of people who participated in job training overall before analyzing the specific determinants of older workers' participation in job training. Therefore, by examining previous studies, this study determined that logistic regression analysis was appropriate.

Table 2. Variable description and characteristics

Factor	Variable
Individual and family characteristics	Gender, age, education, residential area (metropolitan area, Chungcheong area, Honam area, Yeongnam area, Gangwon Jeju area), whether householder or not, marital status, life satisfaction (overall satisfaction, family income, family relationship), survival status of parents
Job and individual work characteristics	Whether the position is permanent, position of worker, experience at current job, job, job satisfaction (wage, employment stability, work content, work environment, potential development of individual), overall job satisfaction
Company characteristics	Location of company, industry, enrollment status of national pension and employment insurance, availability of statutory severance pay, presence of a union

The present study analyzed the factors that affect older workers' participation in job training by dividing the older worker labor panel respondents into two groups: one that had experience in participating in job training and one that did not. Logistic regression analyses were conducted in three stages in accordance with the division of the set variables. Individual and family characteristics, job and individual work characteristics, and company characteristics were progressively input into Models 1, 2, and 3. SPSS 22.0 was used for analysis.

4. RESULTS

The fitness of each logistic regression analysis model was verified by the Hosmer–Lemeshow test. When the Hosmer–Lemeshow test's significance probability is greater than the significance level, the model is generally regarded as appropriate (Lee & Noh, 2015). As a result, the significance probability of Models 1–3 used in this study were .324, .340, and .429, respectively, confirming that they were each greater than the significance level. The chi-square values in the logistic regression analysis were 49.440, 84.626, and 114.490, respectively, while the significance probability was .000. This implies that more than one variable in each model has a significant effect on participation in job training, the dependent variable. For each model, the effect of the individual independent variable on the dependent variable was verified. The results of this verification are as follows.

Model 1 analyzed the effect of individual and family characteristics on older workers' decision to participate in job training. As a result, education, residential area, and satisfaction with family relationship were found to have a significant effect on the decision to participate in job training. Education and life satisfaction were found to have a positive relationship with the decision to participate in job training. For residence, older workers living in metropolitan areas had a higher rate of participation in job training than those living in the Chungcheong, Honam, and Yeongnam areas.

Model 2 adds job and individual work characteristics to the individual and family characteristics. As a result, regarding individual and family characteristics, only the residential area of the worker was found to have a significant effect. Regarding the added job and individual work characteristics variable, current job experience had a significant effect on the decision to participate in job training. Regarding the effect of participation in job training, the metropolitan area had a higher job training participation rate than the Chungcheong, Honam, and Yeongnam areas. As such, this result does not differ from Model 1. For current job experience, a positive relationship between experience at the worker's current job and the decision to participate in job training was observed. Regarding the effect of current work experience on the

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decision to participate in job training, undertaking job training was more likely to have taken place during the process of preparing for the tasks that older workers need to perform after retirement as older workers' job status increased.

Model 3 analyzes the additional input of the company characteristics variable in addition to the variables addressed in Model 2. Being a homemaker, current job experience, availability of company's statutory severance pay, and the presence of a union had significant effects on the decision to participate in job training. Table 3 shows the results of analysis on the determinants of older workers' decision to participate in job training.

Table 3. The results of analysis on the determinants of older workers' decision to participate in job training

Factor classification		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Individual and family characteristics	Gender (dummy = male)	-.695	.499	-.787	.455	-.815	.443
	age	-.599	.549	-.741	.476	-1.097	.334
	Square of age	.005	1.005	.006	1.006	.010	1.010
	Education	.277**	1.319	-.026	.974	-.027	.974
	(Dummy = metropolitan area) Residence - Chungcheong area	-1.154**	.315	-1.368**	.255	-1.846	.158
	Residence - Honam area	-1.405***	.245	-1.382**	.251	-1.750	.174
	Residence - Yeungnam area	-.901**	.406	-.943**	.390	-.418	.658
	Residence - Gangwon Jeju area	.651	1.917	.405	1.500	-1.648	.192
	Whether one is a householder	.600	1.821	.898	2.455	1.181*	3.256
	Marital status	-.086	.918	.105	1.111	.486	1.627
	Survival status of parents	-.019	.981	.098	1.103	.181	1.198
	Life satisfaction - family income	.361	1.435	.083	1.087	.005	1.005
	Life satisfaction - family relationship	.579*	1.784	.515	1.674	.601	1.823
	Life satisfaction _overall life	-.148	.862	-.545	.580	-.658	.518

continues on following page

Table 3. Continued

Factor classification		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Job and individual work characteristics	Whether position is permanent			.024	1.025	.312	1.366
	Whether position is full-time			-.501	.606	.167	1.182
	Current job experience			.043**	1.044	.041**	1.042
	(Dummy = office work) Type of occupation - senior official and manager			-.420	.657	-.415	.661
	Type of occupation - expert			-.821	.440	-1.516	.220
	Type of occupation - service sales			-.320	.726	-.919	.399
	Type of occupation - agriculture, forestry, and fisheries			-1.223	.294	-1.601	.202
	Type of occupation - equipment function operation and simple labor			-.080	.923	-.134	.874
	Job satisfaction - wage			-.201	.818	-.221	.802
	Job satisfaction - stability			.205	1.228	.186	1.204
	Job satisfaction - work content			.419	1.520	.419	1.521
	Job satisfaction - work environment			-.376	.687	-.495	.610
	Job satisfaction - development possibility			.340	1.405	.460	1.585
	Overall job satisfaction			.442	1.555	.481	1.618

continues on following page

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The objective of this study was to analyze the factors affecting older workers' participation in job training and to present policy directions for the job training of older people and possible occupation changes after retirement. The study explored the characteristics of job training participation for older workers aged 50–60 by analyzing KLIPS data. The results were as follows.

First, in accordance with the residential area of older workers, residents of non-metropolitan areas were less likely to participate in job training than those living in metropolitan areas. While a difference in participation by residential area was observed, the company's location was not significant. This shows that the possibility

Table 3. Continued

Factor classification		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
		B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Company characteristics	(Dummy = metropolitan area) Company location - Chungcheong					.474	1.607
	Company location - Honam					.337	1.401
	Company location - Yeungnam					-.396	.673
	Company location - Gangwon Jeju					1.920	6.822
	(Dummy=manufacturing) Industry - Mining, agriculture, forestry and fisheries					-1.328	.265
	Industry -telecommunication construction					-.228	.796
	Industry - sales service					.249	1.282
	Industry - finance real estate					-.555	.574
	Industry - Education and health services					.568	1.765
	Industry - other					-.594	.552
	Enrollment status of national pension					-.078	.925
	Enrollment status of employment insurance					-.351	.704
	Availability of statutory severance pay					-1.640**	.194
	Presence of union					-.642**	.526
	Constant		12.286		20.162		33.979
-2log likelihood		509.842		474.656		444.792	
Model chi-square		49.440***		84.626***		114.490***	
Nagelkerke R2		.109		.183		.245	

*: p < .05, **: p < .01, ***: p < .001

of job training participation is irrelevant to a company's area characteristics. There is a possibility that this result comes from a difference in the distribution of training institutions in the area that workers reside. Given the regional distribution of job training institutions on the job training portal HRD-Net, more than half of the 8100

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training institutions are located in metropolitan areas. Additionally, more than 65% of training courses opened for incumbents have been established in metropolitan areas.

Second, a longer current career path was associated with a positive effect on the decision to participate in job training. As the current career path lengthens, position and responsibilities increase. If one fills the role of decision-maker and management, additional vocational training and education that are appropriate for the position may be expected to have taken place. A study by Lee and Lim suggested that a higher position is associated with time out of the office, making work less burdensome, and less restraint on training participation, making participation in training easier (Lee & Lim, 2015).

Third, matters relating to the rights and interests of workers, including the presence of unions and the availability of statutory severance pay, had a positive effect on participation in job training. This can be considered to be in connection with the company's size and welfare as well as the influence that workers have within company. Older workers who work for large companies can be expected to benefit from more job training.

From these results, some policy implications can be proposed. First, training opportunities and infrastructure that older workers can use should be expanded in each region. The concentration of training opportunities in the metropolitan areas appears to be more extreme than the distribution of older workers' area of residence. More training could be supplied to each region either by altering regional training institutes' allocation methods for government funded projects, or by increasing the distribution rate by adjusting the regional financial training costs. Other alternatives are to improve the region's training supply and manpower capacity through the promotion of regional training institutions or by supplying specialized training courses (Cho & Lee, 2016).

Second, a new training course that is more suitable for older workers' lifestyles needs to be developed. In light of the reality that society is gradually aging, workers will have the ability to work well beyond retirement age. As such, older people need job training that incorporates the teaching of new skills to utilize after retirement. The current direction of job training needs to be focused on knowledge and technology that can be used in the long term. Since this switch cannot be achieved by workers alone, companies and training institutes should take the lead and create a strategic approach that considers older workers' lives after retirement and their possible occupational change. The government needs to develop a job training model so that companies and training institutes can implement knowledge and skills training that can be used by older workers in the long term.

Lastly, in order for older workers that are close to retirement to prepare for a post-retirement job through job training, support for older Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) employees who have relatively few training opportunities is required. A study by Kim and Kwon (2007) determined that a passive attitude in the chief executive officer and members, lack of training continuity, and concern about time out of office to be the factors that inhibit the training of SME employees. In order to expand the education of older workers and overcome these concerns, the design of training projects and support systems is needed to actively expand participation in job training and provide benefits to all older workers and companies.

Suggestions for further research may be proposed. The present study selected subjects by age and employment status using the KLIPS data. However, the number of workers who had experience participating in job training was small compared to the total number. Furthermore, this study was limited to wage workers only, instead of all older workers. Consequently, a study that includes all self-employed, unpaid family workers, and the unemployed in addition to wage workers, should be conducted in the future. The explanatory power of the model through the analyzed variable was found to be relatively low. By reflecting on the characteristics exclusive to older workers, an additional variable that affects participation in job training may be found. As a result, career transition after retirement requires further study, in addition to job training for older workers.

This study explored the factors that influenced older workers' participation in job training using logistic regression analysis. Logistic regression analysis presented the R² value to demonstrate the explanatory power of data and model. However, the R² value was not high, thereby suggesting that the model does not fully explain the factors that influence older workers' job training. This may have been because a panel study with pre-determined survey items was used, and not all of the factors that influence older workers' participation in job training were included in the present study. Follow-up studies should expand the model by including factors that affect older workers' job training in addition to the factors used in this study to overcome this limitation.

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Chapter 4

Baby Boomers and Online Learning: Exploring Experiences in the Higher Education Landscape

Malaika T. Edwards

Louisiana State University, USA

Petra A. Robinson

Louisiana State University, USA

ABSTRACT

There continues to be a significant increase in the number of post retirement employees (i.e., baby boomers/older workers) in the workforce, either having remained in the organization after retirement or having returned to the workforce in different capacities for varying reasons after their initial separation. A resulting accompaniment to this labor force increase is the increase in the number of boomers who will seek higher education to equip themselves with the skills needed to remain competitive in the workplace. With the advent of online learning, however, the higher education landscape is different from when baby boomers first attended college. This chapter explores the experiences of baby boomers who are pursuing graduate studies in an online environment and will discuss appropriate learning strategies for baby boomers to facilitate academic success for this group of learners.

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INTRODUCTION

The Internet has mushroomed as a key tool for supporting distributed education (Berge & Collins, 1995; Gilbert & Moore, 1998; Santoro, 1995). As the traditional “brick and mortar” learning institutions increasingly yield to learning in online environments, distance education continues to grow in popularity for learners of all ages. According to an Ambient Insight (2011) market analysis report, more than 2 million pre-K-12 students take some form of schooling online. Web-based learning also continues to gain popularity both nationally and internationally, in many academic disciplines, and in training and higher education in particular (Bonk & Zhang, 2006). The strategic plan by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) noted that, students will learn in a broad range of settings as new technologies open new ways of teaching and learning (HEFCE, 2005). Indeed, there continues to be a rapid rise of education programs and degrees that are being offered in fully online formats (Licona, 2011). There is no question that online learning is now a prominent player in the field and practice of adult and higher education.

Accompanying this change in the educational landscape, is the increase in adult learners who are returning to the classroom- specifically, baby boomers who are opting to “go back [to school] and continue the educational journey they began so many years ago when they were the first wave to become college educated.” (CNN Library, 2015). Baby boomers refer to those individuals born between 1946 and 1964 during the ‘baby boom’ at the end of World War II. In 1946, in the United States alone- 3,411,000 babies were born, and by 1964 that number had increased to 4,027,000 babies being born in that year - leading to an era popularly known as the “baby boom” era and babies born during that period dubbed “baby boomers.” (History, n.d.). At the beginning of the 21st century, there were approximately 79 million baby boomers in the United States, accounting for 25% of the nation’s population. (Encyclopedia of Aging, 2002). College campuses welcomed the first set of baby boomers to their doors in the fall of 1967, while the youngest set of baby boomers were freshmen in 1982.

Being mindful of the need to go back to college, for various reasons ranging from career advancement through to self-actualization, higher education enrollment among the baby boomer population has seen significant increases in recent years. According to Palazesi & Bower (2006), when compared to other generations “baby boomers . . . have a propensity for lifelong learning,” and where college enrollment is concerned, older adults increasingly represent a larger population in post-secondary education, mostly due to the return of the baby boomer generation.” (p. 45). In 2013, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2017), forty-nine thousand (49,000) baby boomers had enrolled in undergraduate and graduate programs across the United States. Upon their return to college however, baby boomers will find that the academic landscape

has changed significantly from when they were first students- most notable among these changes being the advent of online learning.

Over the past decade, there has been progressive incorporation of eLearning in university education systems, even among traditional on-campus universities (Gonzalez, 2010). Organizations such as the International Association for K-12 Online Learning (iNACOL) considers standards development for K-12 online education for courses, teachers and online programs, and as such individuals and associations concerned with the field of adult and higher education would be remiss not to pay attention to this global trend.

Consequently, as researchers, we were interested in understanding the experiences of baby boomers who returned to graduate school, especially as it relates to participating in online learning. As such, we conducted a study to understand cross cultural learning amongst baby boomers, and what they perceived to be the ideal teaching strategies that should be used for them as learners in the online environment, to help them achieve academic success. In addition to this, we also attempted to understand challenges they faced in the higher education environment. Research questions that were addressed during the study included:

1. How do baby boomers in an online learning environment describe the differences they encountered upon returning to graduate school when compared to the first time they attended college?
2. How do baby boomers describe challenges they faced in taking online classes, as well as what specific teaching strategies would they have liked their instructors to use in their online classes?
3. How do baby boomers describe how they prepared to function effectively in an online environment, and in what ways do they feel pursuing graduate studies contributed to their career advancement?

This chapter therefore reviews and presents challenges in online learning for adult learners in higher education within a cross cultural context- with specific consideration for those adult learners who have been categorized as baby boomers. The chapter also illuminates how design and delivery interrelates with foundational adult learning principles, more specifically, *andragogy*, as posited by Knowles (1980,1984, 1987, 1990) and discusses andragogy as a framework to define and understand online learning.

Focusing on the principles of *andragogy*, is regarded as beneficial to work of this nature as they outline, “what educators must do to successfully teach [adult] learners” (Holton, Swanson-Wilson, & Bates, 2009, p. 170). Andragogy has been the primary model of adult learning for decades and focusing on these principles have numerous implications for the design, implementation, and evaluation of learning

activities with adults, even within the online environment. With the increase in online programs being offered in universities and the increase in baby boomer enrollment at these institutions, the importance of exploring learning and teaching strategies in the online environment and the potential challenges that baby boomers may face, is regarded as being an increasingly critical area of focus.

BACKGROUND

In this section of the chapter, we discuss online learning and the return of baby boomers to college. To illustrate why there has been an increase in baby boomers in higher education, we offer an overview of changes in the organizational/ corporate landscape, and how these changes contribute to (and have led to) changes in the higher education field, and the accompanying increase in baby boomer college enrollment. In this section of the chapter, we also focus on the theoretical framework that guided our study. Further, we present an overview and description of the concept of andragogy. Although there have been extensive discussions surrounding online learning in educational journals and other academic literature, we also present a brief overview of what is meant by online learning- as this helps to provide a frame of reference for the study.

Online Learning

E-learning is “the use of electronic technologies to create learning experiences” (Horton, 2012, p.1) and it comes in many forms, of which this chapter focuses on one such kind, online learning. Online learning is any form of learning that occurs by way of a computer network and this kind of learning occurs virtually in that it occurs over the World Wide Web. The World Wide Web was invented in 1992, giving rise to new pedagogical methods and to an increase in access to education (Harasim, 2000). This is particularly true in the case of higher education, as the demands of the 21st century have brought about significant changes and an “evolution from distance teaching to online education” (Mason, 2000, p. 64). As Garrison and Kanuka (2004) further emphasized, “online learning is pervading higher education...[challenging] institutions to meet the connectivity demands of prospective students and to meet growing expectations and demands for higher quality learning experiences and outcomes” (p. 95). Additionally, a critical factor is the ability to meet the need for students to learn at anytime and anywhere. This speaks to the potential of online learning as not only the primary contemporary learning model of the times, but to the potential of using Internet information and communication technology to support meaningful learning experiences. Using technology and the Internet for meaningful

learning experiences has been well documented in the literature related to online learning (Garrison & Anderson, 2003; Hiltz, 1997; Marjanovic, 1999; Rimmershaw, 1999; Williams, 2002). Online education continues to grow in popularity as it provides the accessibility to good quality education and as it encourages collaborative communication among students and instructors.

The Organizational/ Corporate Landscape

Statistics provided over the 20-year period between 1990 and 2010, and more recently between 2004 and 2014, show a gradual increase in the number of workers over the age of 65 years old in the workplace. In 1990 for instance, 21.8% of the US workforce was made up of persons between the ages of 65 and 69 years old. In 2004, older workers between ages 65 and 69 made up 21.9% of the workforce, by 2010 this figure had increased to 30.8%, and by 2014, participation of older persons between age 65 and 69 had increased to 26.2% (US Census Bureau, 2017). Projections suggest that this trend of baby boomers returning to and/or remaining in the workforce will increase, with census predictions suggesting that the 65 and older population will experience an increase by over 67% between 2015 and 2040.

According to Ford and Orel (2005) the afore mentioned increase in baby boomer participation in the workforce is attributable to a number of factors including, but not limited to (i) a desire for worker camaraderie (ii) a lack of enjoyment transitioning from employment to leisure activities (iii) the desire to remain active (iv) the loss of work community and (v) a lack of retirement income. Regarded as being a well-established entitlement after years of being a part of the labor force, retirement is regarded as a desired end result for many workers (Collins, 2003).

Due to factors like the lack of retirement income however, retirement is no longer deemed as an attractive option for many baby boomers. As such, baby boomers now opt to stay in the workplace, or return to work after retirement. According to Paullin (2014), when surveyed about the reason for continuing employment, older workers cited financial needs as the primary reason, and indicated- albeit to a lesser extent, psychological or social fulfillment. Although not the focus of this study, it must be mentioned that this increase in baby boomer retention in the workplace, is also attributable to the need for baby boomers to care for their aging parents, and the need for financial resources to do so.

According to Timmermann (2006) baby boomers are in somewhat of a precarious position as while they are facing their own retirement, they may also have to deal with aging parents, and may 'face a rite of passage...to provide help and assistance to their mom and dad- the parents who once took care of them.' (Timmermann, 2006, p. 25). It is also important to note, that the role of caregiver is more prevalent amongst female baby boomers – in comparison to their male counterparts, and because of

this, female boomers may stay longer in the workforce to meet the financial needs of the role of caregiver. (“Women and Caregiving, 2003”)

In addition to baby boomers having the desire to remain in, or return to the workforce, some organizations also prefer and encourage older workers to remain in the workplace because of the knowledge and skills that the aging workers have accumulated throughout their careers, which companies would prefer not to part with (Tacchino, 2003). Armstrong- Stassen & Templer (2006) note that because of this, organizations will need to devise innovative, proactive strategies to entice baby boomers to remain in the workforce. In their study to determine the extent to which organizations engage in human resource practices that promote the recruitment and retention of older employees, they identified practices aimed at retaining or rehiring older works, such as job sharing; reduced work weeks; and home working. Additionally, Tishman, Van Looy & Bruyere (2012) indicate that workplace flexibility is a key human resources practice needed, and in some instances used, to facilitate the retention of older workers. Workplace flexibility allows older workers to move away from traditional full-time schedules, while gaining control over their time without giving up paid employment. Flexibility related to hours worked (i.e. reduced hours within a work week); the place where employees worked (i.e. from home or at a remote work site); and flexibility in the employment relationship (i.e. project or temporary work) were all regarded as strategies to retain older workers.

Having acknowledged the increase in the number of baby boomers in the workplace today, the need for organizations to retain their services, and the desire of baby boomers to return to the workforce- there is the corresponding increase in the number of baby boomers who are enrolling in college. Baby boomers have recognized the need to improve their skills, to allow them to be more competitive and marketable in the workplace, and to allow them to function effectively in an ever changing, advanced technological age. College education is therefore increasingly being sought after as the means to provide baby boomers with training to increase their skills set. The increase in baby boomer college enrollment is significant for instructors, who must ensure that they incorporate specific teaching strategies in their design and delivery, which can specifically accommodate the baby boomer population.

Learning Strategies/ Theoretical Framework

According to Mitchell (2004), there are core practices of key importance that are effective in helping adults learn, and these practices should be adhered to by those teaching adults, namely: teaching in small groups, providing a steady pace of instruction, ensuring practice and involvement from students and providing handouts, information sheets, and practice tests. For baby boomers specifically, Ford and Orel

(2005) note that they learn best using styles such as training seminars and workshops, books and self-help guides, and videos and audio tapes. In terms of specific teaching strategies for online learning, research indicates that there are specific strategies to be used when designing and delivering online classes. As such, teachers must use a variety of communication techniques and structured activities to provide an effective framework for online learning and must create social interaction through group collaboration to facilitate high achievement. (Hanover Research Council, 2009). The increase in the number of baby boomers returning to school, is also significant for the baby boomers themselves who must learn to adjust to the new online environment, and must learn to identify those learning and teaching strategies that will allow them to best function effectively.

Diversity in classrooms often refers to racial and socioeconomic diversity, where teachers and students differ from each other in terms of racial/ethnic backgrounds and socioeconomic status. What is often not considered however is age related diversity, where classrooms are made up of persons from different generations, such as baby boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials. According to Johnson and Romanello (2005), diversity of students across generations, introduces teaching and learning considerations, whereby teachers must note- and accommodate, the different learning styles of their students from different age groups. In light of this, the learning styles used with a group of millennials (i.e. individuals born between 1982 and 2000) such as interactive exercises, may not be suitable for a group of baby boomers. As indicated- there are distinct learning styles aligned with different groups of learners, and instructors teaching students from the baby boomer generation must be mindful of this to facilitate learning and to ensure student success.

To conduct the study, the authors used andragogy as the theoretical framework to explore how baby boomers learn in an online environment. Proponents of adult education often base the principles of how adults learn on the tenets of andragogy- posited by Knowles, although it is widely acknowledged that there is no single model or theory that can explain in its entirety how adults learn (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Several models/ theories have been presented in the literature to explain how adults learn, such as (i) McClusky's Theory of Margin, (ii) Illeris's Three Dimensions of Learning and, (iii) Jarvis' Learning Process Model, of all the theories presented however, Knowles' andragogical framework continues to shape how educators view adult learning.

Developed in 1968, Knowles' principles of adult learning, is based upon a concept of self-directed learning; experience as a resource for learning; developmental tasks associated with an adults' social role; subject centered learning; and internal motivation. (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Knowles' assumptions include the notions of:

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1. Self-Concept, whereby as a person matures, his/her self- concept moves from one of being a dependent personality toward one of being a self -directed human being.
2. Experience, whereby as a person matures, s/he accumulates a growing reservoir of experience that becomes an increasing resource for learning. In this instance information that has little ‘conceptual overlap’ with what is already known is acquired slowly.
3. Readiness, whereby as a person matures, his/her readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of his/her social roles.
4. Orientation to Learning, whereby as a person matures, his/her time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application, and accordingly his/her orientation towards learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problem centeredness.
5. Motivation to learn, whereby as a person matures, their motivation to learn is internal; and protecting one’s self concept and/or self- esteem are strong motivators to acquire new information.
6. Need for knowledge, whereby as an adult matures s/he needs to know why they need to learn something. (Knowles, 1984).

Knowles’ principles of adult learning are particularly important to this study, as it provides a framework for exploring, and understanding the lived experience of baby boomers pursuing graduate education in an online learning environment.

METHODOLOGY

To conduct the research, the authors used a qualitative case study approach to study a cohort of baby boomers who were pursuing graduate studies online. Case studies according to Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen (2011), refers to “ethnographic research... that focuses on a single unit, such as ...one group,” with the goal of the case study being to ‘arrive at a detailed description and understanding of the entity.’ (p. 29). A case study was specifically used for this engagement as it is regarded as being particularistic, descriptive and heuristic, whereby it allowed for the provision of new insights, and allowed the researchers to focus on a particular phenomenon- in this instance baby boomers in an academic environment pursuing graduate education online. Additionally, a case study was utilized as the best approach for the study because the researchers wanted an opportunity to hear the ‘voices’ of participants, and wanted to describe the unique experiences of this cohort of baby boomers, as they pursued graduate education in this emerging popular format of learning.

To identify and select participants for the study, the researchers used a non-probability sampling method, and specifically utilized a purposive sampling technique. This method was selected as it facilitated inclusion of persons who met the study’s pre-determined research criteria. The study was designed using a threefold criteria, in so far as (i) participants had to be born between 1946 and 1964, and therefore had to fit within the baby boomer classification (ii) participants had to either be currently enrolled in an online and/or hybrid Master’s program at the time of the study, or had to have already completed an online/ hybrid Master’s program within two calendar years prior to the study being conducted and, (iii) participants had to identify as African American and/or Afro Caribbean, and they had to be born and raised in either the United States of America or in the Caribbean. A composite profile of the participants is presented in Table 1.

The researchers are aware of the drawback in using a purposive sampling technique as it will not allow for generalization to the wider population, however the intent of the research is not to generalize findings but rather to explore the learning strategies of the baby boomers in the study and the challenges faced by them, while presenting their perspectives on pursuing graduate level classes online.

Interviews were used as the primary data collection method for the research engagement as they are best suited for hearing lived experiences of participants in research studies. Following Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, and prior to interviews being conducted, questionnaires were sent to participants via email to allow them to absorb the material and to familiarize themselves with the different areas that would be discussed during the interviews. Participants were also asked to provide brief responses to the questions asked, to facilitate discussions during the interviews.

Table 1. Profile of participants

Name ¹	Age Range	Gender	Cultural Affiliation ₂	Family	Employment Status
Kate	57-61	F	Afro Caribbean/ African American	Single w/ Children	Employed P/T
Sophia	57-61	F	Afro Caribbean	Married w/ children	Employed P/T
Robert	52-56	M	African American	Married w/ Children	Employed F/T
Tameka	52-56	F	African American	Divorced w/ Children	Employed F/T

¹Pseudonym used to protect participants’ identities

²Region / Race with which participants self-identified

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Semi structured telephone interviews were conducted with all participants over a 4-week period, with each interview ranging from 45- 60 minutes. Interview questions related to course delivery, challenges taking online classes and teaching strategies used by instructors were open ended, to allow participants to fully discuss their online experience. All participants were interviewed once, and two (2) participants were contacted for follow up discussions to clarify information provided in the first interview. Only one (1) interview was audio taped and notes were transcribed at the end of the interview. Extensive notes were taken during the other interviews, and the notes were used as data for analysis.

To analyze the data, the researchers followed the three-step analysis process outlined by Ary, Jacobs & Sorenson (2010) namely (i) organization and familiarization of the data (ii) coding and reducing of the data and (iii) interpreting and representing the data. To organize and become familiar with the data, the researchers read and reviewed the interview notes from each participant in the study, and made additional notes of common information that emerged from the notes of interviews with all participants. At the coding stage of the analysis, an inductive approach was used whereby relationships and connections amongst the interview notes were identified and organized into different themes and categories that emerged in relation to challenges baby boomers faced, and learning strategies used in the online environment. After the initial set of themes was identified, the data were again reviewed to look for new themes that might have emerged, and to refine the initial set of themes that had been identified. Two additional themes that emerged from the data - outside of those the researchers expected to identify were: adult learner characteristics and career advancement. The researchers independently reviewed the data and discussed similarities in themes they each saw that emerged. At the interpretation stage, the researchers discussed and sought to find meaning and give explanation to the experiences of participants in the study, as presented below.

FINDINGS: AN EXPLORATION OF ONLINE LEARNING

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand the experience of baby boomers who had returned to school to pursue graduate studies, and to understand the challenges faced by them while pursuing online classes. For this study, the researchers also sought to understand what the baby boomers perceived to be the ideal teaching strategies that should be used for them as adult learners in the online environment, and how they viewed the relationship between pursuing graduate degrees and their careers. Additionally, the researchers were also interested in cross cultural online learning within a higher education context.

Where culture and online learning is concerned, differences in culture can impact how adults learn in that learners may be accustomed to teaching strategies associated with their native culture, however these may be different from the culture where the online classes are developed- and may differ from the teaching strategies used by online instructors. In his discussion on culture and learning, Speece (2012) notes that on account of students being from diverse cultural backgrounds, there may be differences in relation to their preferred learning styles, and because of this- instructional methods that cater to only one learning style may be ineffective. Speece (2012) adds further that because learners may be from different cultural backgrounds, “careful instructional design should be able to, at least partially overcome cultural differences.” (p. 8). Additionally, as Robinson and Lewis (2011) indicate, instructional design is an important element to consider when designing learning opportunities for students from diverse backgrounds, particularly in urban contexts. We posit that the same would be true for learners such as baby boomers in online environments.

As referenced earlier, participants in this study were from different cultural backgrounds and identified as either African- American or Afro- Caribbean. The researchers sought to identify differences that may have existed in their learning styles and/or teaching preferences because they were from different cultures. Findings from this study however, did not suggest that there was any difference between participants. Participants who identified as Afro Caribbean for instance, did not cite culture as a challenge while pursuing online classes, although they attended classes offered by higher education institutions in the United States. Further to this, participants did not make reference to the need to adjust to different instructional methods while pursuing studies at US based schools. One participant, Sophia- who identified as Afro Caribbean for instance, noted that she “found returning to school as an older adult easier than when I was younger,” although her return to college was in a different cultural environment. Findings from this aspect of the study suggest that for these participants, there may be little cross-cultural impact on how baby boomers learn.

For ease of reference, findings from the other areas of the study are presented below by first discussing the experience of the baby boomers who returned to graduate school, followed by discussions on the views of the participants in relation to teaching strategies. We then explore challenges faced by the baby boomers while taking online classes, followed by discussions on the impact of online learning on the baby boomers’ careers.

Online Learning: Baby Boomer Experience

In relation to their experience returning to college, the findings of the study were consistent across participants, and indicated that all the baby boomers had similar

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experiences while pursuing graduate studies. Where changes in the educational landscape were concerned for instance, the baby boomers noted that changes in computer technology was one of the most notable changes upon their return to college. Tameka stated for instance, that upon her return to college, “computer technology advancement,” was one of the main differences she encountered. The participants noted that when compared to their first collegiate experience, technological advancement was a new experience for them as returning students. Findings from the study indicated that although the use of computers in school was a new experience for the baby boomers, it did not affect them while taking online classes however, as they had already had been exposed to, and familiar with, how to use computers prior to beginning graduate school. According to Sophia, “I was fairly versed in the use of computers,” while Tameka shared similar sentiments adding that she knew how to use the computer before starting online classes as she “was prepared by previous computer experience...to function effectively online.”

When asked to provide a general overview of their experience as adult learners pursuing graduate studies, the responses from the baby boomers also included discussions about the need for flexibility to manage the requirements of their degree programs, discussions about time management while pursuing their degrees, and discussions surrounding the characteristics of their colleagues (i.e. other adult learners) while pursuing graduate studies.

Where flexibility to manage the degree program was concerned, at least one participant noted that a return to college required flexibility to manage the demands of different courses, noting that each course had different requirements (for example group vs individual assignments). Participants noted that it was important to demonstrate flexibility to manage course demands, particularly where group assignments were concerned, as there was no physical interaction with other team members, and each team members schedules had to be taken into consideration to accommodate meeting times and assignment deadlines.

When probed further on the experience of working online in groups, one participant- Sophia, who identified as Afro- Caribbean referred to the age diversity among group members for some of her courses, noting that she often had to work in groups with persons who were younger than she was. Age diversity in this instance was described as “*fun*” by this participant, who said that she often assumed the role of both “parent” and “learner” in these mixed groups. In assuming the role of parent, Sophia noted that she often guided her younger colleagues on how to meet course demands, while assuming the role of “learner,” meant that her younger colleagues taught her things like how to use different computer programs to prepare documents and presentations.

Working with younger team members was considered a notable experience for all the participants, based on the flexibility required to work with persons who have different learning styles and values that spanned different generations. Of note, persons from different generations can find the group work experience to be challenging based on differences in learning styles across generations. Conversely, the learning process can also be enjoyable for those learners who enjoy multi-generational and inter-generational learning, and for those persons who embrace the opportunity for reverse learning, whereby younger persons teach older peers. In their work on multi-generational learning, Dauenhauer, Steitzb and Cochran (2016) note that there are ‘benefits of combining older and younger learners within higher education.’ (p. 484) and that because of this, opportunities for learning within a multi-generational context should be promoted within higher education. Findings from this study parallel the work conducted by Dauenhauer et al. as our findings support the benefits of age diversity across learning.

According to DiBiase & Kidwai (2010), time management “is a crucial learning skill for online learners.” (p. 302). Valasek (2001) supports this sentiment, adding that time management is essential for persons engaged generally in distance learning- but is of even more importance for persons engaged specifically in online learning. When discussing the matter of time management and pursuing online classes, Kate contributed that “at this stage of learning it requires more study time.” Added to the need to manage one’s time, balancing the commitment of school and family is a common theme described amongst online learners- not only those categorized as baby boomers. Based on the results coming out of his online student survey, Valasek (2001) supports this notion, indicating that successful online students are those who are organized, and are able to manage the demands of their classes along with the responsibilities of the workplace and their home.

While discussing online learning and time management, participants in this study further echoed these sentiments, and supported findings from previous research, by mentioning the importance of managing their schedules to meet their academic commitments as well as their obligations to work and family. In this instance, participants noted that they had to become structured and organized while pursuing online classes to ensure that course obligations were met, while also ensuring that they carried out their job functions and performed their familial roles as spouses and parents. While discussing her experience pursuing online studies, Tameka expressed the need for time management and outlined her personal coping skills for dealing with academic and personal obligations noting that:

Adult learning in the institutional arena required every bit of my life experiences of mental fortitude, physical endurance and spiritual dependence. My greatest challenge was being faced with the increased requirements of time management, to

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ensure that little, if any pre-educational obligations suffered. I tried to focus on the here-and-now assignments and not the long-term completion of the degree. This kept me centered and able to remember that when faced with a monumental task and objective, “the easiest way to eat an elephant is one bite at a time.”

When describing how he structured his activities to achieve balance, Robert noted that he deliberately scheduled all his online activities for times when he would be outside of the home, so that once he got home he could dedicate his time to interacting with his family. For this participant, achieving balance entailed visits to his university's campus after work hours – where these visits formed part of his weekly routine, and during this time he ensured that while on campus he accessed computers to log into his courses, and dedicated his time solely to his online classes.

In terms of the commitment to pursue graduate studies, participants noted that as adult learners, baby boomers appeared to be more committed to the completion of their tasks and achieving their educational goals, than their younger counterparts. According to Kate,

I find that the adult learners were more serious about their educational goal

This experience of the participants in the study- is consistent with research conducted on adult learners. As part of the core principles of andragogy for instance, Knowles states that adults display both a readiness to learn, and the motivation to learn, (Knowles et al. 2015, p. 80) more so than learners at other developmental stages. Findings from this study are therefore consistent with this aspect of Knowles' andragogical principles that speak to the commitment of adult learners.

Learning/ Teaching Strategies

According to Mitchell (2004), there are key practices that are deemed effective in helping adults learn, and these practices should be adhered to by those teaching adults, namely: teaching in small groups, providing a steady pace of instruction, ensuring practice and involvement from students and providing handouts, information sheets, and practice tests. For baby boomers specifically, Ford and Orel (2003) note that this cohort, “learn(s) best in a broader format of styles,” such as through: training seminars and workshops, books and self-help guides, and videos and audio tapes. In terms of specific teaching strategies for online learning, research indicates that there are specific strategies to be used when designing and delivering online classes, which differ from strategies that are used in face-face- classes. As such, instructors

must use a variety of communication techniques and structured activities to provide an effective framework for online learning and must create social interaction through group collaboration to facilitate high achievement. (Hanover Research Council, 2009).

In discussing learning and teaching strategies with participants, and which of these strategies they believed were key to successful learning in the online environment, participants in this study did not readily identify specific strategies that they believed were most effective in ensuring/ facilitating academic success. In fact, instead, participants identified several teaching methods that they reported were most commonly used which contributed to their overall success while they pursued graduate studies. Participants noted that throughout their courses, instructors used different methods such as student led discussions, group/ team assignments, discussion boards, computer conferencing as well as emails and videos as part of their teaching strategies. Interestingly, when probed further about which of these methods was the most preferred teaching method, the responses from participants was consistent, as they indicated that they had no preference for any of the teaching methods. Participants were also asked to describe which additional teaching method they would have wanted their instructors to use, and again findings were consistent across participants. Tameka noted for instance, “*I had no preference,*” which was the consistent view shared by other participants in the study who also indicated that there was no particular method that they would have wanted their instructors to use.

According to the participants in the study, their area of concern was primarily the availability of instructors, more so than the teaching method(s) the instructors used. Sophia noted for example that “*in some cases the instructors were accessible, and that was fine for me.*” As such, once instructors were available to students, this was regarded as being key to achieving academic success- rather than the instructors chosen teaching method. As previously referenced, studies on baby boomers and teaching strategies suggests that there are preferred teaching strategies that should be used for baby boomers such as videos and audio tapes. Findings from this study however are not wholly consistent with previous research in this regard, as the availability of instructors was considered more important to success than teaching methods. This reveals an area for further follow up and study. Interestingly, this study brings to light, issues related to the relevance of teaching strategies used with baby boomers, and warrants a revisit in relation to the importance of these strategies to baby boomers pursuing online studies at the graduate level. Although the teaching strategies used in the online environment has been well established as being important, the actual impact of these strategies on student success may not be of great significance as originally thought.

Online Learning and Career Advancement

When asked to describe the reason(s) for returning to graduate school after extended periods outside of the classroom, participants cited career advancement as one of their primary reasons, followed by self-actualization. One phenomenon that emerged from the data was the impact of graduate studies/ advanced degrees on the participants careers. Participants noted for example, that after completing their Masters degrees they were either promoted to more senior positions at their place of employment, or were able to begin new careers as graduate school had equipped them with the skills needed for a career change.

Kate for example, stated that although she had previous years of experiences working in her field, pursuing Graduate Studies facilitated career advancement for her in that she was more respected as a team leader after becoming qualified, whereas before her decisions were questioned because she did not have a Master's degree.

I am now qualified and respected as a team leader. Before, even though I've had years of experiences, my decisions on a management level were questioned because I did not have a Master's degree... Now that I have the Master's degree I am considered more serious(ly)... The impact has been astounding.

Kate noted further that because of pursuing graduate studies, "I have got jobs in another area that has nothing to do with my past experience, just the fact that I have a Master's degree I was given the position." Similarly, Robert noted that pursuing graduate studies resulted in a job change for him

"I got promoted, I was able to move up the ladder."

In terms of career changes, Sophia added that upon completion of her Master's degree she was able to enter a completely new field, noting "I chose a totally different career." Where competition in the workplace is concerned- most notably baby boomers having to compete for jobs with persons from different generational groups, findings from the study indicate that pursuing graduate studies also contributed to career advancement. Tameka added for example that having a degree "equipped me with skills equal to younger graduate degree professionals... It has influenced my positioning for management opportunities and a future of self-employment."

Challenges

In discussions related to challenges faced by baby boomers, respondents cited two key challenges with taking online classes, namely access to instructors and lack of technological competence. As referenced earlier, participants discussed access to instructors as being a key part of their experience as graduate students. Respondents

noted that while emails were used as the primary source of communication, they experienced challenges when instructors did not respond to email queries within a timely manner. In discussing challenges faced in the online environment, Sophia noted, “I had a difficulty only when the instructor did not respond to queries in a timely manner.” In the absence of opportunities to meet with instructors in person, the inaccessibility of instructors was cited as one of the main challenges with online learning.

In relation to technological competence, participants added that the use of technology, specifically the use of Moodle, was a challenge as Moodle was new to some persons in the study. Higher education institutions use different online learning platforms such as Moodle, to “provide educators, administrators and learners with a single robust, secure and integrated system to create personalized learning environments.” (Moodle, 2018). In using Moodle, instructors often post class notes, journal articles and assignments to the online portal, and in turn students are expected to submit completed assignments to Moodle, and are also expected to engage in online group discussions using the learning platform. While discussing the use of Moodle and challenges in the online environment however, Kate cited unfamiliarity with online learning platforms in general, noting that prior to enrolling in graduate classes “I had never heard of Moodle.” In relation to submitting assignments, this participant contributed further that when students were asked to download articles for class readings and/or to upload assignments, this initially proved to be a challenge, as there was not a clear understanding of what the terms “upload” or “download” meant.

In a discussion on technology and learning, Willis (2006) notes that “older people often lack the skills to utilize the internet effectively,” (p. 47) noting further that ‘older adults may take longer to learn computer skills than younger people do. (p. 47). Findings from this study are somewhat consistent with work conducted by Willis in relation to older persons and internet use, as participants did express an inability to utilize this aspect of the internet- albeit only initially, as they became more conversant with the use of Moodle as time progressed. Yet another challenge cited by participants in the study was related to formatting documents that needed to be uploaded to Moodle, and also conducting Internet searches using the Google search engine, to gather data to complete assignments. On these rare occasions Sophia noted for instance that if she didn’t know how to do something, “I relied on my classmates and children to fill in the gaps.”

Limitations and Future Research Directions

As with other research engagements, there are limitations to this study. These limitations do not take away from the study’s findings however, but instead are regarded as areas of potential for future research and should still be explored to provide a wholesome discussion of the phenomenon being studied.

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An initial limitation of the study was that the criteria established, required participants to identify as Afro- Caribbean or African American. This was a limitation however in that the researchers did not conduct extensive probes into the background and upbringing of the participants, and therefore did not establish clear distinctions (if any) in their educational background prior to pursuing online classes. As such, an attempt to identify differences between participants from different cultures may not have been met, as the participants upbringing - despite being from different countries- may have had more commonalities than differences, thereby having minimal impact on their experience with online learning than would be expected, had their backgrounds been different. An area of future research therefore entails a more detailed probe into the impact of culture on online learning, and the extent to which the cultural background has an impact on their success in the online environment.

Another limitation of the study, was that the researchers focused solely on baby boomers who engaged in asynchronous classes. As such, findings from the study may not necessarily be applied to baby boomers whose experience has been with synchronous online learning. Added to this, findings from the study may not be applicable to baby boomers attending college for the first time to pursue undergraduate degrees. Additionally, since the study was conducted with baby boomers who were pursuing graduate studies after extensive periods outside of the classroom -in some instances participants in the study had pursued their undergraduate degrees over twenty-five years ago, findings may not apply to those baby boomers who did not have extended time periods between when they first pursued their undergraduate and graduate studies (for example, those baby boomers who pursued undergraduate studies for the first time as adult learners and then pursued graduate studies at the completion of their undergraduate program). Another limitation of the study, was that the study lacked racial diversity and, gender and socio-economic status (SES) were not factored into the research criteria. Given these factors, the authors do not know what impact- if any, these components may have had on the participants, and by extension the outcome of the study.

Recommendations for dealing with the afore mentioned issues include conducting separate studies on baby boomers who engage in asynchronous learning to determine if there are any significant differences in the results which emerged from this study. Additionally, consideration must be given to conducting studies on baby boomers who are pursuing online classes while attending college for the first time, and who therefore have no previous frame of reference with which to compare. To address issues related to racial diversity, SES and gender, future researchers ought to incorporate greater diversity amongst participants invited to take part in studies, to accommodate a wider reach and to gain a broader understanding of the baby boomer population. While extensive work has been done on online learning in general- research is not

as extensive for online learners and the baby boomer population at the graduate level. Future researchers must therefore be mindful of this and should take these gaps into consideration to further advance knowledge in the field.

Where emerging trends in education are concerned, it would be remiss of the authors not to expand on the area of reverse mentoring as an opportunity for learning in the online environment. Reverse mentoring is traditionally seen in organizations- and is a modified type of mentoring relationship whereby young employees are paired with older, more experienced employees to help the experienced worker acquire new learning (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012). For baby boomers, reverse mentoring has been used in the workplace to provide them with social media and internet training. Within the academic context, emerging trends suggest that reverse mentoring is also being introduced to Higher Education, whereby mentorship relationships take place between students and teachers, and students take over the role of mentors for their teachers (Zauchner- Studnicka, 2017). Discussing reverse mentoring, Zauchner-Studnicka (2017) further notes that although reverse mentoring in schools is rare, and its implementation is at the elementary stage- its success in the organizational context suggests that it may be an equally viable way of learning for students and teachers. The authors of this chapter, wish to add that reverse mentoring should be extended even further, whereby baby boomers pursuing online studies should be paired and/or grouped with younger students in their cohort(s) to provide them with technological training, such as how to use and navigate Moodle.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have discussed the experience of a select group of baby boomers who have pursued graduate studies, and their experience with online learning. Majeski et al (2016) notes that while it is critical for educators to involve students in learning activities, it is also important to make the learning process as satisfying as possible. Given the changes in the demographic landscape, namely the increase in the number of older employees in the workplace and the increase in older persons within the higher education arena, this need to understand how older persons learn will continue to be of importance to educators- and will contribute to a satisfying learning experience for this group of learners.

It is believed that findings from this study can provide useful information to different stakeholders on baby boomers pursuing online graduate degrees. For baby boomers, specifically those who are contemplating advanced studies, the research is useful, as it provides them with firsthand knowledge on the experience(s) of other persons who are similar to them, and can allow them to understand and prepare for the experience(s) that they are also likely to encounter. For instructors, the study is

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useful in relation to knowing what baby boomers value and the areas on which to place great emphasis. As findings from the study indicate, baby boomers place great emphasis on the availability of their instructors for example, and this knowledge can therefore guide instructors in terms of the extent to which they ought to make themselves available to this particular group of students. For universities, the baby boomer population is a growing group in terms of college enrollment- therefore the need to take care of them and to provide services for them is paramount. This study provides useful information on how the baby boomers can be catered to, and the kinds of services they need and value. Outside of this, the findings from the study contributes to our understanding of older persons- who traditionally are not students at this stage of life- and contributes to our understanding of online learning at the graduate level.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Baby Boomers: Individuals born between 1946 and 1964 during the “Baby Boom” at the end of World War II.

Generation X: Individuals born between 1965 and 1981.

Higher Education: Colleges, universities, and institutes of higher learning that offer academic degrees and professional certifications.

Mentoring: Relationship between an experienced person and an inexperienced/younger person to help the younger person develop skills and gain knowledge to facilitate personal and professional development.

Millennials: Individuals born between 1982 and 2000, who are also referred to as members of the Gen Y population.

Online Learning: Method of delivering educational material and classes over the internet, instead of in a face-to-face classroom setting.

Retirement: Ceasing to work and leaving one's job due to attainment of a fixed age.

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Section 3

Managing Generational Dynamics

Chapter 5

Effective Management of Generational Dynamics in the Workplace

Sandra G. Bowman
University of Arkansas, USA

Sean W. Mulvenon
University of Arkansas, USA

ABSTRACT

For the first time in history there are four generations co-existing in the workplace. Each generation, Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y, has very distinct attitudes, values, ideas, behaviors, ways of communicating, and expectations. These generational differences can affect everything in the organization including recruiting and retaining employees, team building, communicating, motivating, and managing. To successfully integrate these diverse generations, companies will need to embrace changes that actively demonstrates respect and inclusion for all generations. Organizations that find a way to accommodate all generations may create a more productive work environment resulting in a powerful competitive advantage.

INTRODUCTION

There is a growing problem in the workplace today and it has nothing to do with global competition, downsizing, or unethical CEOs. Today's organizations are facing some unique problems. For the first time in history there are four generations co-existing in the workplace. Each generation has very distinct attitudes, values, ambitions,

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ideas, habits, behaviors, ways of communicating, and expectations all influenced by their historical, economic, and cultural experiences. Today's workplace is "the most age- and value-diverse workforce this country has known since our great-grandparents abandoned the field for factory and office" (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000, p. 9). As a leader, this can be a recipe for disaster, or if you find a way to marry the experience of the older generations with the technology skills of the younger generations, may lead to more productivity and profitability.

The four generations of American workers include the:

1. The Traditional generation (1922-1945), the oldest generation of which most are retired but some remain in the workforce either out of choice or necessity;
2. The Baby Boomer generation (1945-1964), until just recently represented the largest group of workers and the largest group in leadership and management positions;
3. Generation X (1965-1976), sometimes referred to as the baby bust generation because it is much smaller than the preceding generation; and
4. Generation Y (1977-1994), now the largest group of workers in the workforce, were shaped by computers and dramatic technological advances (Glass, 2007).

Today, people are living and working longer. Retiring at the age of 65 is becoming a thing of the past (Shah, 2015). The median age of the American worker in 2012 was 41.8 for men and 42.1 for women. This is the highest it has been since the passage of the Social Security Act of 1935. It is anticipated that by the year 2020, approximately 25% of the US workforce will be comprised of workers over age 55 (Department of Labor Statistics, 2015). Keeping older workers in the workforce promotes a broader range of talent but can lead to conflict because of generation gaps.

Generation gaps are as old as history so what is different today? Traditionally, the older workers were the bosses, and the younger workers did what they were told, paid their dues and waited their turn to be promoted into leadership positions, which usually happened after the older workers retired. There was a well-respected order to the workplace. Today, there is a growing trend of younger generations managing older generations. This can create conflict and friction if not appropriately managed. The older workers may be thinking: why am I being bossed around by someone who doesn't have nearly as much experience as I do? On the other hand, maybe the younger person feels insecure, intimidated, and inadequate in supervising the older workers.

Workers in the younger generations possess technology skills and a global perspective that may be lacking in older generations, but workers in the older generations have a historical perspective that is impossible for the younger generation

to replace. According to Seaman and Smith (2012) a good understanding of the past is one of the most powerful tools we have for shaping the future. All generations can make a significant contribution to the workplace.

This chapter seeks to discover some of the basic characteristics of the different generations in the workplace and discuss the relevance of these differences to organizational effectiveness.

How Do We Define a Generation?

The term “generation” has been used to refer to the family for thousands of years. It is mentioned in some of our earliest examples of literature including the Book of Genesis and the Iliad. Social scientists have used generational cohorts as units of analysis when studying social change for hundreds of years. But only in the past few decades after the workforce became more diverse has it been used to describe relationships in the workplace.

We often refer to “my generation,” “the older generation,” or “the younger generation”. But what are we really referring to when we use those terms? Dictionary.com defines a generation as: “the entire body of individuals born and living at about the same time; the term of years, roughly 30 among human beings, accepted as the average period between the birth of parents and birth of their offspring; a group of individuals, most of who is the same approximate age, having similar ideas, problems, attitudes, etc.”

All generations experience some defining moments that help shape who they become. It is no surprise that generations growing up in different time periods have different values and character traits. Because generations share a place in history and therefore, the same sociological influences, each generation develops its own unique personality. That unique personality helps determine how we view our world and how we relate with others in the workplace

Things have changed considerably since the Traditionalist and Baby Boomer generations entered the workforce. We are younger members of the Baby Boomer Generation. When we started working many offices were still equipped with manual typewriters and adding machines. If you wanted a copy of a letter, you used a piece of carbon paper and when you made a mistake typing you corrected it with whiteout. It wasn't until the mid to late 80's that everyone had the convenience of using a computer. Professional dress code was business—not business casual and definitely not jeans but suit and tie, dresses and heels. We referred to our bosses as Mr., Mrs., or Dr. Using a person's first-name was not acceptable especially if they were in a leadership position. People of the younger two generations have never seen

a manual typewriter or carbon paper. They are on a first-name basis with everyone in the workplace regardless of title. Most of them do not remember life without computers, cell phones and TV cable.

Following is an overview of the four generations and the historical events that helped shape their character.

OVERVIEW OF GENERATIONS AND GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES

Traditionalists

The oldest generation in the workplace is known as the Traditionalist Generation, sometimes referred to as the Silent Generation, the Greatest Generation, or the Veterans. Individuals in this generation were born between 1925 and 1945. Historical events that helped to shape their values were the Great Depression, World War II and the post war era. Also during this generation, Lindbergh flew across the Atlantic, the Empire State Building was constructed, it was the Golden Age of Radio, the “Silver Screen” emerged, labor unions rose to power, and penicillin was discovered (Lieber, 2010). This generation was born during a time of economic hardship and struggle. They were known for their perseverance, were inclined to be conservative, fiscally prudent, very dedicated and loyal workers. They expected longevity and security in their job (Notter, 2015). Organizations were hierarchical with a clear division of labor. This generation discovered that if they worked hard and sacrificed they could buy a house, a car and raise a family on one income (Weston, 2001). Traditionalists are the most affluent aging population in U.S. history due to their conservative nature (Glass, 2007). This generation makes up about 2% of the workforce today (Fry, 2015).

During this generation, math was done by hand because the calculator was just being invented and was not a regular household item until much later. In rural areas few households had telephones and those homes that did have a telephone were on a line with 3-6 other households. People rarely made long-distance phone calls and when they did they had to go through an operator. Most communication was done through the U.S. mail (Weston, 2001).

Baby Boomers

Baby Boomers were born between 1945 and 1965 and are the largest generation in American history. Born during an industrialized era, they were named “baby boomers” after what society referred to as “a boom of babies” born following World War II (Cates, 2014). This generation’s values were shaped by the rise of the Civil Rights

Movement, Viet Nam, the Cuban Missile Crisis, Woodstock, the Cold War, Kennedy's assassination, U.S. space program landing on the moon, and inflation. During this generation televisions became a part of every household. Boomers were raised in a nuclear family and enjoyed stability and prosperity. For the first time in history, most households enjoyed hot water, appliances and televisions. Electric typewriters, and adding machines became a staple in high schools. This generation set out to change the world through love, demonstrations, and non-violence (Lieber, 2010).

Boomers are the first generation to place a higher priority on work than their personal life. This generation exhibits a strong work ethic; they are ambitious, optimistic, loyal and great multitaskers. They tend to be slow to leave the workplace and turn over leadership to the two younger generations who are eagerly waiting to take charge (Haynie, 2013). Retirement savings of Baby Boomers were destroyed by the stock market crash in 2008 and many have had to work longer than they had planned. A recent AARP survey of people born in this era discovered that 63% plan to work at least part-time in retirement, while 5% said that they never plan to retire, some because they like working, others because they need the money to replace lost retirement savings (Weiss, 2009).

The information age happened, personal computers, calculators and automated systems took over and the workplace the Traditionalist and Baby Boomers knew no longer existed. Seniority no longer mattered as much as experience, competence, customer service, and teamwork (Haynie, 2013).

Generation Xers

Generation Xers were born between 1965 and 1976. This generation's values were shaped by the rise of MTV, the AIDS crisis, massive corporate downsizing, Reagan conservatism, Sesame Street, the fall of the Berlin Wall, Operation Desert Storm, and the beginning of the video game era. Generation X watched the Challenger space shuttle explode on TV screens in their classrooms. They have been exposed to violence and adult themes on Television (Weston, 2001). This generation was born to Baby Boomers who were much more relaxed in their parenting and as a result, this generation is referred to as the "Me Generation" because of their pursuit of personal gratification. This generation has the highest number of divorced parents and grew up as latch key kids. Coming home to an empty house, they cooked themselves a snack in the microwave and entertained themselves with television and video games. They learned to manage on their own and as a result, are very independent (Haynie, 2013). Generation X children were not as likely to sit as a family around the television in the evenings or share a meal at the table because many families were composed of single parents facing workplace demands, or both parents were working (Schullery, 2013).

Generation Xers were born in the information age. They are innately comfortable with technology, grew up with computers in their elementary classrooms, personal computers in the home, push button phones, and video games were part of everyday equipment. This has led to their expecting instant response and satisfaction. Generation Xers are often considered the “slacker” generation. They naturally question authority figures and are responsible for creating the work/life balance concept. Born in a time of declining population growth, this generation possesses strong technical skills. In meetings, they participate in discussions as an equal. They respect authority, but are not afraid of it. They formed strong bonds with school mates, often turning to them instead of family. This generation has ethnically diverse friends and is tolerant of alternative lifestyles (Weston, 2001).

Generation Xers grew up quickly and tend to change jobs frequently. They don't like to work for managers and organizations that operate according to rigid, hierarchical organizational structures. They tend to be an economically conservative generation due to growing up during a time of double-digit inflation (1979-1981) and the stress their parents faced during times of unemployment. They grew up with Dr. Spock and relaxed parenting. Parents tried to protect their kids from life-threatening events and prevent them from suffering any ego damaging occurrences (such as failing at anything). Children were frequently showered with praise and not allowed to play outdoors. This generation is self-sufficient, grew up in double-income families where their parents sacrificed leisure time for success at work (Cates, 2014; Schullery, 2013).

The Generation Xers started their job search on the internet and became familiar with the company by visiting the company's website. As this generation was entering the workforce organizations were downsizing, people were getting laid off, and workers were no longer guaranteed a job for a lifetime. They do not expect to spend a long time with one company. Adept, clever and resourceful, unlike their parents, they do not expect the US government to take care of them in their old age (Weiss, 2009).

Millennials or Generation Ys

Millennials or Generation Ys were born between 1977 and 1994. Their values were shaped by the Oklahoma City Bombing, Columbine High School Shooting, school violence, September 11 terrorist attacks, war on terror, and social networking (Lieber, 2010). This group came of age during the rapid growth of the Internet and an increase in global terrorism. Some were born to Baby Boomers and much like the Generation Xers, this generation was punished with time-outs instead of spankings. They were cuddled, pampered, denied little, and told they could achieve anything (Schullery, 2013). As a result of “helicopter parenting” they are lacking in coping skills (Cates, 2014). At the workplace, they believe they should rise rapidly through the ranks.

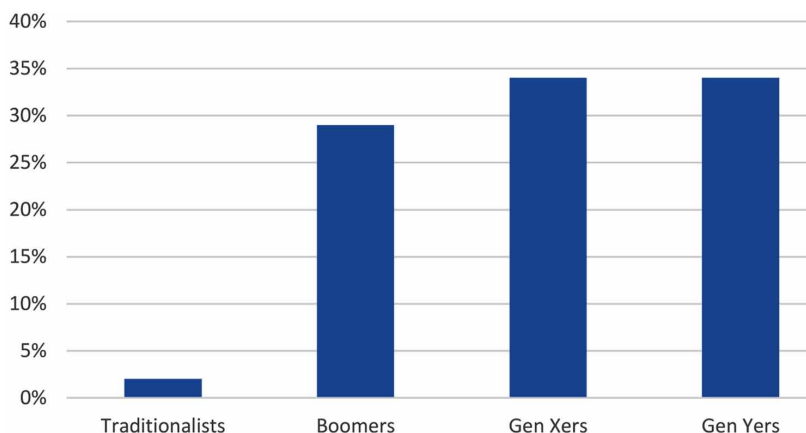
If not catered to, they hop from job to job (Eisner, 2005). Millennials want good communication, a flexible work schedule, work that is personally fulfilling, career development, and training in technical skills (Haynie, 2014). They are among the most resilient in navigating change while appreciating diversity and inclusion. They are more interested in results than the process, and want to know how their part of a project fits into the big picture. They tend to be bright, creative, and well-educated and want to be respected for those attributes although they may not have much experience. Millennials are seen as overconfident, and self-absorbed (Cates, 2014; Weiss, 2009). Known for their smart phones and tattoos, they are the first generation to grow up completely around information, media, advertising, and entertainment, needing constant stimulation to survive.

Percent of Each Generation in the Workforce

Figure 1 depicts the percentages of workers in the workforce from each generation. According to Fry, 2015, more than two in three workers are Millennials and Generation X. In recent years, the Millennial workforce has risen rapidly and will continue to grow, while the Traditionalists and Boomer Generations will continue to decline as more retire.

Understanding each generation's values and taking into consideration those values when making decisions may improve working relationships (Bowman & Capella, 2011). Generational conflict is more likely to arise from wrong perceptions and assumptions than from valid differences. Therefore, effective communication is critical in dealing with generational conflict. Effective communication involves learning and respecting each person's communication style.

Figure 1. Generations in the workforce, 2015



Communication Styles

Life would be much simpler if we all communicated in the same way. Unfortunately, we don't. Research indicates that people communicate based on their generational backgrounds (Goudreau, 2013). When Traditionalists and Baby Boomers joined the workforce, communication was very formal. Today communication is casual and colloquial. This can cause culture clashes. The older generations generally refer to people in authority as Mr. or Mrs., while the younger generation refers to them by their first name. If you are a member of the older generation, this may offend you. While Traditionalists and Baby Boomers prefer face-to-face meetings or phone conversations, Generation Xers and Millennials tend to prefer email, instant message, texting and tweeting. They want just the facts, no pleasantries (Weiss, 2009). If you text a Baby Boomer, you may never get an answer because the message may never get read.

Older generations often feel younger generations cross the line, writing emails to clients and coworkers as if they are texting without checking grammar and spelling. Managers should set clear ground rules of what is expected in communication.

The younger generations have grown up with very progressive technology. Because of this, they are used to having information at their fingertips and when they want to know something, they Google it. They are used to being bombarded with massive amounts of information at all times and have a natural ability to gather information from diverse sources, filter the information as needed, and devise solutions to problems. They are unique in that they can use digital communication technology to accomplish a wide range of tasks. They have high expectations for the systems that are used in the workplace and can get frustrated dealing with antiquated systems (Cates, 2014).

Managers may find it helpful to provide information about the general characteristics of each generation to help people understand why they see things differently than their co-workers. Learning these characteristics of other generations can help employees as they learn to communicate with each other (Haynie, 2014).

Baby Boomers tend to be highly educated. However, even highly educated, Baby Boomers with strong technology skills sometimes have problems understanding the communication of Generation Xers and Millennials—especially if they don't have children in either of those generations to educate them. As an example, my colleague recently received a text that ended with "LOL". He thought that meant "lots of love" but that didn't really fit the conversation he had just been having. I explained to him that meant "laughing out loud", which he acknowledged made much more sense given the context of the conversation.

Some organizations have found it beneficial to periodically survey their employees to determine their preferred communication style, professional plans, and values

(Knight, 2014). The more you know about the preferred means of communicating, the better manager you may be. Traditionalists like to trust their instincts; they have a lot of experience, listen to them. Baby Boomers like to be recognized for their unique contributions, give them recognition. Encourage them to mentor younger employees. Generation Xers like to make communication easy by using technology—especially for meetings and they don't want to go through a lot of different levels of management to get answers. Share your expertise with them. Millennials want you to be interested in them and their career goals. They want to be included if there is a crisis, include them (Lewis, 2010). Learning to communicate with each generation may be the key to keeping employees motivated and loyal to the organization.

The following table depicts the underlying values and characteristics which seem to correspond with each generation. The characteristics listed are just a few of those reported by various researchers (Glass, 2007; Lieber, 2010; Schullery, 2013; Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak, 2000).

Generational Blanket Stereotypes

There is no shortage of generational stereotypes in the workplace. Traditionalists are seen as old-fashioned, behind the times, rigid, autocratic, and averse to change but won't ever retire. Baby Boomers are believed to be self-centered, unrealistic, political, power-driven, workaholics, out of touch, disinterested in learning new things, perplexed by Facebook, and technologically illiterate. Generation Xers are seen as slackers, cynical, selfish, impatient, and poor team members. And, Generation Yers are seen as disrespectful, spoiled, short attention span, entitled and lazy, technology dependent, and likely to show up at the office in flip flops and shorts (Knight, 2014; Chamberlin, 2009).

The two younger generations tend to believe that the older generations are resistant to change, don't respect that things are different and tries to micromanage every aspect of their work. Older generations complain that the younger generations have no respect for authority, and they do not think they need to be supervised, do not want to be told what to do, and rely too heavily on technology. The older generation likes to say: "when I was your age..." and they lecture too much (Cates 2014).

Since Gen Xers may place a lower priority on work and maintain a work/life balance, many company leaders from the Baby Boomer generation and the Traditionalist Generation assume these workers are lazy and not as dedicated (Weston, 2009). Don't confuse character traits like immaturity, laziness or difficulty with generational traits. Generational stereotypes like these can cause miscommunication and employee dissatisfaction in your organization. Jumping to the wrong conclusion about people can disrupt the work process, and cause discontent and unrest in the workplace. It is important to remind employees that age-based assumptions at work

Table 1. Generational differences chart

	Traditionalists	Baby Boomers	Generation X	Millennials
Education	A dream	A birthright	Necessary for success	A huge expense
Work Values	Duty before pleasure, Abides by the rules, Conforms, Strict, vertical lines of authority, Respects Authority, Logical	Optimistic, Productive, Hard working, Team player, Workaholics, Always learning, Loyal, Open-minded, Personal gratification	Productive, Team player, Diversity, Technology Literate opportunities, Like to have fun at work, Work/Life balance	Tech savvy, Social media, Confident, Civic Duty, Respect for diversity, Opportunists, Collaboration, Adaptability, Entrepreneurial, Work/Life balance
Communication	Face-to-face, Rotary phone, Write a memo	Face-to-face, Touch-tone phones	Email, instant messaging, texting	Email, instant messaging, texting, Speaks to the point
Entitlement	Seniority	Experience	Merit	Contribution
Feedback Style	"No news is good news"	"Feedback once a year and lots of documentation"	"Sorry to interrupt, but how am I doing?"	"Feedback at the push of a button."
Workplace Expectations	Can be frustrated by lack of discipline, respect, logic, order and structure. Respect hierarchy, policy and procedures, and expect people to put other's needs first.	Need to know why their work matters, how it fits into the big picture, and what impacts it will have on whom. Relationship oriented, Invented 50 hour work week	Don't mind direction, but resent intrusive supervision. Prefer regular feedback about work. Will leave a job quickly if a better deal comes along.	High expectations of self and employers. Want immediate responsibility and believe they can make important contributions to the company from day one.

are no different than gender or racial stereotypes. These assumptions can lead to age-based discrimination for both older and younger employees. To help generations get to know and understand each other it may be helpful to create multigenerational teams to work on projects.

With Traditionalists and Baby Boomers approaching retirement, coupled with not enough Generation Xers to replace the retirees, organizations may find themselves in very difficult situations if they can't attract and retain the younger employees (Cates 2014). In the coming years there may be a shortage of workers due to declining birthrates. To remain competitive organizations must utilize the strengths and skill sets that are characteristic of the different generations and adapt their culture to meet the demands and expectations of each generation (Shah, 2015). Having worked in an office comprised of four generations for the past few years, I have personally witnessed the dynamics and issues that can arise. The key to creating a culture where all feel appreciated and valued is having effective leaders.

Strategic Leadership for the Cross-Generational Workplace

Regardless of which generation you belong to, we are all motivated by basically the same things. We are inspired by working conditions that give our lives meaning and purpose and we want to work for someone who is ethical and honest. Just being a leader doesn't necessarily mean people will follow you. Anyone can take on a leadership role, but that doesn't mean you automatically earn the trust, respect and confidence of your employees (Lieber, 2010). Too often we have witnessed an excellent faculty member being appointed to a leadership position and being a complete failure in that position because they never gained the necessary respect and trust in their administrative role.

Leadership styles familiar to the older generation, which was gained by rank and privilege and characterized by a command-and-control, top-down style do not work anymore. Respect and loyalty are not something the younger generations of followers will bestow on their leader simply because it is commanded, it must be earned. The key to becoming a better leader is to understand the needs and expectations of your employees and lead in ways that reflect their image of what an exemplary leader is and does. The values a leader should possess most cited by employees of all generations include:

1. **Integrity:** Which includes truthful, trustworthy, has character, and has convictions;
2. **Competence:** Capable, productive, and efficient; and
3. **Leadership:** Inspiring, decisive, and provides direction (Kouzes & Posner, 2011).

As a leader, the way you respond to generational differences may be the difference between success and failure. Leaders should understand how generational differences affect performance, motivation, success, and interactions with others. A good manager will acknowledge, appreciate, and take advantage of the generational differences (Lieber, 2010). As the four generations continue to work together, companies can no longer assume that high pay, basic medical benefits, and a 401(k) will attract the top talent. As more Traditionalist retire, Baby Boomers seek postretirement careers, Gen Xers demand challenging but balanced work assignments, and Millennials expect high perks in exchange for loyalty and technological savvy, leaders must find creative ways to recruit and retain talent (Shah, 2015; Knight, 2014).

Organizations reap many rewards if their employees are engaged in their work. Engaged employees are more productive, tend to work at one place longer, use less health care and fewer sick days, report less stress, and higher job satisfaction. Trademarks of an engaged employee include hard work, commitment and enthusiasm. These are not age specific. For employees to be engaged, employers should understand the “drivers” that help to create this type of culture in the workplace and the threats or perceived threats that would prevent it (Schullery, 2013). In a large research study of managers across six companies, researchers found that the biggest “driver” was the employee’s relationship with his supervisor (Gilbert, 2011). A successful manager will adapt their management style for each generation. As an example: An older manager was managing a young employee. Every day at 5 p.m. the employee finished his work for the day, shut down his computer, and headed home. Even though the employee was scheduled to leave work at 5 p.m. and there were no major projects or deadlines pending, the manager wanted to write up the employee for not staying late. The real problem was that the older manager valued long hours on the job, while the young employee valued life balance. We can’t manage according to our value system. We all think our way is the right way but sometimes it is necessary to consider the employee’s value system (Houlihan, 2007).

Teamwork

Most everyone in the workplace today operates on the basis of teamwork. However, each generation has a different viewpoint of what “teamwork” means. The two older generations tend to believe that everyone on the team needs to work and be available until the project is completed. Younger generations want each person to have an individual task so they can go off on their own and complete their part then come back together when they are finished (Weston, 2009).

In order to improve teamwork and team skills, management should develop an understanding of the behaviors and values needed to motivate all generations. Teamwork that is merely superficial (a department that calls itself a team) reinforces

hierarchy. Older, more experienced workers are more comfortable in hierarchies, especially since they are the workers most likely to be on top. But real teams are actually the opposite of hierarchy, they are flat, may be temporary and assume all team members will make an equal contribution, no matter where they fall in the office hierarchy. While most management believes teams in the workplace may be very effective, Baby Boomer and Traditionalist management often have a tough time implementing successful teams due to their hierarchy nature (Rao, 2014). One of the defining traits of Generation Y is their desire and ability for working in teams. Teams appeal to young workers because they have no interest in repetitive workplace tasks, even at the entry level. Well-constructed teams provide an opportunity for younger workers to be a decision maker, problem solver, and a key contributor to the work process—providing them with great experiences.

Building successful and productive intergenerational teams requires an understanding of each generation, their strengths, their way of thinking, and their work values. It requires getting to know every member on your team, how they are wired to think and what it takes to motivate them. It may require management of strong egos and constant demands for attention and recognition. Intergenerational teams will have different perspectives, different points of view and different backgrounds, which, when appreciated and celebrated can be very productive. Workplace teams that are diverse function more effectively than work groups that are homogeneous. Harnessing the richness of diversity can lead to better problem-solving and decision-making and increased creativity (Hewlett, Marshall, & Sherbin, 2013)

While teamwork and collaboration is extremely helpful and appropriate in some cases, it may be detrimental in others. In situations where creativity is important, the more minds the better. When you are brainstorming, a group of passionate people can raise each other's thinking process and help prevent stale thinking which often happens when working alone. Whether you are developing a marketing plan or designing a product, working in teams may be very beneficial. However, when tasks are very analytical and numbers-oriented, each additional voice increases the chance for error. My colleague and I experienced this just recently. We were working with a local hospital to design and analyze surveys for health care needs. Our team consisted of four people from the hospital, a network design company, and the two of us. When entering data, it has to be entered in a consistent concise manner in order to run the analytics on it. When more than one person entered the data, it was not always entered in the same way (even just a space could make the data not run correctly) and this caused many hours of extra work to find the problem and correct the errors.

Working in teams provides a great opportunity for cross-generational mentoring. When each member can witness and appreciate the strengths and skills of the other generations, it may give them a new respect for each other thereby making them more receptive to learning from them.

Cross-Generational Mentoring

Reciprocal mentoring programs where younger workers are paired with experienced executives to work on specific projects, usually involving technology, are common and successful in many offices. The older generation has much experience to share with the younger employees and the younger generations, who grew up with technology, can teach the older generations how social media can be used to improve business results (Knight, 2014).

Some studies have shown that colleagues learn more from each other than they do from formal training, which is why it is so important to establish a culture of cross-generational mentoring. In mixed-age teams, mentoring relationships develop more naturally. The older generations are more likely to fall into a mentor role and help the younger generations, while the younger employees often find it easier to take advice from an experienced worker than from one of their peers because they generally are not competing for the same thing (Cappelli, 2008). The younger generations are particularly hungry for personal, professional and career development support and they can gain much wisdom and knowledge by working with someone from the older generations. On the other hand, the older generation gains the satisfaction of passing wisdom and knowledge to others and they benefit in learning about the newest technology and emerging business trends. Younger workers can energize older workers. When an older employee resigns or retires, your company loses valuable institutional knowledge that a younger worker cannot immediately replaced.

CONCLUSION

Responding to generational differences requires awareness, effective communication and the ability to manage conflict productively. Communication skills are the foundation of effective conflict resolution skills. Developing employees' awareness of inter-generational issues and enhancing their communication skills should contribute to increased morale and productivity in the workplace. Organizations that acknowledge the experience of older workers, and respect the talents and contribution of new workers may experience higher retention rates, higher moral, and higher profits.

It is important that all members of an organization learn to work together harmoniously, mutually respecting each other. As discussed earlier in this chapter, this can be done by educating your employees on generational differences and establishing a culture that respects and appreciates those differences.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Cross-Generational Mentoring: Reciprocal mentoring programs where younger workers are paired with experienced executives to work on specific projects.

Generation: A group of people born in the same general time span who share some of the same life experiences.

Generational Differences: The theory that people born within an approximate 20-year time period share common characteristics formed by the historical and social events that took place during their formative years.

Stereotyped Attitudes: Assumptions about individual employees based on their age.

Workplace Expectations: Each generation has specific expectations from their place of employment based on their attitudes toward work.

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Chapter 6

Communicating across the Generations: Implications for Higher Education Leadership

Carolyn N. Stevenson
Kaplan University, USA

ABSTRACT

Today's workplace is composed of four generational groups of employees, each with varying degrees of technological expertise, career expectations, and professional experience. As such, higher education administrators need to identify differences among generations of workers and develop a strategic plan for managing and motivating across the generations. This case study addresses the following question: "How do higher education administrators lead and motivate multi-generational employees and online students?" An understanding of the common characteristics of each generational group is the first step for developing a strategy for motivating all employees and students in higher education. Communication, mentoring programs, training, respect, and opportunities for career advancement are components valued by all. It is important for higher education administrators to understand the values, work ethic, and communication style of the different generations. The implications for higher education administrators lie in establishing an organizational culture that promotes satisfaction for all individuals in the higher education setting.

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INTRODUCTION

As more individuals are delaying retirement and working several years past the retirement age, it is important for higher education administrators to be knowledgeable about the different generations working in various capacities in the higher education setting. College administrators, such as department chairs or other administrators responsible for training and hiring faculty members, also need to be aware of the differences across the generations. This is especially true for online instructors who do not meet face-to-face with students.

According to Ferri-Reed, J. (2013), “A mixture of the mature generation, baby boomers, generation X, and generation Y (or millennials) can be found working side by side. For the most part, the members of varying generations are capable of working well with one another, but there are generational differences that can create friction and, in some cases, cause open conflict,” (p.12). As such, the topic of engaging and managing the multi-generational workforce calls for further research. Educational leaders at all levels are challenged with leading various generations. This has had a major impact on higher education administration in terms of retention, recruitment, motivation, and productivity. Faculty members also need to be aware of the differences between multi-generational students, especially in the online classroom, and establish communication models where all students are motivated to perform at the highest level.

At the present time, there are four generational groupings of employees in the workplace and in the higher education classroom. According to Friesner (2015) the four multi-generational groups in the workplace are:

- **The Traditional Generation:** Born pre-1945;
- **Baby Boomers:** Born 1946-1964;
- **Generation X:** Born 1965-1980;
- **Generation Y or Millennials.**

In the very near future, there will be five generational groupings of employees in the workforce and in the online classroom at the same time. As individuals are working well into their late 60’s or early 70’s, higher education administrators need to adapt their leadership styles to effectively manage, motivate, and retain employees from various generations. Additionally, the flexibility of online learning promotes many adults to return to college. Students across generations have different communication styles and study habits. Online instructors need to be mindful of these generational differences and adapt a teaching style that promotes success for all students in the online classroom.

Communicating across the Generations

The diversity of generational workers and students impacts motivation and retention of employees. Additionally, higher education administrators, such as department chairs, need to train instructors on communicating with multi-generational students. This is especially imperative in the online classroom where nonverbal cues are absent. As such, college administrators and instructors need to be knowledgeable of the differences across generations and leverage the strengths of each group. “When communicating across generations most likely it isn’t just one. Most of us are trying to reach a mix of individuals, but how does each generation like to be reached and how do we combine them,” (Aalgaard, 2015, p.1).

While higher education administrators and instructors may be aware of the various generations in their institutions and classrooms, implications for motivating and managing across the generations may not have been considered. “Research indicates that people communicate based on their generational backgrounds. Each generation has distinct attitudes, behaviors, expectations, habits and motivational buttons. Learning how to communicate with the different generations can eliminate many major confrontations and misunderstandings in the workplace and the world of business,”(Hamill, 2015).

While the core values are similar, college administrators need to take a different approach when attempting to meet the needs of multi-generational employees. “The key is to be able to effectively address and take advantage of the differences in values and expectations of each generation. But experts say managers must be careful not to follow blanket stereotypes,” (*Wall Street Journal*, 2011). Online instructors also need to be mindful of these differences in the classroom and adjust communication styles to meet the needs of the diverse generational groupings of the students.

This chapter discusses the differences in communication, motivation, and work styles of multi-generational workers and students. Having an understanding of the different characteristics of multi-generational employees in the higher education setting will assist in motivating all employees. Regardless of the generational group, employees value a positive work environment, fun environment, respect, and appropriate benefits. Higher education leaders need to acknowledge the differences among the generations, keep communication lines open, and develop an environment where all employees are motivated to perform their best. College administrators also need to train instructors on communicating with multi-generational students in the online classroom. While students may have the desire to succeed, learning styles are also different across the generations.

Following is a case study discussing the issues related to leading across generations. It is important to note that the differences discussed are generalizations. While each individual is unique, there are commonalities that exist among members of all the generational groupings.

CASE DESCRIPTION

The Organization

The organization selected for this case study was a two-year college in a suburb near a large metropolitan city in the United States. Students may take classes in the traditional classroom format, online, or through a hybrid option. All courses are taught via the learning management system BlackBoard.

For this case study, four full-time faculty members were selected. Each faculty member teaches in both the online and face-to-face format. The four faculty members are of different academic rank and represent each of the four generational groupings. All of the participating faculty members agreed to discuss their experience working with administrators and other faculty members from different generational groupings. Each participant, as well as the official name of the college was changed to ensure confidentiality of the institution and the faculty members. Due to space limitations, highlights of the interviews are represented in the vignettes that follow. Participants did go into greater detail and responded to eight interview questions. The passages were selected based on the relevance to the topic.

Statement of the Problem

Literature and observation reveal that there are workplace differences in work ethic, leadership styles, communication styles, and preferred method for communication among the four generations in the workplace. Additionally, differences exist in factors which motivate individuals from the various groups to perform responsibilities to their best abilities. Some researchers argue that there really is no difference between the four generations. It is simply the time in their lives in which the groups exist. Others are concerned that educational and organizational need to recognize these differences to promote an organizational culture that fosters success and job satisfaction among all employees. This is especially important for college administrators whose employees have a direct impact on student success. The findings of the research illustrate there is a need for both college administrators and faculty to understand differences among generations in their institution and develop a plan for enhanced communication and job satisfaction at the institution.

It is reasonable to suggest there is a need for higher education administrators to identify differences among the generations of workers and develop a strategic plan for managing and motivating across the generations. This is a topic of interest for many higher education administrators as well as faculty members. College administrators are faced with a number of factors concerning creating a positive institutional culture among multi-generational workers.

Communicating across the Generations

Firstly, deans, faculty members, and other college administrators must employ strong leadership skills as well as knowledge of the generational differences of the individual. Communicating effectively across the generations is challenging and college administrators must be able to motivate others to see the value each generation brings to the institution. College administrators must be open to suggestions from others regarding changes within the institution. A basic knowledge of generational differences is also needed to guide deans, faculty members, and other college administrators in understanding the workplace values of the different generations and establishing an organizational culture that promotes motivation for all employees.

Secondly, college administrators and faculty members must re-think teaching methods and curriculum design for online courses. Four generations of learners are in the online classroom. Assignments, projects, and discussion board questions should foster critical thinking, collaboration, and creativity for all students. Market demands often influence the decision as well. Oftentimes institutions attempt to keep abreast with the competition without reflecting on the needs of the individual institution and the student population specific to the organization. In addition, teaching methods must also be considered. Online learning allows for flexible approaches for students to actively gain knowledge, but also requires instructors to guide students in learning course material through individual learning styles. Inclusion of experiential learning opportunities also allow for a holistic approach to teaching and learning.

Lastly, identifying differences among the generations of workers and developing a strategic plan for managing and motivating across the generations involves attention to a future vision and establishment of specific policies and procedures. Training for all employees at the institution needs to be designed and implemented. The institution must be committed to investing in designing online curriculum that will motivate students from all generations. College administrators must also be committed to continual training as new generations of employees and students enter the institution. While the diversity of generations continues to increase, college administrators need to cautiously develop appropriate policies, but must quickly devise new guidelines regarding motivating and retaining employees and students across generations.

Based on these facts, it is reasonable to assume that college administrators, faculty members, and other employees at the institution have a different perspective on leading and motivating across generations. Additionally, college administrators are challenged with addressing a number of issues associated with retaining quality employees and students. The problem presented in this study is to investigate and determine the perspectives of faculty members on communicating and leading students and other faculty members across the generations. Findings from this case study will assist higher education administrators in leading and motivating multi-generational employees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain selected faculty member perspectives on working with multi-generational administrators, students, and faculty. The results may assist higher education administrators in three areas.

The findings of the study will inform higher education administrators, faculty members, and other college administrators of the generation differences of individuals and students at the institution. The findings will also inform current and future college administrators and faculty members of the ways to motivate and retain employees, faculty, and students in the institution. The study will provide the basis for greater understanding of the leadership needed in educational settings that both want and have an interest in communicating, motivating, and training multi-generational employees, faculty, and students.

Research Question

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain selected faculty member perspectives on working with multi-generational administrators, students, and faculty. The exploratory questions that guided the study were:

1. What elements constitute this perspective in for working with multi-generational colleagues?
2. What variables influence this perspective working with multi-generational colleagues?
3. What beliefs do these faculty members hold which support or negate this perspective?

Methodology

The decision to conduct a qualitative study was influenced by the characteristics of qualitative design discussed by Janesick (2011). She describes research as being alive and active. It is a way of looking at the world and interpreting the world. This study focused on qualitative methods as means to understand the multiple complexities existing in the social world (Janesick, 2011).

Qualitative research involves passion for the work. The qualitative researcher is interactive in the sense used by John Dewey (1934) when writing about artists:

An “expression of the self in and through a medium, constituting the work of art, is itself a prolonged interaction issuing from self with objective conditions, a process in which both of them acquire form and order they did not first possess” (p. 65).

Communicating across the Generations

This immersion into the research process actively involves the qualitative researcher in the quest for gaining a deeper understanding of the social phenomena. A case study was selected for this study. Case studies involve an in-depth study of this bounded system and rely on a number of data collection materials. The cases used in this study were four faculty members teaching in an online format from four generations. The study sought to gain understanding of the perspectives of faculty members on working with multigenerational employees and students.

Presentation of the individual cases provides the reader the opportunity to gain understanding of the views, observations, and opinions of the individual participant perspectives on working with multi-generational administrators, students, and faculty. Direct quotes from the participants were used in the case studies as an attempt to portray the participant as an individual entity.

Data Collection

Interviews, researcher reflective journal, observations, researcher field notes, documents, artifacts, and transcripts were collected. At least two in-depth interviews were conducted with the participants. In an attempt to gather the rich, descriptive information required for qualitative research, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were used. The first step in the data collection process was conducting interviews with the study participants. The information qualitative researchers seek to gain is rich, thick descriptions of the participants in their social setting. Thus, open-ended questions were used to elicit the most complete and thorough responses from the participants.

The nature of qualitative research is flexible, as participants are being studied in their social setting. While variables in the social world cannot be controlled, the researcher can follow a format to help ensure items such as equipment are functioning.

In addition to interviews, participant observation was used to supplement the data collected in the interviews. Janesick (2011) alludes to observation as the immersion into the social setting which allows the researcher to begin to experience the experiences of the participants. The researcher observed each participant at least one time. Settings for potential observations included faculty in their offices, department meetings, and faculty interaction with others at the institution.

Observations also provided a check as to the credibility of the other data collected. Observations do require a series of planned steps. There are limitations as to the amount of information individuals reveal in the interview. Observations served as a means for verifying that the participants' actions match their words.

Document and artifact analysis, researcher field notes, and a researcher reflective journal also served as other sources of data for this case. The researcher gathered documents and artifacts from all participants as an attempt to further understand

selected faculty member perspectives on working with multi-generational administrators, students, and faculty. Field notes consisted of supporting interview and observation notes. Format for the field notes collected during interviews and observations followed suggestions provided by Janesick (2011). A researcher's reflective journal was also kept as another means of data collection. The reflective journal served as means for the researcher to express emotions, ideas, and reactions to the study. During the data analysis stage, the reflective journal provided another resource for identifying emerging themes and sub themes.

Participant Selection

Four faculty members from a two-year college in a large suburb in the U.S. were interviewed individually regarding their perspective on working with multi-generational administrators, students, and faculty. The four faculty members taught in an online format only. Each faculty member represented a member of the four generations in the workplace and online classroom: one Traditionalist, one Baby Boomer, one Generation Xer, and one Millennial. Following the recommendations of Janesick (2011), the researcher relied on collection and analysis of various forms of data. Each online faculty member was interviewed at least two times for a total of eight formal and informal interviews. The online faculty members were audiotaped for the formal interviews. Data were also collected from three observations, thirteen documents and artifacts, and nineteen researcher reflective journal entries.

The online faculty members were selected because of the representation of the four generational groupings, their willingness to talk about their experiences, and their ability to provide different perspectives. Each participant had been at the institution for at least three years, had first-hand experience working with higher education administrators, other faculty members, and other administrators at the institution.

Mike was the only male involved in this study. This was not intentional but due to the fact that the other online faculty members willing to participate in the study were female. Jane was selected because of her dual role of faculty member and her extensive administrative responsibilities at the institution. Kayla and Kendra were selected because of their willingness to participate in the study, their role as faculty member for the college for at least three years, and their interaction with other college administrators. Each participant, as well as the official name of the college was changed to ensure confidentiality of the institution and the faculty members. Table 1 shows the basic profile of each participant.

Each participant discussed his or her perspective on working with colleagues from different generational groupings. A summary of the responses follows.

Communicating across the Generations

Table 1. Case ordered matrix, participant characteristics

Faculty Member	Gender	Position	Years at College	Time in Position
Mike	Male	Dean, General Studies	18 years	13 years
Jane	Female	Professor, Philosophy	11 years	8 years
Kayla	Female	Associate Professor of Communications	7 years	6 years
Kendra	Female	Assistant Faculty, Composition	3 years	3 years

Mike: The Traditionalist

Mike was the oldest member of the participants and has also been at the college the longest. He is nearing retirement, but remains in his position because he enjoys working in higher education. In addition to his administrative role, he also teaches one online class. When asked why he does not wish to retire he responded, “I love what I do.” Prior to working in higher education he worked as a Certified Public Accountant for several years. He began teaching part-time and decided he enjoyed teaching so much, he made it his career. Additionally, he stated, “It is a great way to share my experience with others.”

When asked about working with different generational groupings, he described his experience as the following:

I enjoy working with all people. One of the benefits of being the oldest kid on the block is that I hold a wealth of experience—both in the classroom and in the boardroom. However, it is difficult at times working with younger individuals who try and rush through decisions without following procedure. I also wish younger faculty would seek out my experience more often.

When asked about the preferred method of communication, Mike responded:

I prefer a phone call for a complex issue or a face-to-face meeting. There are bi-monthly meetings with my full-time faculty members and semester meetings with my part-time faculty members. It is important to sit around the table and discuss student issues, university issues, changes in policy, and other topics.

When asked about what motivates him at work, Mike responded:

The students motivate me. I enjoy when they have an ‘ah-ha’ moment. You know, when the light goes on in their head and they really understand the concept. Also, in my administrative role as department chair, I enjoy being part of the decision-making process. In this role, I have the opportunity to meet with a number of administrators across the College. The sharing of ideas is what makes my department and the College run smoothly.

Jane: The Baby Boomer

Jane is a full-time faculty member that teaches both in the traditional classroom setting and in an online. She enjoys teaching in both formats but prefers the face-to-face classroom because of “the connection she can make with the students.” Jane started her career working as a librarian. She enjoyed the work but wanted to challenge herself professionally. She went back to college to earn her Ph.D. in Philosophy later in life and completed her degree when she was 47 years old. She began teaching for the College part-time and then accepted a full-time position. She also is a member of the College Assessment Committee and interacts with individuals various departments at the College.

When asked about working with different generational groupings, she described her experience as the following:

The diversity of individuals promotes fresh ideas. When you work with a variety of age groups, people bring experience and creativity to the table. One of the challenges I have is when new faculty complain about the amount of work involved in teaching. It is not just teaching but service to the College, service to academic community, and research. At times, younger faculty complain that there is no mentorship program to help them with their research. I never had a mentor. You have to work hard in academia—both in the classroom as well as in fostering professional development. It is part of your job, but you need to be self-motivated.

When asked about the preferred method of communication, Jane responded:

I prefer a phone call or a meeting when working with faculty members or administrators. Email is essential for the online instructor, but I also encourage students to call during my office hours. It can be easier to explain things with a phone rather than going back and forth on email. Face-to-face meetings are also important when discussing important issues as well as for keeping in touch with your colleagues.

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When asked about what motivates her at work, Jane responded:

I love my job and I love to work with both students and administrators. Research is also something I value and effort is made to stay on top of changes in my field. Conference attendance and participation are very important and I am motivated by new ideas presented by scholars in the field. Going into higher education was a choice because I enjoy helping students understand the historical and practical applications of philosophy. There is nothing better than reviewing student evaluations and seeing how much they enjoyed the Introduction to Philosophy class and how much they learned.

Kayla: The Generation Xer

Higher education was a second career choice for Kayla. After graduating college, she began her career in publishing. She worked for a major college textbook publisher for three years and then two years for a medical publisher. She began her master's program immediately after undergraduate school and completed her master's degree in communication within two years. Like many of her friends, she changed companies frequently the first ten years. There was a saying that they were part of the "job of the year club." She also worked in the insurance industry and as a technical consultant. After moving to the city, she began working part-time nights for a junior college and discovered a passion for teaching. After getting married and thinking about a family, she realized that a 9-5 job would not be conducive to raising a family. She found a full-time job in teaching and was able to balance raising children and working full-time.

When asked about working with different generational groupings, she described her experience as the following:

I never really thought about the age differences of my colleagues. Reflecting on that point, there are obvious differences, especially when it comes to communication. My department chair is older and likes to hold face-to-face meetings. Meetings are appropriate when there is a critical issue to discuss. However, meeting just to meet is frustrating for me. I would rather do my work during office hours then talk, talk, talk without an agenda or an action item. It also seems like some younger co-workers need a lot of hand-holding on projects. My work style is just to give me a project and let me go. I'll ask questions when needed. However, some of the younger workers need constant reassurance.

When asked about the preferred method of communication, Kayla responded:

Email is the communication method I prefer. It is a quick and easy way to send and receive information. For my online students, it is the only form of communication. Also, with my iPhone I can check email anytime anywhere. However, phone calls or meetings are appropriate to ensure communication of complex issues occurs. On a person level, I would rather text for short, simple messages rather than make a phone call.

When asked about what motivates her at work, Kayla responded:

I love my job and am self-motivated. Being an instructor, especially teaching online, provides a great deal of flexibility. This creates a more balanced life, especially spending time with my family. Also, I enjoy working with my colleagues on research projects. When you work with a talented, experienced group of individuals, it creates a sense of motivation for the project as well as a feeling of being engaged with their members of the College. But most of all, my students motivate me. Working with a large percentage of adult learners, especially online, really has opened my eyes to their dedication. The way the students balance work, family, school, and social issues is amazing. They inspire me every day. Yes---I do cry at graduation when I see how proud they are of themselves and how proud their family is for their accomplishments. It is such a wonderful feeling to know that I played a role in helping them achieve their dream of graduating college.

Kendra: The Millennial

Kendra always knew she wanted to be a college professor. Both of her parents were college professors and she loves the higher education setting. Upon completing her Ph.D., she was fortunate to land a full-time job and the College. She did have an opportunity to teach one part-time class prior to obtaining the full-time position. She enjoys working at the College and the fact the College is in the suburb where her friends and family also live.

When asked about working with different generational groupings, she described her experience as the following:

Since I am the youngest faculty member in my department, it can be frustrating at times. Although I don't have the experience like many other faculty, I have creative ideas. At times it feels like my voice is not heard. Also, I thought that I would be able to get more direction and mentorship when being at the College. I am new to teaching and really wished someone could have had mentored me my first year. On

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the positive side, the different age groups does allow to learn from the information shared at meetings. There are also a number of younger workers at the College that work in other departments and we do go to lunch every day which is enjoyable.

When asked about the preferred method of communication, Kendra responded:

I prefer social networking tools like Facebook or Twitter. Email is used for almost all communication with my students. However, I like working in groups on special projects and prefer to meet face-to-face with my team members on these special projects. Group work for me is enjoyable, especially when talented and creative people can share ideas openly. When we can support each other, it can be a positive experience.

When asked about what motivates her at work, Kendra responded:

It is motivating to teach others. I have always wanted to be a college professor and I enjoyed working with the students. I am also motivated by projects that allow me to express by ideas. Last spring I was able to re-design a course which made it much more current to today's students. I do wish there was more recognition for great teacher evaluation or work done on a project.

Major Themes

The themes of engagement, motivation, and mentorship were major themes from the interviews. While the participants varied in age group, all faculty members were motivated by their students. There was a major difference in the preferred form of communication. The Traditionalist and Baby Boomer preferred phone calls or face-to-face meetings, while the Generation Xer and Millennial preferred electronic forms of communication. The preferred communication style was also consistent with the literature. Another important theme was that of mentorship. The Traditionalist spoke about enjoying his work, and wanting to share his experience. The Millennial has a strong desire for a mentor.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Since the four generations of workers have very different viewpoints about job satisfaction in the workplace, college administrators need to find ways to meet these needs. The older generations of workers, specifically the Traditionalists and Baby Boomers, need to feel valued in the workplace. Online students share the same

need in the classroom. Since these two groups have the most workplace experience, there is an expectation that their experience is valued by other employees. “Veteran workers are seen as loyal and steadfast employees that an organization can count on to get specific tasks done. Baby Boomers are seen as hard, eager workers, well-suited to be brought back as consultants or for individual projects after their retirement,” (Burke, 2004, p. 9).

Generation Xer’s can be motivated by assigning workplace projects that allow for their sense of independence and problem solving to be utilized to their fullest potential. “Generation X workers can be counted on in situations where conditions are fluid or not well defined,” (Burke, 2004, p.9). This group will be motivated by challenging projects with little or no supervision. By allowing Generation Xer’s the freedom to work on alternative solutions to problems, a high sense of job satisfaction will be achieved (Burke 2004). In the online classroom, students enjoy projects where creativity can be applied. Online students also enjoyed being challenged to go deeper into discussion board posts.

Millennials will shortly hold the title of the largest generation of employees in the workplace. As more Baby Boomers retire, there will be more leadership opportunities within organizations for this group. The smaller number of Generation Xer’s will not be sufficient to fulfill these vacant leadership roles. As such, managers need to mentor and channel the talents of the Millennial group. Generation Y are highly expressive, over-confident and relatively self-absorbed risk-taking group who can move an institution forward with their creativity, innovation, global perspective, inclusiveness and immediacy. These are powerful energies to harness and transform (Paul, 2011). In the online classroom, this group enjoys collaboration and creative projects. By encouraging creativity in assignments and discussion posts, students of this group will perform their best. Students new to online learning would also benefit by having a peer mentor during their first term of classes.

It is essential that open, honest communication occurs among the generations. As described in an article by *New Zealand Management* (2012), “The future of our society is dependent upon a respectful and constructive interaction between the generations. We need many more such conversations to grow in focus and diversity; this was just a beginning,” (p.23). According to the American Management Association (2015), “A leader’s primary responsibility is to ensure that everyone in the organization understands that “working together” is not negotiable. Create a respectful, open and inclusive environment where workers of all ages and cultural backgrounds can share who they are without fear of being judged, “fixed,” or changed,” (p.1). As such, leaders in higher education need to actively pursue ways to encourage communication among generational groups.

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The differences between the generations are often easy to see in the workplace. However, it's important to recognize their similarities as well. Successful organizations are ensuring that company leaders not only understand these similarities, but create work environments that support them. According to recent research conducted by Randstad and the Center for Creative Leadership, employees across the generations agree that:

- Work is a vehicle for personal fulfillment and satisfaction, not just for a paycheck.
- Workplace culture is important.
- Being trusted to get the job done is the number one factor that defines job satisfaction.
- They need to feel valued by their employer to be happy in the job.
- They want flexibility in the workplace.
- Success is finding a company they can stay with for a long time.
- Career development is the most valued form of recognition, even more so than pay raises and enhanced titles (Raines, 2015, p.1).

College administrators, such as Department Chairs, should offer training for online faculty working with multigenerational groups. Additionally, Student Services should provide resources promoting academic success and career development. The following suggestions are suggestions for motivating and retaining online students from all generations:

- Offer peer mentoring opportunities for all first-term students. The mentoring program would allow leadership skills to be exercised by all generations.
- Provide a strong Career Services department. Students from all generations need resources for current and future career searches.
- Offer new student orientation webinars to prepare students for the world of online learning.
- Provide set policies and clear expectations in course syllabi.
- Require instructors to keep virtual office hours at a set time.
- Encourage all students to share personal and professional experience in discussion board responses.

Employee recognition is important for all generations. *The Wall Street Journal* (2011), "Even simple gestures like a pat on the back or positive email congratulations can help boost productivity with Gen Xers. Boomers may seek status so may respond best to an office-wide memo that announces that they are meeting or exceeding their

goals. Millennials may seek validation and approval so will appreciate increased responsibility and additional training opportunities. To this end, Millennials may also prefer more frequent employee reviews,” (2011).

IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERS

While placing categories of workers or students into categories based on a set of characteristics can be seen as stereotyping, it is important for college administrators and online instructors to be aware of some of the common traits. As Fox (2011) states, “A stereotype is an oversimplified characterization and therefore doesn’t apply to every person of a group at all times in all situations. However, people fall back on stereotypes related to age, physical appearance or gender when interacting. So, real or imagined, stereotypes play a role in how people are judged and how their actions and words are perceived,” (Fox, 2011, p.1).

There are personal and lifestyle characteristics common among the generations. A summary of these personal and lifestyle characteristics by generations described by Hammill (2015) are summarized as follows:

- Traditionalists have core values characterized by respect for authority, conforming, and discipline. The preferred communication media are landline phones, one-on-one meetings, and written memos.
- Baby Boomers have core values characterized by optimism and involvement. The preferred communication medium is phone with a “call me anytime” attitude.
- Generation Xers have core values characterized by skepticism, fun, and informality. The preferred communication media is cell phone (call me only at work) or email.
- Millennials have core values characterized by realism, confidence, extreme fun, and highly social. The preferred communication media is social media (such as Facebook and Twitter), Smartphones, and email.

According to the research, there are also workplace characteristics that are common among the generations. A summary of these workplace characteristics by generations described by Hammill (2005) are summarized as follows:

- Traditionalists have work ethics characterized by hard work, respect for authority, sacrifice, duty before fun, and adherence to rules. Work is considered an obligation. The leadership style is directive and command and

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control. The feedback and reward system is “no news is good news” and “satisfaction in a job well done.” The message that motivates is that your experience is valued.

- Baby Boomers have work ethics characterized by being workaholics, working efficiently, crusading causes, desiring quality, and questioning authority. Work is considered an exciting adventure. The leadership style is consensual and collegial. The feedback and reward system is “don’t appreciate it.” The message that motivates is time and money.
- Generation Xers have work ethics characterized by being direct, being self-reliant, demanding structure, and being skeptical. Work is considered a challenge and a contract. The leadership style is everyone is the same, challenge others, and ask why. The feedback and reward system is “sorry to interrupt, but how am I doing?” and “freedom is the best reward.” The message that motivates is forget the rules and do it your way.
- Millennials have work ethics characterized by multitasking, tenacity, tolerant, and goal-oriented. The leadership style is collaborative. The feedback and reward system is “whatever I want, at the push of a button” and meaningful work. The message that motivates is you working with other bright, creative people.

Working with multi-generational employees is not a new phenomenon. Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, and Generation Xer’s have all worked side by side for several years. The same is true for online students. Due to the flexible nature of online learning, adult learners of all ages have been drawn to the virtual classroom for many years. However, this is the first time four generations will be in the workforce and online classroom at the same time. Each generation has brought a set of core values, beliefs, and technological aptitude in the workplace. However, these qualities do change over time as work/life priorities shift and change. According to Baltierra (2005), “Generational differences are unique in that all of us tend to forget that our perspectives change over time and that each of us has a unique set of life experiences and expectations. Therefore, it is important to be able to find ways that we can ‘connect’ with each other and see the things that really drive us at work,” (p.1). Since the generations work in various positions, creating a collaborative work environment is needed to ensure both the success of the individual as well as the institution.

In an effort to develop a strategic plan for managing, recruiting, retaining, and motivating employees across generations, an understanding of the common characteristics is needed. Several factors impact the common traits of the various generations. Societal issues, economics, and technology all impact the values and ethics of the workers. “Members of the Silent Generation, or Traditionalists, grew up during the devastation of the Great Depression and came of age under the

sacrifices of World War II. They witnessed the growth of the federal government as Social Security programs created jobs and safety nets for the poor and the elderly. Therefore, Traditionalists' values in the workplace tend to be frugality, adherence to rules, loyalty to employers, and a deep sense of responsibility and sacrifice for the good of the organization," (Fox, 2011). Although Traditionalists make up a smaller percentage of the workforce, their work ethics and values are very much aligned with traditional corporate structure. "The culture they created is fiscally conservative, rewards tenure and loyalty, is rules-focused, and measures performance based on the number of hours worked," (Fox, 2011).

The Baby Boomers represent the largest number of workers in the workforce. "Independence and social consciousness are Baby Boomers' bedrock values. They marched against 'the establishment' to bring about equal rights and an end to the Vietnam War. Competitive and independent, Baby Boomers are workaholics, with identities closely aligned to their professions," (Fox, 2011).

Generation X is often considered the "lost generation," since this is the smallest group in the workforce. Growing up, members of this group were often latchkey children, with both parents working outside the home or divorced. "This generation saw the invention of the personal computer, a deregulated airline industry, and multiple recessions. They became technologically astute, more mobile and highly educated, as they went back to school when they couldn't find jobs. Self-management, pragmatism, and cynicism are traits associated with Generation X," (Fox, 2011).

The impact of the economic, social, and technical advancement had an impact on the way this group views corporate loyalty. "Their value set is focused on gaining transferable skills so that they can be ready when the rug is pulled out from under them—as it has throughout their lives. All the major institutions fell apart around them—marriage, family, corporations and the economy. Their attitude is, 'You've never done anything for me. Why should I do something for you?' "(Fox, 2011).

Millennials have been raised around technology. This group also is a heavy user of social media such as Twitter and Facebook. This sense of creating a collaborative network also translates into the Millennials' work preference for working in teams. As children of Baby Boomers, they were raised with the "Everyone Gets a Trophy Mentality." This group had been characterized in the research as needing constant praise and views career advancement based on work performance rather than seniority, (John & Johnson, 2010). "Raised by Baby Boomers who desired peer-like relationships with their children, Millennials have been constantly coached, praised and encouraged for participation—rather than for accomplishments," (Fox, 2011).

While Generation Xer's seek to find a work/life balance, "Millennials view work as a key part of life, not a separate activity that needs to be 'balanced' by it. For that reason, they place a strong emphasis on finding work that is personally fulfilling. They want work to afford them the opportunity to make new friends, learn new skills,

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and connect to a larger purpose,” (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). This characteristic is important to job satisfaction of this group. Employers need to be aware of the high standards that Millennials set for themselves and their employers and seek out ways to motivate and retain this group.

College administrators should also acknowledge the challenges faced by employees when younger members of the institution serve as a supervisor for an older worker. In a 2010 survey conducted by Career Builder, more than half (53 percent) of workers ages 45 and up said they have a boss younger than them, followed by 69 percent of workers ages 55 and up. According the survey Career Builder (2010), workers reported that there are a variety of reasons why working for someone younger than them can be a challenge, including:

- They act like they know more than me when they don't.
- They act like they're entitled and didn't earn their position.
- They micromanage.
- They play favorites with younger workers.
- They don't give me enough direction (CareerBuilder, 2010, p.1).

CareerBuilder (2010) offers the following suggestions for older generations with younger supervisors:

- **Understand Others' Point of View:** Different generations tend to have differing opinions on a variety of topics, from management style to pop culture. Put yourself in others' shoes to better understand where they're coming from.
- **Adapt Your Communication:** Younger workers tend to favor communicating frequently using technology, such as e-mail and instant messenger. Older workers may prefer more face-to-face contact. Both parties should take this and other communication differences into consideration when interacting.
- **Keep an Open Mind:** Try not to make assumptions about those who are of a different age group than you. All workers have different skill sets and strengths, so see what you can learn from others rather than making judgments based on their age (CareerBuilder, 2010, p.1).

The suggestions offered by CareerBuilder (2015) are useful for both college administrators as well as online faculty members. Administrators can use the suggestions for training faculty to be aware of the ways older students may communicate with younger students and younger instructors. Being aware of generational differences, without stereotyping individuals, can assist in creating more satisfying work and classroom environments.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The study findings and review of the literature raise interest related to the diversity of multi-generational workers in higher education settings. This is a trend that will continue to increase both on a national and international level as more of the Millennials enter the workplace and take on leadership roles in higher education. The research also shows that members of the Millennial group require mentoring and are looking for growth in their career in an environment that fosters collaboration and creativity.

The field of higher education is competitive on a global scale. With the number of online for-profit institutions and traditional on-ground institutions all competing for the same students, it is imperative that higher education administrators recruit and retain the best employees in an environment that fosters growth. This covers individuals across the institution: financial aid, student services, faculty, advising, and admissions.

Once hired at the institution, it is important that higher education administrators keep these employees. With four generations of workers in the institution, each group needs to feel valued and respected in their individual role. College administrators can leverage this diversity by channeling into the factors that motivate the different groups. For example, the Millennial group often seeks mentorships. Mentors can be provided from older workers to coach new employees or faculty.

Online faculty members need to be aware of the multi-generational groups of students in the classroom. This may be difficult because unless students self-disclose this information on a discussion board or in a webinar, there is no way to track the age of the student. Since the majority of online students are adult learners, faculty need to be trained on communication styles for all the generations. While Millennials may send numerous emails and ask for sample projects, a Baby Boomer may ask for a phone call to ask questions about a project. Setting clear expectations in the course syllabus is important for students of all generations. Well-defined rubrics are also important in outlining the expectations for the students.

Higher education administrators may consider reviewing other case studies established by corporations that address multigenerational concerns. Businesses can provide a viable model for implementing a strategy for creating a collaborative spirit in the educational environment. At times, there may be a tendency to view higher education as an entity separate from business. However, the mission to provide a service to individuals is the same. As such, there is a common need to create an environment in which people want to work, be it a corporate or educational setting.

Many businesses have done extensive studies on ways to create a cohesive multi-generational workplace. Higher education administrators can use the experience from these corporations to also address multi-generational concerns and remain

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competitive in a global economy. For example, Cisco is one company that can be used as a model for higher education administrators charged with enhancing motivation, leadership, and communicating across multi-generational workers and faculty.

Delong & Associates (2009) prepared a case study that describes the importance of enhancing engagement across generations at the company. Higher education administrators can also apply these guidelines for supporting employee collaboration and engagement across the generations to the educational institution. According to Delong & Associates (2009), five key practices stand out in shaping Cisco's work environment:

- **Continually Communicating the Big Picture:** Employees of every generation need to understand how their jobs fit into the organization's overall mission. Making sure all employees and managers know how their efforts are directly connected to the firm's larger mission is essential for creating a sense of purpose, giving work greater meaning, and increasing engagement.
- **Creating Structures that Increase Collaboration and Engagement:** Working together to create strategy and direction means people are incredibly engaged in execution. Strong emphasis on career and leadership development. Keeping employees engaged in growth opportunities can mean international assignments, rotational assignments, or working on high-visibility projects. Keeping employees engaged in growth opportunities can mean international assignments, rotational assignments, or working on high-visibility projects.
- **Maximize Work-Life Integration and Flexible Work Options:** The company recognizes that one of the primary sources of disengagement for employees is health problems. So they have invested heavily in wellness programs designed to meet a wide range of employee needs. The company has also adopted an optional flexible work schedule. However, one challenge is creating programs, which may include telecommuting, part-time work, and sabbaticals, that are appealing to all generations.
- **Leveraging the Benefits of Social Networking Tools:** Leaders actively promote the use of new social networking technologies to build relationships, increase collaboration, and enhance employee engagement. Research shows that employees who feel personally connected to their co-workers are more likely to stay with the organization (Delong & Associates, 2009).

Organizations succeed when they create a work culture that encourages people from all generations to contribute to their fullest potential. According to Raines, (2015), these organizations:

- *Know their company demographics—internally and externally.* They gather data about their current customers and target where they want to increase market share. They gather data and learn about their employees and consider how well their staff mirrors current and projected customers.
- *Are intentional about creating and responding to generational diversity.* They identify needed skill sets within the company and recruit new staff from across the generations. They seek out individuals from under-represented generations for work teams, boards and advisory groups.
- *Build on strengths.* The most effective mixed-generation work teams recognize the unique strengths of each individual. Successful companies find ways to bring out those strengths and help each individual develop his or her talents so they can reach their own potential and contribute in their own ways.
- *Offer options.* They recognize that people from a mix of generations have differing needs and preferences and design their human resources strategies to meet varied employee needs. They offer a variety of benefits, flexible schedules, and an array of opportunities for professional growth and advancement.
- *Develop an understanding of and appreciation for generational differences and strengths.* They find ways to learn about their employees' needs, perspectives and interests and share that learning across the organization. They structure opportunities for less experienced employees from each generation to learn from their more experienced and knowledgeable colleagues.
- *Train people to communicate effectively across generations.* Communication styles and levels of comfort with varied technologies differ from one generation to the next. Successful companies recognize those differences, employ an array of communication methods and teach employees how to reach out effectively to their colleagues and insure that their communication approaches are inclusive and welcoming (p.1).

There are several opportunities for further research based on themes that emerged from the research and review of the literature. Higher education administrators may wish to conduct studies from the students' perspective. Understanding how multi-generational students learn in the online classroom would benefit the institution and promote student success. Additional research on the perspectives of higher education administrators would also call for further study. Specially, researching the ways multi-generational leaders promote engagement from all employees across the institution. Additional information from the faculty perspective calls for further research. The faculty members who participated from this study were from one institution. Drawing opinion from online, traditional settings, for-profit, and not-

for-profit institutions would offer a more diverse perspective. Finally, the research should be done on a global scale. This study was limited to the U.S. higher education administrators would benefit from the global perspective.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the findings of this study and review of the literature conclude that higher education administrators must assess the challenges and benefits associated with working with multi-generational employees. The Millennial group is the largest generational grouping since the Baby Boomer era and will soon hold more leadership roles at institutions of higher learning. More junior-level faculty will also be from this generational grouping and higher education administrators need to develop a plan to motivate and retain this group of individuals.

There have been numerous studies outlining ways to communicate, motivate, engage, and retain multi-generational employees and higher education faculty. Yet there have been few studies that describe and explain from the students' perspective ways to engage and motivate multi-generational peers in the online classroom. Gaining a better understanding of the faculty members' perspective on working with multi-generational peers had led to the identification of major themes and sub-themes related to mentorship, engagement, leadership, and motivation. These findings may be useful to future researchers who investigate educational leadership, communication, and diversity issues. Additionally, higher education administrators who are responsible for making hiring decisions may also utilize the findings in this study to enhance their understanding of the need to train and mentor new employees and faculty members on ways to work in a multi-generational college setting.

The findings of the research questions presented here, if conducted, may help to further understand the questions about working with multi-generational employees and faculty in higher education on an international level, faculty resistance and administrative pressure related to change, and the impact of student demographics and socioeconomic status on student success in online learning courses. As the student population of higher education is becoming more diverse in terms of gender, race, demographics, and sexual orientation, gaining an understanding of the ways to motivate and retain students because a critical issue. In an era of a rapidly changing landscape in higher education, higher education administrators need to look at the value the multi-generational groupings bring to the institution and assess ways to motivate and retain quality faculty members, administrators, other institutional employees, and students.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Baby Boomers: Individuals born between 1946 and 1964. Work ethic and values for this group include being a workaholic and a high level of personal fulfillment.

Collaborative Learning: This term is used to refer to students working on a computer-based learning program that requires them to collaborate by, for example, taking different roles, operating different controls, etc.

Experiential Knowledge/Learning: This term describes knowledge gained through experience/learning through experience. Contrasts, and moreover conflicts, with academic knowledge and learning through instruction.

Generation Xer's: Individuals born between 1965 and 1980. Work ethic and value for individuals in this group include wanting structure and direction. This group was the first focus on work/life balance.

Holistic: This term is used to describe an integrated knowledge structure or an approach to learning that recognizes that knowledge needs to be integrated.

Mentoring Programs: Formal or informal programs in which more experienced individuals assist individual with limited experience. Mentor programs can occur in the workplace as well as the classroom.

Millennials: Individuals born between 1965 and 1980. Work ethic and value for individuals in this group include questioning what is next and multitasking. This group also has a high interest in creating work/life balance.

Multi-Generational Work Groups: The representative of four generations in the workplace. This includes Traditionalists, Baby Boomers, Gen Xer's, and Millennials.

Traditionalists: Individuals born pre-1945. Work ethic and values for individuals in this group include sacrifice and completion of tasks before personal enjoyment.

Virtual Teams: Groups of individuals working in a professional or academic setting set out to achieve common goals or completion of a project. Communicating is not face-to-face but occurs via electronic format.

Work/Life Balance: Creating a balance between achievement and enjoyment. Work can also refer to tasks that need to be completed in the household in addition to a formal place of employment.

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Chapter 7

Would You Accept a Facebook Friend Request from Your Boss? Examining Generational Differences

Katherine A. Karl

University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, USA

Richard S. Allen

University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, USA

Charles S. White

University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, USA

Joy Van Eck Peluchette

Lindenwood University, USA

Douglas E. Allen

Bucknell University, USA

ABSTRACT

Because Millennials and Generation X tend to desire close relationships with their leaders, expect frequent and open communication, and integrate their personal and professional contacts via social media, it was predicted they would be more likely than Baby Boomers to accept a Facebook friend request from their boss. Although no main effect was found for generational differences, a significant interaction between self-disclosure and generation was found, such that self-disclosure was positively related to acceptance of a friend request from one's boss for Baby Boomers and Generation X, but negatively related for Millennials. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

With the ever-increasing popularity of social media, employees are interacting more with their coworkers, supervisors, and other professional contacts in online social networks such as Facebook (McDonald & Thompson, 2016; O'Connor & Schmidt, 2015). A recent study indicated that 60 percent of employees report having one or more co-worker "friends" on Facebook, and 25 percent of employees reported they were Facebook friends with their supervisor (Weidner, Wynne, & O'Brien, 2012). Likewise, a study of over 300 full-time professionals found that over 90 percent had accepted Facebook friend requests from their co-workers (Frampton & Child, 2013). While such social media connections between employees and their professional contacts results in greater sharing of information and builds social capital, they may also present concerns with regard to privacy and professionalism (Ollier-Malaterre, Rothbard, & Berg, 2013).

The challenge lies in carefully balancing what is disclosed to whom. Without visual or setting cues, social network users may forget to self-monitor what they post (Nguyen, Bin & Campbell, 2012). In addition, individuals do not have total control over what is posted about them since personal contacts have the ability to disclose information that may be viewed as inappropriate or unprofessional. It is also important to note that not all professional relationships may be the same and that the level of concern about what is disclosed via social networks and by who will differ depending on the type of relationship (Karl & Peluchette, 2011; Peluchette, Karl, Coustasse, & Emmett, 2012). Probably one of the most valued professional relationships that individuals have is with their immediate supervisor/boss and the question of whether one should connect with one's boss via social media has received considerable attention in the popular press in recent years. From "Request denied: Reasons not to friend your boss on Facebook" to "5 Reasons to Friend Your Boss on Facebook," there are literally thousands of online articles dealing with this issue.

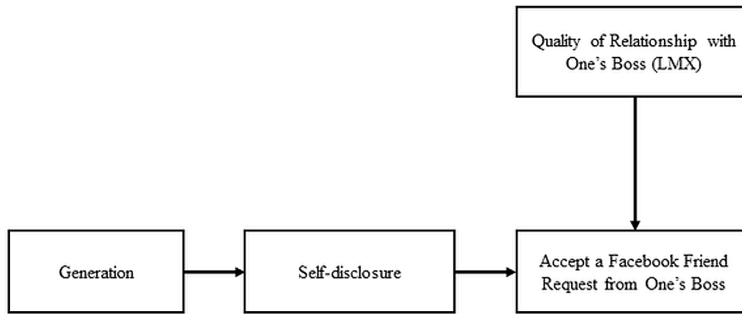
However, the academic literature examining workplace social media connections has been slow to emerge and, to date, research shows rather mixed findings. Some studies indicate that respondents are supportive of such connections with supervisors, seeing it as an opportunity to build networking and enhance one's career. For example, Karl and Peluchette (2011) surveyed undergraduate students in the U.S. and found that most (84%) would accept the request, although 33 percent indicated they would have reservations about doing so. Similarly, a study of healthcare providers found that 72 percent would accept a friend request from their boss, although 24 percent would have reservations about this (Peluchette, Karl, Coustasse & Emmett, 2012). In addition, a study of 765 librarians found that only 19 percent would not accept requests from their supervisor (Del Bosque, 2013).

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Other studies show evidence of concern about such relationships, citing the need for privacy and boundaries or concerns about negative impressions being formed. In a qualitative study examining 75 contributors to four blog sites, Peluchette, Karl and Fertig (2013) found that 45 percent (N=34) believed that the boss's friend request should be accepted, but 21 of the 34 indicated that privacy settings should be used and the boss should be blocked from all or most content. In addition, seven of the 34 believed that users would need to keep their site free of anything that is not highly professional. Two others advised accepting the boss's friend request but creating a second Facebook page for "real" friends. In another qualitative study of Microsoft employees, Skeels and Grudin (2009) found that several participants experienced uneasiness when receiving a friend request from a senior manager. For example, one employee said, "It led to a dilemma because what do you do when your VP invites you to be his friend?" Another asked, "If a senior manager invites you, what's the protocol for turning that down?" (p. 7). Most of their respondents reluctantly accepted the requests but restricted what they posted. Yet, they were still concerned about their friends' postings, as exhibited by the following comment: "Can I rely on my friends to not put something incredibly embarrassing on my profile?"

While the above findings show a range of attitudes regarding this issue, we know little about how these attitudes might differ by those in different generational groups. Recent statistics show that, while Facebook is still very popular with Millennials, the largest growth in users has occurred with older generations. Since 2011, Facebook has added 16.4 million new users in the 35 to 54-year old demographic an (increase of 41 percent), 2.4 million new users among adults age 55 and over (an increase of 80 percent), and 10.8 million new users in the 25 to 34 demographic (an increase of 32 percent) (Neal, 2014). Now that there are multiple generations in the workplace who are using social networking sites, it is important to examine whether there are generational differences in attitudes regarding employee/boss friend relationships via Facebook. This paper will begin by discussing differences between the generational groups (e.g. Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials) and how these differences might influence their likelihood to accept a Facebook friend request from their boss. Using the generational birth year guidelines of Howe and Strauss (2009), we define Baby Boomers as those born 1943 to 1960, Gen Xers born 1961 to 1981, and Millennials born 1982 or later. We also examine two additional factors that may be likely to influence this decision, namely their personal disposition for self-disclosure and the quality of the relationship that individuals have with their supervisor. Figure 1 outlines the framework for our study.

Figure 1. Model of hypotheses



Generational Differences

Academic research examining the managerial implications of managing different generations in the same workplace has grown tremendously in recent years. Much of this research has focused on job attitudes (e.g., Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt & Grade, 2012), job values (e.g., Parry & Urwin, 2011), and the narcissistic personality trait (e.g., Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell & Bushman, 2008). While some studies have found significant differences among generations (Cogin, 2012; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Twenge, 2010), others have not (Costanza, et al., 2012; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Mencl & Lester, 2014; Real, Mitnick & Maloney, 2010). While there are no academic studies to date which have examined generational differences in employee/supervisor relationships via social media, we believe that existing research on generational differences in leadership preference, communication, use of technology, work-life balance, and boundary management preference provides support for how individuals from different generational groups would likely respond to such a request from their boss.

Research shows that there are generational differences in the kind of relationship employees want to have with their boss. Hershatter and Epstein (2010) claim Millennials want their bosses to be honest, open minded and “someone who will be a friend and co-worker.” This is supported by studies that show Millennials are eager to develop close relationships with their supervisors (e.g., Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Hill, 2002; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Martin, 2005). Using support from Howe and Strauss (2007), Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) argue that Millennials’ desire for close relationships with their supervisors may be due to having closer relationships with their parents than previous generations, whereby supervisors become their “workplace” parents. Millennials are also encouraged by their parents to challenge authority, assert themselves, and befriend friends of their parents, and are less likely to be intimidated by individuals who are more senior (either in age

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or status). Gen X employees have been similarly described as valuing empathy in their leaders and desiring a relationship in which both they and their leaders have a genuine interest in each other's respective problems and viewpoints (Muchnick, 1996) and a strong need for personal contact (Macalister, 1994). In support, Lyons and Kuron (2014) reviewed the results of four cross sectional studies examining generational differences in the importance of various leader characteristics and concluded that there is modest evidence that younger generations (Millennials and Gen X) prefer more relationship-focused leaders (those high in inter-personal dependability, support and trust) as opposed to task-focused leaders (personal credibility, competence and foresight).

Regarding communication, Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) cite evidence suggesting that Millennials expect communication with supervisors to be more frequent and more affirming than previous generations (e.g., Gursoy et al, 2008; Hill, 2002; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Martin, 2005). There is also evidence that Millennials tend to ignore boundaries by expecting to be kept in the communication loop and having little tolerance for organizational policies in which information is communicated on a "need-to-know basis" (Balda & Mora, 2011). This expectation for open communication may, in part, be due to Millennials' experience with having all the information they needed available with the touch of a button through the internet and that the idea of restricting dissemination of information is contrary to their experience and violates their perceptions of fairness (Hershatter & Epstein, 2010). Again, similar claims have been made for Gen X employees in that they value direct communication from their managers (Muchnick, 1996) and expect managers to keep the lines of communication open by not hiding or hoarding information (Tulgan, 1995).

Given the differences in the availability of technology for various generations, it is not surprising that several studies have found that, compared to Baby Boomers, Millennials and Generation X are more comfortable with technology and place a higher value on it (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag, 2013; Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012; Rodriguez, Green & Ree, 2003). For example, when Baby Boomers entered the workplace, the primary means of communication were face-to-face, telephone, or traditional mail. When Gen X entered the workplace, email had become a common communication medium. While still not common, and sometimes prohibited in the workplace (Gaudin, 2009), use of social media is most popular with Millennials (Duggan, Ellison, Lampe, Lenhart & Madden, 2015). Research also shows that Millennials place a higher value on social media than either Generation X or Baby Boomers (Lester et al., 2012).

It has also been suggested that Millennials are "integrators" and value work-life integration (Chalofsky & Cavallaro, 2013; Chatrakul Na Ayudhya, & Lewis, 2010). Work-life integration differs from work-life balance in that work and personal lives are blended and facilitated by, and is often unavoidable because of, communication

technologies (Diaz, Chiaburu, Zimmerman, & Boswell, 2012). In terms of generation differences, Haeger and Lingham (2014) found a clear trend toward work-life fusion as a cohort becomes younger.

Similarly, findings from a recent study conducted by the IBM Institute for Business Value suggest that there are generational differences in how individuals integrate their personal and professional contacts via social media. Of the 1,784 employees in 12 countries who were surveyed, results show that 27 percent of Millennials and 24 percent of Gen X employees use their personal social media accounts for business purposes whereas only seven percent of Baby Boomers do so (Baird, 2015). They then asked those who use their personal accounts for business purposes how frequently they did so and found that 59 percent of Gen X employees frequently used their personal social media accounts to communicate with coworkers or business partners compared to 55 percent of Millennials and 41 percent of Baby boomers.

In addition to this literature, evidence from surveys conducted by marketing and research firms provide support for generational differences in friending supervisors via social media. For example, the SodaHead.com survey mentioned earlier (“Quick Votes: Anonymous Advice and the Web,” 2014), found that older Millennials (those 25 and older) were the most comfortable with being Facebook friends with their boss (31%) whereas older generations were less comfortable (16-18%). However, only 16 percent of younger Millennials (those in the 18 to 24 age group) said they would feel comfortable being Facebook friends with their boss. Another survey by Adecco (“Adecco America’s Best Boss Survey Results,” 2010) showed that, while all generations were almost equally likely to be connected to a boss on Facebook, Gen-X (42%) was the most likely to feel that connecting to their boss on a social network improved their chances of advancing in the company, compared to 23 percent for both Boomers and Millennials. Likewise, a Russell Herder survey (“Making the Connection: How Facebook is Changing the Supervisory Relationship,” 2011) found younger workers (age 18 to 34) were more likely to be Facebook friends with their bosses at 26%, compared to just 10% of those 35 or older.

Overall, anecdotal evidence and the literature reviewed above suggests that, compared to Baby Boomers, Millennials and Gen X employees have a greater desire to form a close relationship with their leaders, expect frequent and open communication, place a higher value on social media, and are more likely to integrate their personal and professional contacts via social media. It follows that Millennials and Gen X would also be more likely than Baby Boomers to friend their boss on Facebook since this would help to facilitate a more personal relationship and open communication with their boss. Therefore, we predict that:

Hypothesis 1: Millennials and Gen X will be more likely than Baby Boomers to accept a Facebook friend request from their boss.

Self-Disclosure

Self-disclosure, or the sharing of information about oneself with others, is widely recognized as playing a critical role in building interpersonal relationships (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Jourard, 1971; Luft, 1969). It increases mutual understanding, builds trust, and is often reciprocated within a dyad, thereby strengthening the bond between the two parties. As a result, self-disclosure is associated with higher levels of liking (Collins & Miller, 1994). In other words, higher levels of self-disclosure lead to higher levels of attraction toward the discloser.

Research examining self-disclosure among Facebook users has received a great deal of attention (e.g., Bargh, McKenna & Fitzsimmons, 2002; Chang & Heo, 2014; Hollenbaugh & Ferris, 2014; Joinson, 2001; Nguyen, Bin, & Campbell, 2012). Studies show that individuals tend to disclose more information online than they would in face-to-face interactions (Ho & McLeod, 2008; Tidwell & Walther, 2002) and that this tendency may be due to an anonymity (Joinson, 2001) or disinhibition effect (Suler, 2004). That, is, in the absence of visual or social cues, people tend to say and do things that they would not normally say or do in face-to-face situations.

Millennials, once the sole users of Facebook, were often criticized in the popular press for their complete lack of self-censorship or too much self-disclosure with regard to what they posted on Facebook (e.g., Hechinger, 2008; Stone & Brown, 2006). For example, they frequently shared details about their sexual partners, how many drinks they had at a friend's party, or posted scantily clothed or otherwise risqué photos (Brandenburg, 2008; Karl et al., 2010; Peluchette & Karl, 2010). Furthermore, this information was shared with the entire Facebook audience as privacy settings were rarely, if ever, used (Wilson, Gosling & Graham, 2012). One reporter indicated that "young people today have a willingness, bordering on compulsion, to broadcast the details of their private lives to the general public" (St. John, 2006, p. 8). However, as Facebook use has increased among other generations and non-student populations, concerns for privacy and the use of privacy settings has increased (Stutzman, Capra & Thompson, 2011). Most of the existing literature examining self-disclosure on Facebook has focused on young adult samples. One exception is a study of 288 adolescents (aged 9-19) and 285 adults (aged 19-71) examining both privacy and self-disclosure (Christofides, Muise, & Desmarais, 2012). The results showed that adolescents were more likely to disclose personal information on Facebook and used the privacy settings less. However, in both groups, a greater need for popularity and less awareness of the consequences of disclosure were significant predictors of the likelihood of disclosing personal information.

While much of the literature on self-disclosure has focused on the behavior of disclosing information about oneself to others, self-disclosure has also been examined as a personality trait (Cozby, 1973). In addition, studies have demonstrated that

individual differences in disposition for self-disclosure are significantly related to actual self-disclosure on social media. For example, Christofides et al. (2009) found that one's personal disposition for self-disclosure accounted for 31% of the variance in self-disclosure on Facebook. In a longitudinal study, Trepte and Reinecke (2013) found that individual disposition for self-disclosure and use of social media are mutually reinforcing such that users who are prone to self-disclosing behaviors show a stronger tendency to use social media (selection effect) and the more individuals use social media, the more likely they are to disclose personal information (socialization effect). In addition, they found that users who engage in self-disclosure online and feel rewarded through the expansion of their social network, are most likely to increase their use of social media. Based on the self-disclosure literature reviewed above, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis 2: Millennials will be more likely than older generations (Gen X and Baby Boomers) to have a personal disposition for self-disclosure.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals with a high disposition toward self-disclosure will be more likely than those with a low disposition to accept a friend request from their boss.

Quality of the Supervisor Subordinate Relationship

Another factor likely to influence employee decisions to accept or reject a friend request from their boss is the quality of relationship they have with him or her. As noted by Peluchette et al. (2013), Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory is particularly relevant to friending one's boss because of its focus on relationships (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Research evidence supporting LMX theory shows that leaders do not use the same leadership style with all subordinates. Instead, they develop differentiated relationships within their group of direct reports such that those in high-quality relationships, compared to those with low-quality relationships, are more likely to be given better work assignments and are more likely to share mutual feelings of trust, respect and obligation with their supervisors such that both members of the dyadic partnership "gains greater access to resources and support from the other than he or she would have otherwise" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 233) and both parties are empowered and motivated to "expand beyond the formalized work contract and formalized work roles to grow out of their prescribed jobs and develop a partnership based on mutual reciprocal influence" (p. 232). Research also shows that higher-quality LMX relationships have very positive outcomes for leaders, followers, work units, and the organization including performance, turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career progress (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

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Based on LMX theory, we would expect that when there are mutual feelings of trust, respect, and obligation between a supervisor and a subordinate, that acceptance of a Facebook friend request would be more likely. The friend request itself might signal to the subordinate that the supervisor is willing to put extra effort into the relationship prompting a positive reaction from the subordinate. It is also likely that the subordinate may see the request as an opportunity to enhance the relationship and in turn enhance his or her career success. In contrast, when the relationship between the supervisor and subordinate is characterized by low levels of trust, respect, and obligation, it is likely that the subordinate would react with suspicion, seeing the request as a means by which the supervisor may monitor them more closely. As a result, the “friend” request would most likely be rejected. In support, a study of nurses showed that some would accept a friend request from their boss depending on the quality of the relationship, whether their boss was a “real” friend, and whether he or she liked the supervisor (Peluchette et al., 2012). Therefore, it is predicted:

Hypothesis 4: Employees with high quality LMX relationships will be more likely than those with low quality LMX relationships to accept a Facebook friend request from their boss.

METHOD

Sample

Data were gathered using a snowball sampling technique whereby students enrolled in MBA classes at a medium-sized southeastern university completed the survey and then recruited others in generational cohorts different from their own to complete the survey as well. All surveys were completed anonymously and participation was voluntary. A total of 352 surveys were returned. The sample consisted of a relatively even split of males (46%) and females (54%). The ages of the respondents ranged from 16 to 70 with a mean of 41 (SD = 14.4 years). Using the generational birth year guidelines of Howe and Strauss (2009; Baby Boomers born 1943 to 1960, Gen Xers born 1961 to 1981, and Millennials born 1982 or later), our sample was comprised of 106 Baby Boomers (30.1%), 117 Gen Xer’s (33.2%), and 129 Millennials (36.6%).

Survey Instrument

The survey instrument consisted of the following sections: (1) background information (gender, age, hours worked per week, managerial status), (2) Facebook use (3) response to a friend request from one’s boss, (4) LMX relationship, and (5) self-disclosure:

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- **Facebook Use:** This section consisted of 3 items: (1) “Do you participate in Facebook?” (coded 0 = no and 1 = yes), (2) “How often do you log onto your Facebook site?” (coded 1 = less than once a week, 2 = once a week, 3 = two or three times per week, 4 = once or twice per day, and 5 = over 3 times per day), and (3) “Approximately, how many Facebook friends do you have?”
- **Response to a Friend Request from One’s Boss:** This item asked “What would be your response to a friend request from your supervisor?” Response options included: “accept as a friend” (coded 3), “accept as a friend, but with reservations” (coded 2), and “ignore, not respond” (coded 1). For the “accept with reservations option,” participants were asked to “Please explain why you would have reservations about accepting your supervisor’s friend request (check all that apply).” This was followed by a list of eight possible explanations. The explanations included: “I only use Facebook for real friends,” “Separation, I believe one’s personal and professional life should be kept separate,” “Privacy, there are some things I don’t want my supervisor to see,” “I would be afraid that there would be negative consequences on the job,” “I would give him/her very limited access and block him/her from most of it,” and “I would feel obligated because I would not want to offend him/her by saying no,” “I don’t like him/her,” and “Unprofessional.” The “ignore, not respond” option included “If you chose ignore, please explain why (check all that apply).” This was followed by a list of six explanations which included: “I only use Facebook for real friends,” “Separation, I believe one’s personal and professional life should be kept separate,” “Privacy, there are some things I don’t want my supervisor to see,” “I would be afraid that there would be negative consequences on the job,” “I don’t like him/her,” and “Unprofessional.”
- **LMX Relationship:** The Leader Member Exchange Relationship was measured using the 11 items developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). Sample items include “I like my supervisor very much as a person” and “I admire my supervisor’s professional skills.” For each item, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).
- **Self-Disclosure:** Self-disclosure was measured using the 10-item self-disclosure scale from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger & Gough, 2006). Sample items include “I am open about myself to others” and, “I reveal little about myself” (reverse coded).

RESULTS

Before testing our hypotheses, we selected only those respondents who used Facebook, as well as those who were employed full-time (at least 40 hours a week). Our resulting sample ($N = 216$) consisted of 69 Baby Boomers (27.3%), 83 Generation Xers (38.9%) and 72 Millennials (33.8%). The number of females was 121 (56%) and 132 held non-managerial positions (61.1%). The average age was 36.68 ($SD = 6.99$) and the average hours worked per week was 44.23 ($SD = 6.59$).

Next, we determined whether there were any generational differences in either the background or Facebook variables measured. We found significant differences in hours worked per week [$F(2, 213) = 3.04, p = .05$], managerial status [$F(2, 211) = 7.91, p = .000$], frequency of Facebook use [$F(2, 213) = 9.068, p = .000$], and number of Facebook friends [$F(2, 203) = 22.09, p = .000$]. In general, Gen Xers ($M = 45.04, SD = 7.59$) and Baby Boomers ($M = 44.98, SD = 6.64$) worked significantly more hours than Millennials ($M = 42.70, SD = 4.93$). Baby Boomers were most likely to be in managerial positions (49.2%), followed by Gen Xers (46.3%) and Millennials (20.5%). Millennials used Facebook the most frequently ($M = 3.74, SD = 1.24$), followed by Gen Xers ($M = 3.43, SD = 1.33$), and Baby Boomers ($M = 2.76, SD = 1.43$). Millennials also had the most Facebook friends ($M = 546.47, SD = 354.66$) followed by Gen Xers ($M = 315.41, SD = 304.75$) and Baby Boomers ($M = 168.04, SD = 178.06$).

Means, standard deviations, correlations and reliability estimates are shown in Table 1. Contrary to our predictions, generation was not related to whether one would accept a friend request from one's boss ($r = .03, p = .64$). We also examined the frequency of responses to a friend request from one's boss by response type and generation. We found that approximately half of our respondents (49.3%) would accept a friend request from their boss, an additional 31.9 percent would accept but would have reservations about doing so, and only 18.8 percent indicated they would ignore the request. A Chi-Square test revealed no significant differences in frequency of response type by generation (Chi-square = 6.48, $p = .17$). Because the generational variable is a categorical variable and categorical variables often result in lower power and effect sizes than continuous variables (MacCallum, Zhang, Preacher & Rucker, 2002), we also examined the relationship between age and acceptance of a friend request from one's boss. The resulting correlation was also not significant ($r = .03, p = n.s.$). Thus, we found no support for hypothesis 1.

The correlation between generation and self-disclosure was only marginally related to self-disclosure ($r = .13, p = .06$), thus, hypothesis 2 was not supported. However, the correlation between age and self-disclosure was significant ($r = -.18, p = .009$) suggesting that younger individuals have a higher disposition to self-disclose than older individuals. Also, contrary to hypothesis 3, the relationship

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Table 1. Means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability estimates

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3
1. Generation ²	2.06	.78			
2. Self-Disclosure	3.27	.70	.13	(.87)	
3. LMX Relationship	4.03	.72	.15*	.03	(.77)
4. Level of acceptance of a "friend" request from one's boss ³	2.31	.77	.03	.11	.38***

¹Coefficient alphas are in the diagonal.

²Generation was coded 1 =Boomer, 2 = Gen X, 3 = Millennial.

³Level of acceptance of a "friend" request from one's boss was coded 1 = reject, 2 = accept with reservations, 3 = accept.

*p < .05

***p < .001

between self-disclosure and acceptance of a friend request from one's boss was not significant ($r = .11$, $p = .12$).

In support of hypothesis 4, LMX relationship was significantly related to acceptance of a friend request from one's boss ($r = .38$, $p = .000$). In addition, a Chi-square test (Chi-square = 30.15, $p = .000$) revealed that 67.3 percent of those who reported an above average LMX relationship would accept a friend request from their boss (with no reservations) whereas only 28.3 percent of those with a below average LMX relationship would accept their boss's friend request (with no reservations). In contrast, those with lower than average LMX relationships were more likely than those with above average LMX relationships to report they would accept their boss's friend request but would have reservations about doing so (44.6% vs. 27.2%, respectively), or they would ignore the request (20.6% vs. 12.1%, respectively).

Next, we conducted a hierarchical moderated regression analysis to examine whether self-disclosure might moderate the relationship between generation and acceptance of a friend request from one's boss. In step 1, we entered all the demographic variables in which we found significant differences between generations (hours worked per week, managerial status, frequency of Facebook use, and number of Facebook friends) as control variables. In step 2, we entered generation and self-disclosure, and in step 3, we entered the interaction term. The interaction was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p = .02$). These results are shown in Table 2. As shown in Figure 2, self-disclosure was positively related to acceptance of a friend request

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Table 2. Regression results for the impact of self-disclosure and generation on acceptance of Friend Requests from one's boss

Model	Predictor	B	SE	Beta	R ²	ΔR ²	F
1	Frequency of Facebook Use	.025	.042	.045			
	Number of Facebook Friends	.000	.000	.22**			
	Managerial Status	-.095	.118	-.061			
	Hours worked per week	-.001	.009	-.007			
					.055	.055	2.83*
2	Frequency of Facebook Use	.033	.042	.058			
	Number of Facebook Friends	.001	.000	.242**			
	Managerial Status	-.047	.120	-.030			
	Hours worked per week	-.002	.009	-.014			
	Generation	-.112	.078	-.114			
	Self-disclosure	.011	.008	.100			
					.073	.018	2.53*
3	Frequency of Facebook Use	.025	.042	.045			
	Number of Facebook Friends	.001	.000	.256***			
	Managerial Status	-.058	.119	-.037			
	Hours worked per week	-.002	.009	-.019			
	Generation	.721	.364	.735*			
	Self-disclosure	.061	.023	.562**			
	Self-disclosure x Generation	-.025	.011	-1.03*			
					.099	.026	3.00**

*p < .05

**p < .01

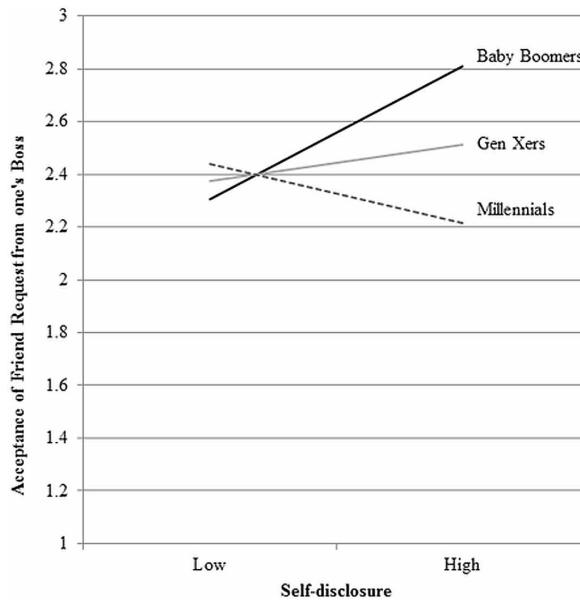
***p < .001

from one's boss for both Baby Boomers and Gen Xers, whereas for Millennials, the higher their disposition to self-disclose, the less likely they are to accept a friend request from their boss.

Because quality of the LMX relationship was a strong predictor of acceptance of a friend request from one's boss and LMX relationship was also significantly related to the generation variable ($r=.15$, $p < .05$), we conducted a second hierarchical moderated regression analysis to determine whether the interaction between self-disclosure and generation was significant after controlling for the LMX relationship. This second analysis included the control variables in step 1, the LMX relationship variable in step 2, self-disclosure in step 3, and the interaction term in step 4. The

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Figure 2. Interaction between self-disclosure and generation on acceptance of Friend Requests from one's boss



resulting Model at step 4 was significant [$F(8,188) = 6.91, p = .000$] as was the beta coefficient for the interaction term ($-.982, p = .02$) and $\Delta R^2 (.023, p = .02)$. Thus, the interaction between self-disclosure and generation accounted for a unique and significant amount of variance in acceptance of a friend request from one's boss over and above that accounted for by the quality of the relationship between an employee and his or her supervisor.

We then examined the reasons respondents chose for accepting or ignoring a friend request from their boss. The most common reason selected for having reservations about accepting a friend request was separation or the desire to keep one's personal and professional lives separate ($N = 43, 19.9\%$). The second most common reason selected was that they would feel obligated to accept because they would not want to offend him/her by saying no ($N = 38, 17.6\%$). Privacy ($N = 30, 13.9\%$), giving the boss limited access ($N=25, 11.6\%$), and unprofessional ($N=17, 7.9\%$) were also among the more common reasons selected for having reservations about accepting a boss's friend request. Similarly, with regard to the response of "ignore, not respond" a friend request from one's boss, separation ($N = 31, 14.4\%$), unprofessional ($N = 16, 7.4\%$), and privacy ($N = 12, 5.6\%$) were among the most common reasons selected.

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Finally, we conducted a Chi-square analysis to determine if there were any generational differences in the reasons selected for ignoring a friend request from one's boss or having reservations about doing so. No significant differences were found for ignoring a friend request. However, with regard to having reservations about accepting a friend request, Millennials were significantly more likely than either Gen Xers or Baby Boomers to feel obligated to accept the friend request (Chi-square = 8.48, $p < .05$), to indicate there are some things they don't want their supervisor to see (Chi-square = 8.59, $p < .05$), and to indicate that they would give their boss limited access and block him/her from most of their Facebook content (Chi-square = 8.89, $p < .05$).

CONCLUSION

Based on literature suggesting that Millennials and Generation X desire close relationships with their leaders, expect frequent and open communication, tend to integrate their work and non-work domains and are heavy users of computer mediated communication including social media (Hager & Lingham, 2014; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010), we predicted that Millennials and Generation X would be more likely than Baby Boomers to accept a Facebook friend request from their boss. However, we found no support for generational differences. Also, contrary to what was predicted, individual disposition toward self-disclosure was not related to whether one would accept a friend request from one's boss. However, we did find a significant interaction between self-disclosure and generation such that self-disclosure was positively related to acceptance of a friend request from one's boss for Baby Boomers and Generation X, but negatively related to acceptance for Millennials.

One possible explanation for these findings is that Millennials who are high self-disclosers may be afraid their boss will have a negative impression of them after seeing their Facebook site. In other words, when it comes to friending their boss, they may believe they have disclosed too much inappropriate or unprofessional information on their Facebook site. An examination of the reasons given for accepting a friend request from one's boss, but having reservations about doing so, supports this explanation. Millennials were more likely than older generations to indicate that there were some things they did not want their supervisor to see on their Facebook site and if they accepted a friend request from their supervisor, they would give him/her very limited access and block him/her from most of it. This suggests that Millennials, in general, are likely to disclose information that they would rather not share with their supervisor. In contrast, our results suggest that Baby Boomers and Gen Xers may keep their Facebook sites free of anything that they would not feel

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comfortable sharing with others, including their boss. Thus, for these two generations, the higher one's disposition toward self-disclosure, the more likely they are to accept a friend request from their boss.

Interestingly, we also found that Millennials were more likely than older generations to report they would feel obligated to accept their boss's friend request because they would not want to offend him/her by saying no. This may be because Millennials are just beginning their careers and are more conscious of the need to build their professional network. Or, it may be that this generation, who has grown up with Facebook, may view sharing with the boss as a logical extension of their Facebook network (if the boss is considered a friend then why not include them as a friend in Facebook?). Conversely, older generations, with more established careers may feel more secure and thus are less concerned with offending their boss. In fact, these generations may consider their boss asking for access to their Facebook site as inappropriate or offensive based on their generationally derived norms.

Implications

While some managers may view sending a friend request to an employee as a fun and friendly way to enhance workplace relationships, our results suggest caution is advised. Even if the manager is comfortable with initiating the request, the employee may not feel the same way. Our results show that all employees, regardless of generation, are more likely to accept a friend request from their boss when there are mutual feelings of respect and trust. Conversely, when their LMX relationship is poor, employees are less likely to accept a friend request. It is likely that employees in poor relationships will view the friend request negatively and see it as an attempt to spy on them. A friend request, in this case, may actually worsen the working relationship.

Furthermore, while some organizations are promoting the use of Facebook and other social networking sites as a means to improve communication, teamwork, and employee development (Arnold, 2009), managers should be aware that such connections may result in legal challenges. For instance, once friends on Facebook, the boss has access to personal information, including possible protected class characteristics, and the employee could end up arguing that such information was the basis for any adverse employment action (Segal, 2010; Smith, 2009). Managers should also be aware that 23 states (as of January 2016) have adopted social media privacy legislation barring employers from requesting access to the social media accounts of current or prospective employees (Jackson, Konia, Lewis & Morrison, 2015). A mandatory friend request from one's boss would also be banned by such laws and, given the power relationship that exists between supervisors and their direct reports, some employees may feel that they have no choice but to accept a friend request received from their boss, even if it is not made a condition of employment.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of our study is that we examined individual disposition toward self-disclosure as opposed to actual behavior involving self-disclosure. While past research has found a significant relationship between dispositional self-disclosure and posting of personal information in online social networks (Christofides, et al., 2009; Trepte & Reinecke, 2013), future research examining generational differences in the type of information posted is needed. It is possible that dispositional self-disclosure affects the amount of personal information disclosed but not the type of information disclosed. There also may be generational differences in the type of personal information posted. Older generations may post personal information about their families, hobbies, vacations, and general likes and dislikes. Younger generations, on the other hand, may be more likely than older generations, to post personal content of a more extreme nature (such as alcohol or drug use, relationships, negative work-related comments, or profanity) that has a greater risk of being perceived negatively by their supervisor. Future research should examine generational differences in the relationship between type of information posted and the likelihood of accepting a friend request from one's boss.

The use of LinkedIn as a professional social networking tool is becoming more common in the workplace. Future research should also examine the potential generational and dispositional differences between it and Facebook with regards to sharing with the boss, co-workers or other business contacts. It could be that the older generations are much more comfortable friending their boss or business associates on LinkedIn rather than Facebook. The Millennial generation may embrace LinkedIn as a solution for their tendency to over share unprofessional information on Facebook.

As is true of much of the literature on generational differences, our study is limited by the age-period-cohort confound whereby any generational differences discovered may also be explained by age-related effects (i.e., maturation), cohort effects (i.e., formative context) or the conditions of the historical period in which data are gathered (Laufer & Bengtson, 1974; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Ryder, 1965). It is possible, that generation is less important than age or maturity. Longitudinal research data which tracks respondents of two or more successive cohorts over time is needed to mitigate these confounds. Finally, while existing research has examined employee reactions to a friend request from their boss, more research is needed examining the impact of social media connections (such as Facebook) on workplace outcomes. For example, does friending one's boss or coworkers on Facebook improve workplace communication, teamwork, networking, career advancement or productivity?

Clearly, Facebook friending between supervisors and their direct reports involves both possibilities and pitfalls. This study has extended past research by demonstrating that generational differences in acceptance of a Facebook friend request from one's boss depends on individual differences in dispositional self-disclosure. While many employees have favorable reactions to friending their boss, a roughly equal number have less than favorable reactions. Those with less favorable reactions tend to be Millennials high in dispositional self-disclosure or older generations (Gen X, Baby Boomers) who are low in self-disclosure.

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Chapter 8

Developing an Intergroup Communication Intervention Curriculum: Enhancing Workforce Skills Across Generations

Kate Magsamen-Conrad
Bowling Green State University, USA

Lisa K. Hanasono
Bowling Green State University, USA

Jeanette M. Dillon
Bowling Green State University, USA

Paul Anthony Valdez
Bowling Green State University, USA

ABSTRACT

This chapter describes a community-based participatory research project that embraces opportunities to augment the skills necessary to excel in an increasingly diverse workforce, especially in terms of proficiency in communication, social interaction, and technology. The Intergroup Communication Intervention (ICI) provides needed technology skills training to older adults in a community setting to improve intergroup relationships, foster positive civic attitudes and skills, and reduce ageist attitudes of younger adults. Participants build workforce skills necessary for future success as the project advances group and interpersonal communication skills across generations using technology pedagogy to bridge the divide. The ICI approach is systematic and grounded in theory. Analyses across the project's last three years demonstrate how communication processes ignite the powerful bonding that can occur over technology. This chapter encourages future research with similar goals of using longitudinal, communication studies to enhance community, competencies, and the future workforce.

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INTRODUCTION

The U.S. Census projects that the 65 and older population will increase by over 67% between 2015 and 2040 and represent 21% of the total population by 2040 (Kromer & Howard, 2013). In the United States, the participation rate of people 65 years and older in the workforce has increased over the past 20 years as well (Kromer & Howard, 2013). Although the participation rate is on the rise, there are unique challenges based on location. For example, the Ohio Department of Job and Family Services (2012) reports that Ohio “faces a significant workforce challenge that could last up to 20 years: the loss of workers born during the ‘baby’ boom” (p. 4). Industries that will be particularly affected are educational services with 30% of workers 55 and older, and health care and social assistance, with 20% of workers 55 or older. The opportunity costs of allowing older adults to leave the workforce are meaningful. Despite the fact that older adults are disproportionately affected by chronic illnesses (e.g., arthritis, hypertension, and diabetes), low risk older adults generate significantly lower medical costs than “high risk” adults aged 19-34 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, CDC, 2014). Moreover, older adults are frequently more productive, more cautious, more experienced, more collaborative with coworkers, more likely to follow safety rules and regulations, and possess more institutional knowledge than younger adults (CDC, 2014), all of which positively affects the overall productivity, safety, and health and wellness of the nation’s workforce. However, there is increasing evidence that this age group struggles to adapt to new technologies (Logan, 2000), especially in the workplace. The authors’ pilot data indicates that some older adults are considering leaving the workplace early (e.g., taking early retirement) because of the significant burden, stress, and stigma they feel related to technology adoption (Magsamen-Conrad, Dillon & Billotte-Verhoff, 2014). Stigma affects both employees and employers. A longitudinal study found that stigma consciousness predicted intentions to leave the job, which translated into actual attrition (Pinel & Paulin, 2005).

By utilizing original, ongoing, scholarly research, this chapter applies existent research and provides recommendations to advance workforce diversity learning and support new practices for the future of higher education. The Intergroup Communication Intervention (ICI) posits a program that could positively affect the future of workforce diversity by (a) training and retaining older adults in the workforce, (b) facilitating student learning and programming opportunities, (c) and guiding future partnerships between educators and practitioners as well as local institutions and communities. The ICI seeks to integrate workers’ health and wellness into occupational safety and health programs via theory-based, face-to-face training programs targeting older workers (individuals over the age of 55 years).

The CDC's National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) recommends that one strategy for facilitating an age-friendly workplace that would retain valuable older employees is to "invest in training and building worker skills and competencies at all age levels (CDC, 2014, para. 9). NIOSH continues that it is especially important to "help older employees to adapt to new technologies" which is "often a concern for employers and older workers" (CDC, 2014, para. 9). The results of our pilot research highlight target areas for designing training and building workers' skills to facilitate technology adoption. We found that among the unified theory of adoption and use of technology variables (UTAUT; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis & Davis, 2003; e.g., performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, facilitating conditions), effort expectancy and facilitating conditions predicted 25% of the variance in tablet adoption after controlling for age and gender (Magsamen-Conrad, Upadhyaya, Youngnyo Joa & Dowd, 2015a). The concept of effort expectancy refers to the degree of effort individuals perceive they will have to expend in order to utilize the technology (in this case, the tablet). Facilitating conditions describe the resources individuals perceive they have available to utilize the technology. These results imply that given a specific type of support, older workers can become more technologically literate.

This chapter describes an intervention designed to embrace the evolving influence of technology and its impact on the future workforce comprised of both older and younger adults. Our intervention (the Intergroup Communication Intervention, ICI; Magsamen-Conrad, Hanasono & Billotte Verhoff, 2013) has been successful in furthering needed skills acquisition and in improving older adults' perceptions about technology. The intervention has been possible through a community partnership with a local senior center and by utilizing service learning pedagogy in communication courses to provide a meaningful student learning opportunity as well as human resources for the project. Thus, the ICI positively affects older adults on multiple levels while also advancing younger adults' skills relevant to the workforce; particularly those related to social interaction, interpersonal communication, and community dynamics.

The first two sections of this chapter review the background and relevant literature on America and Ohio's workforce and the significance of the workforce aging in a world of technology. The third section describes solutions and recommendations regarding workforce diversity, a student learning program featuring strategic community partnerships, service learning pedagogy, and community-based research. The final section discusses future research directions including partnerships between educators, practitioners, local institutions and communities facilitated by this program.

BACKGROUND

The proportion of elderly people is growing faster than all other age groups in the United States (Administration on Aging, 2011). As America's population ages, so does its workforce, which is good news because older adults bring significant value, experience, commitment (e.g., to following safety rules and regulations), and institutional knowledge to the workplace (CDC, 2014). Collectively, older adults' knowledge, skills, and contributions enhance the overall productivity, safety, and wellness of the broader workforce.

Despite their documented value, the nation's workforce is losing older workers, especially those born during the "baby boom" era. By 2020, the department projects "3.5 million Ohioans will be 55 or older (28.7%)" (p. 4), growing to 3.7 million by 2030. Ohio's workforce is aging as the rate of workforce growth simultaneously slows. Growth was 5.3% between 1998 and 2008 and the projected growth between 2008 and 2018 is only 1.6% but, when rates of labor force participation are considered, workers 55 and older are expected to have higher participation rates between 2008 and 2018 (Kromer & Howard, 2013). The projected aging workforce challenge will not affect all industries equally. Across America, industry sectors with higher than average proportions of workers 55 or older will be affected more strongly. For example, in the United States in 2011, 30% of employees in educational services and 20% of employees in health care and social assistance were 55 or older, compared to just 16% in construction (Ohio Department of Job and Family Services, 2012, p 4). These trends demonstrate an aging workforce in need of proper training to meet the nation's economic demands. This project provides significant assistance for addressing this aging workforce challenge, specifically in the area of skills and confidence in the use of technology.

Technology literacy, "the ability to responsibly use appropriate technology to communicate, solve problems, and access, manage, integrate, evaluate, and create information to improve learning in all subject areas and to acquire lifelong knowledge and skills in the 21st century" (State Educational Technology Directors Association, 2007, p. 1), is important beyond the workplace, and that is the real concern for older adults. Technology is increasingly used to digitize even the simplest tasks originally unassociated with devices, such as ordering food at restaurants, waiting for reservations, and paying for groceries. Communication technologies like tablet devices (e.g., the iPad, Samsung Galaxy, and Microsoft Surface) enable users to quickly and conveniently access information, build and maintain interpersonal relationships, construct computer-mediated identities (e.g., avatars), transcend geographical barriers, and participate in community-building (Carter, Gibbs & Arnold, 2012; Lev-On, 2010; Stavrositu & Sundar, 2012; Sum, Mathews, Pourghasem & Hughes, 2009). Unfortunately, for some individuals, especially older adults,

utilizing these technologies is similar to learning a new language (Logan, 2000). Pilot data collected by the ICI research team indicates that some older adults are considering leaving the workplace early (e.g., taking early retirement) because of the significant burden, stress, and stigma they feel related to technology adoption (Magsamen-Conrad et al., 2014).

Many older adults need training on how to use new technologies, and although some efforts have been made, they do not sufficiently address the diverse needs of this rapidly growing demographic. For example, an organization called SeniorNet (2013) strives to increase computer access and training to older adults in senior centers. While SeniorNet has established more than 50 learning centers in 25 different states, a large number of older adults still lack access to computer technologies and sufficient technical training (see also Kreps & Sparks, 2008; Mo, Malik, & Coulson, 2009; Sparks & Nussbaum, 2008; Stalberg, Yeh, Delbridge, & Delbridge, 2008). In our community, local organizations and residents have established a variety of training programs to support an increasingly diverse workforce. However, these programs tend to target younger people and those with special needs. For example, Pathstone (2015) is a not-for-profit organization that provides professional training to low-income families and mentoring for adults who are 14 to 24 years old. Wood Lane (2014) provides therapeutic programs and employment opportunities for individuals with developmental disabilities, and Career Link (2014) offers job training and vocational counseling for people with mental health or substance dependence issues. The Wood County Re-Entry Coalition (2014) helps people who were incarcerated transition more seamlessly into their communities and the local workforce. Collectively, these programs reflect a strong community commitment to support an increasingly diverse workforce. However, our local community still lacked an integrated and innovative program that focused on supporting the specific needs and professional development of older adults. One potential solution is to develop workforce diversity training and programming opportunities that cultivate partnerships between educators, practitioners, local communities, and local institutions.

SERVICE LEARNING FOR ADVANCING SKILL SETS AND WORKFORCE READINESS

Researchers have investigated the saliency of interpersonal applications of course-content and theory using service learning (e.g., Kahl Jr., 2010). Bringle & Hatcher (1995) defined service learning as, “a credit-bearing experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs, and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way to gain further understanding of curricular content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of

personal and civic responsibility” (p. 112). The Association of American Colleges and Universities identified service learning and community-based learning as a high impact practice because there is high student and faculty interaction, students make general, personal and practical gains, students experience deep learning, courses provide academic challenge, and courses focus on active and collaborative learning (Kuh, 2008). Students who participate in service learning or community engagement (e.g., partnering with older adults to teach tablet skills) develop higher levels of interpersonal problem-solving skills and leadership skills, develop positive social justice attitudes, and report higher levels of academic learning (Moely, McFarland, Miron, Mercer & Ilustre, 2002) than students who do not. Additionally, community-engaged learning particularly benefits historically underserved students (Cruce, Wolniak, Seifert, & Pascarella, 2006), and when paired with other beneficial education practices (e.g., orientation, learning communities, peer tutoring, internships, etc.) all students are more likely to have better academic performance, higher levels of personal satisfaction, and persist to graduate (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt, & Associates, 2005; Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges & Hayek, 2007). Thus, service and community-engaged learning has tangible benefits for facilitating students’ academic success. We recommend pairing college students with older adults for technology skills acquisition given the many potential benefits of this partnership.

Multigenerational community engagement offers an established forum for both reducing negative attitudes toward aging and providing students with a method to develop skills necessary for the workforce. Multigenerational interactions have the potential to foster more collaborative and community-oriented partnerships between older adults and younger adults through intergroup contact. Indeed, intergroup contact between college students and older adults working together on a project (e.g., technology instruction) may improve college students’ civic attitudes and skills including: civic action, interpersonal and problem-solving skills, empathy, political awareness, leadership skills, and social justice and/or diversity attitudes (Magsamen-Conrad et al., 2013). Research has shown that students who have more experience in interacting with older adults have more confidence in dealing with aging-persons and express more positive attitudes towards older adults (Gutheil, Chernesky, & Sherratt, 2006). Kodadek, Bettendorf, Uihlein, and Derse (2010) found that medical students who engaged in intergenerational community engagement experienced positive interactions and that their contact allowed them to view the older adults in a more humanistic manner than simply viewing interactions with older adults as clinical. Reducing communication anxiety and ageism is a critical factor in career preparation, especially for those who plan to enter into the medical, gerontology, and social work fields, and for the overall health of the population (e.g., Shue, McNeley, & Arnold, 2005). Cummings and Galambos (2002) reported

that negative stereotypical beliefs often drive students away from working with the elderly, revealing a strong link between the intention to work with older adults or in geriatrics and positive attitudes towards aging.

Thus, one cost effective solution to the challenge of technology illiteracy in the workplace is to partner university students with seniors and community centers for the purpose of technology training as part of a service learning course. This partnership has the potential to benefit both groups, as well as create a sustainable source of needed training resources. The partnership could add to our understanding of engaged research. Wittenberg-Lyles and Goldsmith (2014) noted the rewards and trials of conducting research within the community to inform curricula meant to benefit the community. They believed the effort was worth it in the end but understood that translation was needed to promote and make successful programs developed by scholarship and theory within a community setting. The next section describes an innovative workforce diversity student learning program featuring strategic community partnerships, service learning pedagogy, and community-based research.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

One solution for addressing the issues, controversies, and problems presented by a potential dearth in workplace skills is partnering older and younger adults for the purpose of skills acquisition. The ICI serves as an example of a successful program of this nature. Drawing from frameworks of intergroup contact theory (ICT; Pettigrew, 1998; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006) and UTAUT, the ICI facilitates a series of systematic and supportive interactions between ingroup and outgroups to positively affect health, broadly interpreted (e.g., community health, relational health, self-esteem, prejudice and bias reduction, etc.) and technology literacy. The intervention design and execution is centered on community partner needs with a dual goal of simultaneously providing university students with practical educational opportunities through experiential learning and contributing positively to the community. The ICI framework is meant to be applicable to a number of different contexts that partner university (or other) students with outgroups. For example, the first author also partnered students with people with disabilities (PwDs) at an urban residential facility. Qualitative data gathered during the program indicated improvement in students' attitude towards PwDs and an increase in the comfort-level of PwDs towards students upon subsequent visits. We concluded that students' attitude towards PwDs changed as they focused on the capabilities of PwDs instead of their disability and as they began to address some deep-seated biases they held about PwDs. PwDs also felt more comfortable with students and began to open up to

them as they interacted more with them (Magsamen-Conrad, Tetteh, Lee & Smith, 2015b). This chapter focuses most often on a version of the ICI that partners younger and older adults for the purpose of technology skills acquisition, but also offers best practices and suggestions for adapting the ICI within myriad community contexts.

In one version of the ICI, students enrolled in small group communication courses at a medium-sized Midwestern university worked with older adults at a community senior center. As they applied theory learned in small group communication classes, students designed and implemented workshops to help older adults better understand technology, specifically tablets (e.g., iPads, Kindles, Nooks, and Galaxys). These systematic and supportive interactions between younger and older adults have been found to reduce negative attitudes between the generations, facilitate the development of positive interpersonal relationships, and build skills important to both generations. Specifically, pre- and post-test survey results from the classes have indicated statistically significant improvement in trust and communication apprehension of older adults toward younger adults as well as statistically significant improvement in the attitudes of younger adults about diversity, disabilities, and civic intentions.

This version of the ICI is in its fifth iteration. Although elements of research design remain consistent (e.g., pre- and post- test surveys, video and audio recorded interaction, etc.), concepts assessed shift each semester to best test and extend theoretical frameworks, as well as incorporate and test other theories. The experimental data, which has smaller sample sizes, is supplemented with larger cross sectional survey data collection efforts to enable, for example, model and theory testing utilizing structural equation modeling, multigenerational comparisons, and adapting pre-existing concept operationalization to be more applicable in context. This highly collaborative project includes partnerships both outside and within the broader university community, with elements that incorporate faculty in rhetoric, journalism and PR, gerontology, and clinical nutrition.

In 2012, the first author contacted representatives from the local senior center (and eventually included a branch of the public library) about offering technology workshops for older adults from the community. The first author and senior center staff together planned the workshops in terms of format, length, and younger adult training (college students self-selected to be involved in the class/project), as well as aspects of informed consent, data collection and management. The tablet became the focus technology device to teach because a) unlike a computer, the tablet was a device that individuals could become independent with after limited but systematic training, especially as some applications on tablets with a touchscreen may be easier and more intuitive for older adults (see Zhou, Rau, & Salvendy, 2012), b) computer classes were already hosted by the senior center but not tablet classes, and c) the tablet was a “newer” innovation than a computer and allowed older adults an opportunity

to learn a relatively new device. The senior center advertised the workshops in their newsletter, in the local newspaper, on their webpage and Facebook page, through flyers, and through senior center employees.

After establishing the parameters of the technology workshops with the senior center, communication students prepared educational workshops for older adults and, in groups of four to five people offered weekly, one hour, tablet workshops, once per week, for four to six consecutive weeks under the direction of the first author. The ICI later expanded to nine weeks and began offering classes at a nearby branch of the community's public library.

Before students traveled to the senior center to administer the ICI workshops, center representatives gave a 50-minute sensitivity training to educate younger adult students about the senior center (e.g., mission statement), older adults (e.g., aging related physiological changes), and how to teach older adults (e.g., learning styles). Together, the first author and a senior center representative gained informed consent and survey data from older adults. The first author additionally introduced herself to the older adults before the first class for each group, explained that the younger adults were the "teachers" of the workshops, answered questions, and then sat in the back of the room making observations and engaging in minimal participation during the workshops themselves. Frequently, older adults engaged the first author in communication before and after the workshops. The first author gave both written and verbal feedback to younger adults about workshop delivery, and younger adults had at least six weekly class meetings (approximately 50 minutes each) to develop, discuss, and troubleshoot ICI workshops. Younger adults and the first author discussed the ICI workshops and their connection to small group communication theories throughout the semester.

The structure of the ICI workshops allows for the observation of communication patterns and acquisition of social and behavioral competencies, as well as technology skills, in a somewhat naturally occurring environment, somewhat analogous to the task-based interactions between physicians and patients (e.g., Venetis, Robinson, & Kearney, 2013). That is, older adults came to the workshops with the intention of "getting help" from younger adults and the content of communication was primarily task-based (i.e., learning how to use a tablet). However, aspects of interpersonal or relational communication emerged during the interaction as they would in the physician-patient context (see Magsamen-Conrad, 2013). The study is semi-naturalistic in that although the ICI workshops were instituted by the first author with the intention of augmenting technology skills acquisition and facilitating positive intergroup contact, after introducing the younger adults to the older adults, the first author allowed the workshops to unfold with minimal intervention during the hour-long workshop period. For research purposes, data collected during observations was

supported by older and younger adult survey responses, and educational materials produced by younger adults (e.g., tablet manuals, tutorials, handouts, and Power Points).

Feedback about the project from students, older adults, and community partners has been overwhelmingly positive. We have been able to demonstrate increased technology skills acquisition through pre- and post- tests with older adults, despite insignificant statistics. These results are corroborated in the verbal feedback from older adults and the continued enrollment in the ICI workshops (e.g., more than 100% increase in enrollment from Fall 2013 to Spring 2014). Community partners and older adults expressed gratitude for the “much needed” training and enjoyed the interactions. Younger adults expressed how the project helped them engage with course content (e.g., “This class made the topics from class interesting and applicable”). Younger adults were also adamant about encouraging continuation of the course and the partnership. They often lamented that they did not have more time to spend with the older adults and expressed an increased desire to volunteer (e.g., “Teaching the seniors has made me want to do more volunteer work for older adults in the future. I look forward to seeing how I can further contribute my time and energy to the older adults in my community at home and here”). Many younger adults found an affinity for the older adult population that they did not know they possessed, revealing unconsidered career paths. The time together in the small groups at the senior center built rapport between the instructor and younger adults and fostered lasting impressions and relationships important in the context of student retention. Younger adults felt that they contributed meaningfully to society as a part of their course content. Younger adults also demonstrated learning outcomes beyond the content of the course, such as enhanced technology skills, research skills (e.g., to “figure out how to do what the seniors want to do”), and interpersonal skills (e.g., “teaching the technology classes helped me to build self-esteem and gain confidence in my own communication skills”), an appreciation of “how hard it is to be a teacher/professor,” relationship building (e.g., “It was really nice to go there... and learn about their families... to be able to create relationships”) and overcoming stereotypes (e.g., “I got to meet very positive individuals that helped break any of the stereotypes that I may have had going into this project”).

Although the ICI is labor intensive and requires flexibility from both students and instructors, the benefits are well worth the effort. For better ICI outcomes, special attention should be given to relationships/partnerships, assignments, technology, evaluation, and timing. Those areas are addressed in the following sections.

Building Relationships

One of the most challenging aspects of this project is establishing partnerships and infrastructure that will facilitate the project's success. Instructors should initiate interactions with community partners the semester before project implementation. Instructors might initially contact their countywide Agency or State Department on Aging. Every state has a Department on Aging, and within each state there are Area Agencies on Aging. The number of agencies is dependent on the size of the older adult population. Potential partnerships/locations for workshops include senior centers, community centers, libraries, or churches. Instructors might also offer the workshops at an on-campus location, provided there is adequate and appropriate parking. However, the project will probably have higher rates of older adult participation if the workshops are held at a facility well known among that population. It is important to work with community partners to determine the content (type of technology), timing (both time in the semester and time of day), location, advertising, and sign-up procedure.

Incorporating Partner Expertise

If one of your community partners is particularly well versed in serving an older population, ask members of that agency to spend a class period "training" the student teachers to work with older adults. An example includes instructing students to bring technology with them to class on training day. In the first half of the class meeting, describe community partner services, facts and myths about older adulthood, older adults' learning styles and how best to facilitate a technology class. For the second half of the class meeting, provide students with cotton balls or earplugs (to mimic aging effects on hearing), safety goggles smeared with Vaseline (to mimic aging effects on vision), size small surgical gloves (to mimic arthritis), gardening gloves (to mimic tactile aging affects), and instruct students to complete a series of tasks. Another aging effect activity that mimics the effects of dementia involves having students trace a picture looking at their paper only with a hand mirror.

Student and Program Evaluation

Program evaluation is also essential, because it offers important information to community partners, program designers, instructors and researchers. Remember to allow time before the workshops begin to get a protocol approved if the program design will include data collection to evaluate the efficacy of the intervention. Research design could include pre- and post- test surveys for all participants, evaluating attitudinal (e.g., ageism), relational (e.g., dyadic trust), knowledge

(e.g., technology skills), and communication (e.g., communication apprehension) concepts, as well as qualitative data including journals and other reflection activities. Wittenberg–Lyles and Goldsmith (2014) noted the importance of feedback to the engaged research process arguing that programs designed by scholars for community venues must continue to morph based on conversations with agency professionals and the community members they serve. Additionally, in the Faculty Toolkit for Service-Learning in Higher Education, Seifer and Conners (2007) echoed the value of feedback from all stakeholders as a way to show respect for partners' expertise and contribution. This feedback is not only important for refining the design of the program, but also can be helpful in evaluating student progress. Community partners will observe and share unique perspectives about the growth and development of the students and older adults. Tap into the expertise of the community partner as an additional lens for evaluating student progress.

Public Recognition

One of the benefits of ongoing student and program evaluation is that partners (e.g., students) experience the project differently and often contribute suggestions that administrators/researchers/teachers would not have conceptualized. For example, one semester a student asked for permission to have a potluck at the end of the workshop series. This idea was implemented on a large scale in the Spring 2014 semester with a “graduation celebration.” The celebration marks the great accomplishments of both students and older adults. The first author invited older adults to bring a dish to pass, which offers a mechanism to show appreciation to the students. In the fall of 2014, the first author started inviting special speakers and involvement from important people in the community. So far, a dean from the university and the town mayor attended the program's graduation celebration as special guests. These events are also a great opportunity to invite press and get a little “FreeR” for your university. For example, the first author's YouTube channel (“Kate Magsamen-Conrad,” n.d.) includes a segment from when the ICI project was featured on the local NBC news. This public recognition is also a best practice of service learning pedagogy. Seifer & Conners (2007) explained that an important part of service learning course design is to “develop a plan for sharing credit and recognition among partnership members” (Seifer & Conners, 2007, p. 20). This can take many forms, and as you can see, students and community partners can assist you with generating ideas for public dissemination of project achievements.

Campus Partnerships

Another recommendation is to look for partnerships on your campus. This project has partnered with a number of other entities on campus. First, the university's Office of Service-Learning worked with the first author through a two-year cohort-based faculty service learning, learning community to design and implement a service learning course. The learning community's emphasis on the deliverable of implementing a service learning class was supported by a \$3,000 course development grant sponsored by the university bookstore. The Office of Service-Learning has been an ongoing partner helping to promote the project, recognize achievements, and provide additional funding as needed. The first author partnered with a professor in clinical nutrition to create targeted electronic books (e-books). Graduate clinical nutrition students partnered with ICI students. Using data collected during the Spring 2014 semester, where the ICI research team surveyed older adult participants (n=65) about health-related apps they would be interested in exploring, graduate clinical nutrition students (n=7) created eBooks in the Fall 2014 semester related to diabetes and muscle health. These students then shared the eBooks they created early in the Spring 2015 semester at the senior center. Other campus partnerships include professors in journalism and gerontology. The first author partnered with a journalism/telecommunications professor and linked class projects to develop video tutorials ("Kate Magsamen-Conrad," n.d.). She also partnered with professors in the gerontology program to enrich the student diversity in the communication classes.

The interdisciplinary collaboration of multiple faculty and students allowed for strategic planning and prevented community partner fatigue. Community partners, especially in smaller towns, are often contacted by multiple faculty members and students looking to participate. An uncoordinated approach can lead to miscommunication and damage future relationships. The additional campus partners in this project were introduced and provided access by the first author, and the connections were identified because the first author had developed a good understanding of the community partner needs and how a campus partner could be connected to addressing those needs.

Longitudinal Research Design

One reason for the ICI's success is its longitudinal design. Unlike other designs where student projects culminate in a final project that is reviewed or presented at the end of semester, this project has multiple "mini projects" for each week. This design feature is recommended, because it forces students to work together each week, which helps students develop effective interpersonal skills with peers and older adults as well as problem solving skills on an ongoing basis. Additionally, the

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authors' research indicates that at week 3 of the ICI program a shift in the larger group occurs, which includes both the older adults and younger adults. We attribute this shift to the fact that the younger adults and older adults have solidified their relationships with each other. They have developed trust and communication skills to work together on a common goal, rather than just viewing the experience as an assignment or requirement. The ICI project is also longitudinal in design because it has been ongoing since 2012. The senior center staff has come to expect the programming each fall and spring semester as a regular part of their programmatic offerings and have helped us to find other venues to continue to expand the impact of the program. For example, in the most recent iteration the ICI research team added the local town library as a new location for programming, which has reached a different audience of older adults.

Mentors

The authors recommend introducing Peer Mentors to the project after the first iteration. Peer Mentors are students who have completed the small group communication class and continue with the project the following semester(s). These mentors help facilitate the project, and they are a bridge between the current students and the professor. Every mentor first interacts as a student in the class (in our project, small group communication), where s/he directly helped older adults learn to use technology. Once a peer mentor, these students continue to help older adults, but most especially, they help other university students improve their teaching and their experience. The mentorship program is not something that was an anticipated outcome of the ICI project. It is another way that student and program evaluation feedback was collected and incorporated into this project.

Technology

Devices are integral to this program, and funding is scarce. Instructors can choose the content of the training workshops based on the resources available, including resources available to the community partner. Some organizations own tablets the older adults can check out. The first author received an internal service learning grant that allowed for the purchase of different types of tablets, and the community partner advised older adults to bring their devices if they had them. Given those resources, students could give four six-hour long workshops focusing on either one tablet for the duration (e.g., iPad, Kindle Fire, and Samsung Galaxy) or a six-week workshop series called "Try It Out" that begins with an overview of tablets in general and then overviews one tablet per week (e.g., iPad WK1, Kindle WK2, HKC WK3). If available resources include more traditional computers (laptop or

desktop), e-readers, or cellular telephones, have students conduct classes on that technology. For further device acquisition, campus technology offices may have “outdated” devices they could contribute (the authors’ institution donated older model tablets to the senior center during the ICI’s third semester).

Pedagogical Considerations

The following section includes recommendations related to pedagogical considerations of instituting a project like the ICI. In the ICI, students are required to develop content and supporting materials that are targeted to teach older adults about tablet technology. It is recommended that the groups assign one student teacher to lead the one-hour workshop, while the other student teachers act as helpers, working with one to three older adults on the lesson at hand. The leadership position can rotate throughout the several weeks of the course. Identifying the leader/helper roles in advance of each class helps students better operate as a group, serve the class as a whole, and offer more individualized support to older adult students. It is also important to remind the students to have at least three goals for each workshop (e.g., download apps, learn the difference between turning off your device and sleep mode, etc.) to maintain class momentum, but to allow for flexibility in pacing depending upon how challenging the older adults find the material. Class content, therefore, varies per class but some topics have frequently been the focus of weekly instruction. Those topics include taking pictures, purchasing and downloading apps, and accessing e-books. Paying attention to the quality of presentations and teaching competences enhances the experience for both younger and older adults, ensuring better outcomes in terms of skills acquisition, as well as fostering positive, multi-generational communication and attitudes about aging. Other recommendations include:

- Project administrators should plan to attend every workshop to evaluate student teachers. Rubrics are recommended to help focus criteria. See Table 1 for a sample rubric that focuses on session criteria related to the introduction and content. See Table 2 for a sample rubric that focuses on session criteria related to tailoring the session to the audience and delivery. See Table 3 for a sample rubric that focuses on the conclusion, homework, and overall effect. Each sample rubric can be combined into a single rubric or modified to fit evaluator aims.
- Assignments related to the ICI can be tailored in a number of ways that best suit the course in which this project is implemented. At a minimum, the actual workshop instruction and materials produced (e.g., manuals, Power Point presentations, video tutorials, worksheets, homework assignments, etc.) are major assignments. A group member evaluation and a series of reflection

Table 1. Teacher rubric for students teaching sessions with older adults: Session criteria related to introduction and content

Criteria	Below expected level 0	Almost at expected level 70%	At expected level 100%
INTRO AND CONTENT			
Introduction of class & outline for the day's session	Class introduced. Session began close to designated start time.	Class introduced clearly, and purpose of class was made clear. Session started on time.	Class introduced clearly and in an interesting way. Purpose of class was made clear. Outline of points was given. Session started on time.
Development of topic	Some understanding of class content shown. Some links and connections made between ideas. Points are usually developed with minimum detail. Information is usually relevant.	Good understanding of class content shown. Links and connections between ideas made clear. Information was relevant and expressed in own words. Points were developed with sufficient and appropriate details and images.	A very good understanding of the class content shown. Links and connections between ideas made clear. Information was relevant and well-expressed in own words. Points were well-organised and developed with sufficient and appropriate details, images were used often.
Use of visual aids and Handouts	No visual aids/handouts were used; OR Visual aids/handouts were occasionally appropriate and related to the spoken class content.	Visual aids/handouts supported the class content effectively. They clarified and reinforced the spoken class content.	Visual aids/handouts were carefully prepared and supported the class content effectively. They clarified and reinforced the spoken class content. The aids added impact and interest to the class.
Suitability of presentation for purpose and audience	Attempts were made to tailor the presentation content to the intended purpose of informing, interesting or persuading.	The presentation content and structure was tailored to the audience and to the intended purpose of informing, interesting or persuading.	The presentation content, structure and delivery were closely tailored to the audience and to the intended purpose of informing, interesting or persuading.

Note. Adapted from Oral Presentations. (n.d.). State Government Victoria: Department of Education & Training. Retrieved from <https://www.eduweb.vic.gov.au/edulibrary/public/ict/rubric.doc>

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Table 2. Teacher rubric for students teaching sessions with older adults: Session criteria related to tailoring to the audience and delivery

Criteria	Below expected level 0	Almost at expected level 70%	At expected level 100%
TAILORING SESSION TO AUDIENCE			
Ability to engage and involve audience	Some eye contact was made. Techniques used to engage audience were minimal, or mainly ineffective. Helpers didn't help older adults as often as they should have.	An interesting approach taken to class content. Speaker(s) used techniques such as visual aids and props, anecdote, surprising facts, direct audience participation. Sometimes students made efforts to determine that their students (the older adults) were "getting" the class content. Most helpers helped.	Speaker(s) monitored audience and adapts presentation accordingly. An interesting or original approach taken to class content. Speaker(s) used techniques such as visual aids and props, anecdote, humour, surprising facts, direct audience participation. Often students made efforts to determine that their students (the older adults) were "getting" the class content, and waited for answers. All helpers helped.
Answering questions from audience	Not all questions could be answered. Questions answered with difficulty, and little knowledge of the class content was demonstrated. Unexpected questions or devices not handled well.	Most questions answered. Answers showed good knowledge and understanding of the class content. Language was mainly correct. Unexpected questions or devices handled fairly well.	Questions answered with little difficulty. Very good knowledge of the class content was demonstrated. Language was correct and fluent. Unexpected questions or devices handled very well.
DELIVERY			
Voice: clarity, pace, fluency, confidence	Presenters occasionally spoke clearly and at a good pace.	Presenters usually spoke clearly to ensure audience comprehension. Delivery was usually fluent and confident.	Presenters spoke clearly and at a good pace to ensure audience comprehension. Delivery was fluent, expressive, and confident.
Vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar	The vocabulary of the presentation was mainly appropriate for the class content and audience. The presentation content was occasionally grammatically correct.	The vocabulary of the presentation was appropriate for the class content and audience. Sentence structures were usually correct. The presentation content was usually grammatically correct.	The vocabulary of the presentation catered to the class content and audience. A variety of phrases and sentence structures were used. The content was grammatically correct.
Professionalism	Group members are not dressed professionally. Group members appear disorganized, unconfident, and unprofessional.	Some group members are dressed professionally. All group members exhibit poise, confidence, and a professional attitude.	All group members are dressed professionally. All group members exhibit poise, confidence, and a professional attitude.

Note. Adapted from Oral Presentations. (n.d.). *State Government Victoria: Department of Education & Training*. Retrieved from <https://www.eduweb.vic.gov.au/edulibrary/public/ict/rubric.doc>

Table 3. Teacher rubric for students teaching sessions with older adults: Session criteria related to the conclusion, homework, and overall effect

Criteria	Below expected level 0	Almost at expected level 70 %	At expected level 100 %
CONCLUSION, HOMEWORK & OVERALL EFFECT			
Student Participation & Group Dynamics	1 or 2 students led the session, others looked on in helpless confusion OR All students took turns leading the session and no one seemed in charge. The group was not cohesive.	1 or 2 students led the session, others seemed to know their role and how to help. The group was somewhat cohesive.	1 or 2 students clearly led the session, others functioned as helpers and enabled the main presenter(s) to keep the class on track. The group was very cohesive (e.g., individual students worked together as a GROUP to facilitate the classes).
Classroom Control	Didn't stop to ask for everyone's attention. Helpers helped while other student presented (instead of stopping so that presenter can gain classroom control).	Sometimes asked for everyone's attention. Helpers sometimes helped while other student presented.	Appropriately asked for everyone's attention, waited until had attention before proceeding. Helpers and presenter were well coordinated.
Conclusion of topic	An attempt was made to conclude the class.	The class was summed up clearly.	The class was summed up clearly and effectively, with key points emphasised.
Homework	Previous homework was not discussed and new homework was not given.	Either previous homework was not discussed or new homework wasn't given.	Both previous homework was discussed and new homework was given.
Impromptu Challenges	Did not adjust well to impromptu challenges.	Did an okay job and adapting to unexpected challenges.	Used critical thinking skills to adapt to changing circumstances. Demonstrated flexibility and quick thinking.
Overall Effect	The class was shaky, but the group made it through.	The class wasn't bad but still room for improvement.	The class was a solid performance.

activities may also be included. Reflection is a key part of service learning pedagogy and should be “continuous in timeframe as an ongoing part of the learner’s education, connected to the intellectual and academic needs of those involved, challenging to assumptions and complacency, and contextualized in terms of design (Eyler & Giles, 1996, p. 17). Alter the assignments from each ICI iteration to incorporate feedback from the older adults, community partners, and student teachers, as well as materials produced during the previous semester. For example, during the ICI’s first semester, students can facilitate four one hour-long weekly workshops and create user manuals. During the second semester, students can use that manual to design the courses and focus more on worksheets and homework, while perhaps facilitating more workshops (six instead of four). During the third semester, student teachers may then focus on designing and creating video tutorials. In the semester(s) where a manual is developed, at least one class period should be dedicated to groups’ exchange and peer review of each other’s manuals. This exchange facilitates group development as group members deal with constructive criticism. Combining this work with oral presentations additionally reminds the younger adult teachers to teach to students of different learning styles using a variety of visual, aural, and kinesthetic methods.

- Reflection activities can include weekly readings and discussion sessions during class periods where college students discuss published research concerning older adults and technology, or reading from a service learning text. One such useful service learning text is *Learning through Serving: A Student Guidebook for Service-Learning and Civic Engagement across Academic Disciplines and Cultural Communities* (Cress, Collier, Reitenauer, & Associates, 2013). The meetings also include troubleshooting, brainstorming, preparing for, and decompressing from ICI workshops. Journal entries are also required before/after the aging training day and before/after each workshop. Students additionally have one essay question per exam where they are invited to describe how their group project relates to course content. A final reflection paper is required for students to write after they complete a post-test survey following all ICI workshops. For this reflection paper, students are advised to take notes while completing their final survey, review their journal entries, and then answer questions designed to help them reflect on their experiences and make connections to course content, for example:
 - What were your initial perceptions about teaching seniors how to use technology (the tablets)? Please describe.
 - Did you experience any anxiety about/during the interactions with the seniors? Please describe.

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- What was the most a) challenging, b) rewarding part of your interaction(s) with the seniors?
- How do you think your group project relates to the content of this course?
- **Timing:** If technology workshops cannot be facilitated during class time, one recommendation is to have students submit their availability on the first day of class and organize students into groups with overlapping available time. If students are scheduling their own workshops, remind them to allow sufficient time to give an hour-long class and accommodate any necessary travel. Workshops planned later in the semester are easier to schedule and populate (more time for advertising), however, students tend to prefer workshops planned earlier in the semester. This allows for more congruence between course content and group work facilitated experiences (e.g., assimilation, socialization). Further, a front loaded course helps students balance their other coursework, as many other courses tend to be back loaded. If students are traveling, be sure to check with your university policies related to risk management. Many universities have students in service learning classes complete liability waiver forms at the beginning of the semester to account for travel to community partner locations. Additionally, you will want to check with the community partner regarding any liability waivers required of volunteers. These may vary from community partner internal waivers to state/federal background checks depending on the nature of the work the students will be performing.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The ICI is a strategically designed program that can benefit both younger and older adults, as well as create a sustainable source of needed training resources for an increasingly diverse future workforce (Magsamen-Conrad et al., 2013). Other research illustrates how among UTAUT variables including performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions; effort expectancy and facilitating conditions predicted 25% of the variance in tablet adoption after controlling for age, biological sex, and user experience (Magsamen-Conrad et al., 2015a). This means that given a specific type of support, older adults can become more technology literate, an outcome that could positively affect the overall safety, health, productivity and competitiveness of the nation's workforce.

This intervention is resource intensive in its current form (face-to-face delivery) but is being evaluated with an eye toward developing a series of technology training workshops and accompanying supplemental materials that can move the training

into the virtual “classroom” for easy accessibility and distribution. Tutorials suitable for online distribution have been developed since the project’s inception in 2012 (“Kate Magsamen-Conrad,” n.d.) but on a small scale. Future work would be similar in content, but funding is needed to allow for more extensive production, particularly post-production. The pilot videos, however, offer an understanding of the unique nature of the proposed videos that like face-to-face interventions should positively affect skills acquisition among older adults. These tutorials document real-life classroom sessions during which older adults learning tablet technology overcome obstacles to accomplish new tasks. In research recently presented at the 2014 National Communication Association Convention (Magsamen-Conrad & Dillon, 2014), we noted the importance of observability in the adoption of an innovation by an older adult, as well as positive experiences with other innovation attributes proposed in diffusion of innovations theory including relative advantage, compatibility, complexity and trialability (Rogers, 2003). Thus, making technology literacy visible among the older adult population should increase the likelihood of similar behavior among video viewers. Finally, we found connection and support among participants as facilitators of successful technology skills’ acquisition (Magsamen-Conrad & Dillon, 2014). Therefore, a website might be created to include elements designed to foster support and a sense of community for all participants who wish to read and offer words of encouragement, questions, and advice, while also sharing updates, and engaging in collaborative problem-solving on online discussion boards. This design replicates elements of existing successful online support groups (e.g., Barak, Boniel-Nissim, & Suler, 2008; Mayfield, Wen, Golant, & Rose, 2012). Future research should investigate multiple modes of delivering ICI content that have the potential to augment efforts to advance workforce diversity education and application in higher education.

CONCLUSION

The ICI seeks to respond to the dearth of targeted older adult worker training and training research. The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) recommends that employers “invest in training and building worker skills and competencies at all age levels” especially to “help older employees to adapt to new technologies” which is “often a concern for employers and older workers” (CDC, 2014). Enhancing older adults’ technology skills and self-efficacy can serve as a catalyst for many desirable outcomes. First, increased technological literacy skills, and self-efficacy can strengthen the productivity, performance, and well-being of older adults in the workplace. As companies and organizations continue to adopt new technologies and software programs, older adults will be better prepared with

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key technical skills and confidence, and they should experience lower levels of stress and occupational burnout. Moreover, many technical skills are transferrable, meaning that older adults can apply their knowledge and skills to diverse contexts in their professional and personal lives. For example, older adults who learn how to use videoconferencing technologies to lead a virtual team meeting could use the same set of skills to give a professional videoconference presentation on Skype, network with project leaders across vast geographical distances, and participate in professional development web seminars. By teaching older adults how to communicate more effectively through new technologies such as tablets, our training program can also help bridge the intergenerational digital divide (Pieri & Diamantinir, 2010), thereby encouraging more online interpersonal interactions among older adults, presenting opportunities for computer-mediated communication between older and younger adults, and reducing age-related stigma (James, McKechnie, Swanberg, & Besen, 2012; North & Fiske, 2012).

The ICI also has benefits for university students. The ICI research team has made great strides helping older adults adapt to new technologies while simultaneously building skills in younger adults. The ICI offers evidence that multigenerational classrooms may be useful in enhancing learning, particularly in higher education (Sánchez & Kaplan, 2014). It hints at using technology in new ways to allow for interaction that improves rather than disrupts education (Carroll, 2010). The systematic, positive, guided intergroup contact fosters stereotype and prejudice reduction (Pettigrew, 1998; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006), as well as benefits related to the service learning project aspects (enhanced student engagement, learning, higher-order thinking skills, and test scores, see RMC, 2007, and improved social and behavioral competencies, see Gross & Maloney, 2012; Roehlkepartain, 2007; Wilczenski & Coomy, 2007). Further study of the ICI and other service learning interventions will provide important information about the ways that community-engaged activities can facilitate high impact learning, civic participation, and partnerships outside of the classroom, all while using technology to foster interaction.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Ageism: A form of prejudice or discrimination based on age.

Community-based Participatory Research: A collaborative investigation where community participants are as involved in the research process as the scientist(s).

Diversity: A variety of individual differences among a group of people. In the workforce, variety is meant to indicate the inclusion of people representing various ages, ethnicities, races, sex, sexual orientation, etc.

Intergroup Contact Theory: Popularized by scholars like Allport (1954) and Pettigrew (1998), this theory explains how prejudice between groups of people can decrease through collaborative, interdependent activities.

Service Learning: A pedagogical method that challenges students to apply course concepts outside of the classroom and advance their education by cultivating symbiotic partnerships with community stakeholders.

Technology: Devices and software that people operate in their homes and professions.

Unified Theory of Adoption and Use of Technology: A theoretical framework that aims to account for people's intentions to use specific technologies. Specifically, this theory predicts that people's (a) *expectations* about the degree to which a type of technology is effective, user friendly, enjoyable, and socially acceptable and (b) *perceptions* about relevant resources, skills, capabilities, and anxiety will determine their behavioral intentions.

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Chapter 9

Towards a Reference Framework for Generational Analyses on Information Technology Professionals

Pedro Jácome de Moura Jr.
UFPB, Brazil

Diogo Henrique Helal
FUNDAJ-MEC, Brazil

ABSTRACT

In light of the sociology of generations, this theoretical trial relates literature on information technology (IT) professionals, IT professional management, IT project teams, and generational studies to elaborate a reference framework that supports the research on the intergenerational dynamics of the field. The proposed framework offers a definition and structure for the concept of IT generation and contemplates the dimensions related to (1) technological contemporary changes, (2) culture bearers, (3) continuous nature of generational change, (4) generational succession, (5) knowledge transmission and sharing, and (6) intergenerational conflict, allowing future empirical research on the IT generational phenomena.

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INTRODUCTION

The term “information technology” (IT), as a specific term, has its origins in the 1950s, when Leavitt and Whisler (1958) anticipate the impact of sociological, political and cultural approaches to an organizational context traditionally occupied by engineers and mathematicians, and state “The new technology does not yet have a single established name. We shall call it information technology” (p. 41).

IT is, therefore, the nomenclature that embraces these multiple knowledge domains and it is, from a sociotechnical perspective, a study area that investigates and explains the effectiveness of computational artifacts in the organizational scope, since it contemplates the technical (technology and processes) and social (structures and people) levels in the organizations.

The IT professional is the individual who acts in IT activities and is paid for his/her work. According to Bureau and Suquet (2009), this generally involves tasks related to design (system analysis, computer programming, system implementation, system testing, requirement elicitation), management (of projects, teams and resources) and use (technical support, operational support, training, etc).

The specialists who built the IT field originated from different professional communities (mathematicians, physicists, engineers, etc.) – since there was no academic formation in IT – and were trained by computer manufacturers. Currently, IT professionals are formed mainly by formal education processes (Grajek, 2011; Segre and Rapkiewicz, 2003), but the influence of technology providers remains (De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014).

The IT industry formally employs high proportion (80%) of young individuals in IT related jobs (Olinto, 2005; Ieger and Bridi, 2014), which is considered proportionately higher than observed for this same age group in the EAP (economically active population) of other professions. These young professionals generally act in teams, composed of a small number of professionals with complementary capacities and skills (Katzenbach and Smith, 2003; Mathieu *et al.*, 2000; Peled, 2000).

Team composition have been investigated from the academic-scientific and managerial perspectives (Burnes, 2006). Studies have been conducted more frequently on member personality traces (Devaraj *et al.*, 2008; Siau *et al.*, 2010), leadership and group sense (Grabrielsson *et al.*, 2009; Mumford *et al.*, 2002; Tsai *et al.*, 2012) and knowledge creation and sharing (Jakubik, 2011; Salazar *et al.*, 2012).

It is known that values, principles and behaviors of a professional group or subgroup can be defined by a shared worldview (Mannheim, 1993). As a result, sharing a specific worldview, roughly, can help identify a professional generation in the organizational environment. Notwithstanding, a brief incursion into the literature related to generations and IT suggests a peculiar absence of the theme as an object for recent research. With exception for the study of Joseph *et al.* (2010), for

example, who discusses the set of skills demanded from IT professionals, literature in this field seems to be concentrated at the end of the last century (Myers, 1991).

Explanations why this subject has suffered from disinterest for over a decade escape the scope of the present study, but it is unreasonable to believe that it be no longer relevant, specially when the role of the IT professional presents critical social implications, as is the case with intense IT application in medical procedures and healthcare management, traffic control, or conduction of autonomous vehicles, for instance (Lurie and Mark, 2016).

On the other hand, the increasing occurrence of unethical behavior among IT professionals, recently illustrated by incidents involving the automotive industry (Borenstein *et al.*, 2017; Lurie and Mark, 2016), reinforces the attention that must be given to the values and principles maintained by each professional generation. Based on these assumptions, this theoretical essay introduces the following question: What would an adequate reference framework be for analyzing IT professional generations?

Whereas IT professionals make up a unique professional group, since (a) they share a particular need to constantly acquire and master new knowledge and experience in order to remain employable; (b) such knowledge and experience does not presuppose any formal educational credentials (eg from universities); and (c) they share a common lexicon, often linked to a specific technology and methodology (Joia and Mangia, 2017; De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014), such a framework for analysis of IT professional generations would alleviate the complexity of IT team and project management, by promoting a better understanding of diversity (team composition), technology (skills), knowledge sharing (attitude to) and worldview roles on team performance and team conflict.

The answer to that research question (including the proper definition of IT professional generation) requires (1) characterization of the IT professional, (2) the performance of this professional in teams, (3) the sociology of the generations and (4) the studies carried out in the generations and in IT, which comprises the structure of the rest of the study. These sections, covering a large literature review, serve as basis for the elaboration of a reference framework that would allow the empirical verification of the phenomenon in future studies.

THEORETICAL REFERENCE

IT Professionals and IT Work Teams

The IT professional has the role of supporting other people with the use of computers, be it for developing products and services in specific IT companies or perform in teams in other business areas (Segre and Rapkiewicz, 2003). However, this professional

characterization is made difficult by the diversity of definitions found in literature (Freeman and Aspray, 1999). For this reason, the characterization attempted is based on the positions and attributions they assume (Barnes and Gotterer, 1975; Donohue and Power, 2012) or its distinction (that is, for what it is not) in relation to other professions (Zhang and Jones, 2009).

The distinctions in relation to other professions should consider the specific importance IT professionals have over many social aspects, the longevity/briefness of this form of professional performance, the impact of the organizational and IT dynamics over labor, the obsolescence and disqualification dynamics of the set of knowledge to be dominated, and, more directly, the specific aspects of the tasks executed (Ang and Slaughter, 2000; De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014; Zhang and Jones, 2009).

Intra and extra-professional level conflicts permeate the daily life of these professionals, considering that (a) there is a demand for constant learning and adaptation while experiencing permanent threats of disqualification due to the technological and organizational dynamics at the same time; (b) there are instabilities in the work-family relation; (c) a certain level of gender segregation persists in relation to the professional attributions; (d) the debate on the professional knowledge encoded into the organizational structure *versus* the knowledge structured on expertise has tended to favor the former, with discussion occurring only punctually; and (e) the effort for increasing the levels of agency at the time in which high expectations are outlined by society (De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014).

It may be deduced that the IT professional experiences double pressure: (a) maintaining him/herself constantly updated and productive in the application of new technologies and (b) adapting to new techniques and skills that are external to their areas of formation, generally connected to administration, resource management and interpersonal relations (Ben, 2007; Coes and Schotanus, 2009; Joseph *et al.*, 2010; Kappelman *et al.*, 2016).

In academic, popular, and political discussion environments, IT professionals are predominantly described as “professionals” given their work is associated to a profession. However, in many countries, there is an increasing concern over the recognition of the IT work as a profession, as well as over the establishment of an ethical code and formation standards (Ilavarasan and Malish, 2008). In this sense, the recent occurrence of unethical behavior among IT professionals, especially those incidents involving the automotive industry (Borenstein *et al.*, 2017; Lurie and Mark, 2016), reinforces the attention that must be paid to the values and principles carried by each professional generation. Such aspects are certainly present in the transitions between generations and in the conflicts derived from this process (Grün, 1993), in the sense of establishing a generational standard, on one hand, or of leading to a rupture or structural change, on the other.

The existence of ethical codes elaborated by different organization and the lack of their routine application illustrate some of the motives for which the IT work has not yet reached the status of profession (Ilavarasan and Malish, 2008), notwithstanding the efforts undertaken in this direction, as those of the IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineering), by means of the *Computer Society*, or those of the ACM (Association for Computing Machinery) (Denning, 2001). Efforts for regularization of the IT professions, in Brazil, for example, have occurred since 2007, with the establishment of a Senate Bill, which remains undefined yet.

This context, in which external regulation and/or normative gaps occur, would lead to self-regulation. Appointing their own positions and workstations would be one of the forms of arbitrariness practiced by the professional group whose main objective would be to distinguish themselves from professionals considered of lower technical quality (Kostera and Postula, 2011). This last inference seems to be particularly evident when verifying the actual facility in exercising the IT profession, given the inexistence of conformity norms for professional licensing (Donohue and Power, 2012). In the statement of De Moura Jr and Helal, “Considering that there is no regulation to offer security to IT professionals, the creation of their own mechanisms of protection seems to be a legitimate option” (2014, p. 333).

Specifically, with regards to the normalization of the profession, it may also be observed that IT professionals are often invited to assume managerial positions in specific areas – unrelated to IT – due to their domain over knowledge acquired in that area. Such phenomenon would also affect career progression issues (Luftman and Kempaiah, 2008; Rodrigues, 2002) and would contribute to the scarcity of experienced IT professionals that persist in their original career (in IT) until retiring.

IT professionals perform their tasks commonly in teams. A work team is not only another form of organizing individuals around a common task, given that teams are characterized by a challenge established from a performance goal based on results (Katzenbach and Smith, 2003). That is, a work team is defined by its primary objective of generating results from the collective performance of its members, which differs from other forms of groupings of individuals for team work, such as work groups which are in general goal-oriented based on individual activities.

The concept of high performance teams was coined by IT scholars (Mathieu *et al.*, 2000) acting in the private sector (Peled, 2000). The IT high performance teams are defined as (work) units encompassing a small number of professionals (no more than 12 members) with complementary competences and skills, committed to a common objective and performance goals. They adopt a shared approach of being, as a team, mutually responsible for the success of critical IT projects. They are dynamic and productive elite units, particularly important at times of organizational or leadership change in complex and critical organizational projects (Katzenbach and Smith, 2003; Mathieu *et al.*, 2000; Peled, 2000).

The products and results of their performance must be the primary objectives when choosing a team approach, not the aspiration, in itself, of comprising a team (Katzenbach and Smith, 2003). A team acts under a performance imperative, which indicates discipline. In this context, team leadership is rarely the main determinant of team performance. The role of the leader is more related to obtaining commitment, fulfilling gaps and decision-making.

Studies on work teams are based on individual characteristics (team members), the team itself and its organization, seeking to understand the mechanisms that affect teams by means of observation of their functioning. In general, the team investigation models usually adopt a reference framework based on an input-process-output relation, in which *inputs* are the conditions existent prior to performance (distinct periods during which an activity is processed, including feedback), *process* describes how the *entries* are transformed by the team into outcomes, and *output* contains the product of the team work, where the qualitative and quantitative output of the team is the principle result (Mathieu *et al.*, 2000).

It is possible, however, that the configuration and characteristics of team work, including in IT, are also affected by generational issues. In the last 60 years – which corresponds to the most intense period for IT development – many generations of IT professionals entered the field. Of these, some withdrew, others remained, and new generations are continuously incorporated. But how can this generational mixes and dynamic be considered in IT team management?

Concepts and Models in Generational Studies

Generations comprise a phenomenon of sociological interest due to its role in understanding the structure of social (and “spiritual”) movements, and the frantic transformation that society undergoes (Mannheim, 1993, p. 204).

Generations have been analyzed by means of measurable aspects: Initiation, duration, death and generational succession. These aspects would be associated to a deterministic destiny, which establishes that at the end of a life span, culture, creativity and tradition disappear, having existed only as certain human configuration in a specific period. Generational succession would represent a change in configuration only if temporal intersection between generations did not occur (abrupt succession). This seems to be a hypothetical issue, already discussed by Hume and Comte. In practice, however, a continuous flow is observed which allows for cultural continuity over the continuity of generational successions (Mannheim, 1993).

This simplified analysis, restricted to quantifiable means, is questioned by many authors (see Dilthey *apud* Mannheim, 1993; Domingues, 2002; Eliot, 2011; Mannheim, 1993). The perception of generations as homogeneous units would ignore the “plurality of life styles and identities in advanced modernity” (Domingues, 2002,

p. 68), which refers to the concept of contemporaneousness portrayed by Dilthey, that is, individuals who share the same growing environment and experience the same cultural influences (both political and social), which leads to the assumption that contemporaneousness occurs even if the ages (or other quantifiable attributes) are distinct. In other words, one would run the risk of restraining the definition of “generation” to a set of individuals who share the same age (or chronological generation).

“Culture” is understood as all that is produced “by society as a whole, or, on the other hand, all that which becomes a society” (Eliot, 2011, p. 41). Here, the broad perspective espoused by Eliot (2011) is highlighted – for whom “the primary channel for cultural transmission is the family” (p. 47) – in relation to the culture perspective (“same cultural influences”), for example, defended by Domingues (2002). This cultural segmentation is denominated by Eliot (2011) as local culture or “group culture” (p. 47). Thus, by adhesion to the holistic definition of “culture” and to preserve this clear definition, henceforth, this essay adopts the word “culture” in reference to “generational culture”.

The characteristics of a generation can be observed and analyzed by means of five dimensions, according to Mannheim (1993):

1. **The constant emergence of new culture bearers:** Society is affected by the creation and accumulation of culture, but not only by individuals naturally belonging to the current generation. New years of emergence are incorporated to the same generation and, thus, the culture is developed by people who come to have access to accumulated and shared cultural goods. These new access modalities can occur in two forms: by means of social displacement (physical-spatial, economic-political) and by means of vital moments (generational changes), these latter being potentially transformative, given that change occurs in the new culture bearers (who not necessarily intend to preserve that which was valuable for the previous generation);
2. **The withdrawing of the old culture bearers:** According to Mannheim (1993, p. 213), “for the continuation of our society, social memory is as necessary as the forgetfulness or emergence of new acts”. With regards to social memory, this can be conscious (as the systematic and supra-generational report of historical facts) or unconscious (passed between generations, such as with sentimental issues, without the need for an explicit report);
3. **The fact that culture bearers from a specific generational culture only participate in a limited period of the historical process:** This aspect considers the comprehension of the phenomenon of position affinity which, more than the sharing of ideas, is the sharing of experiences. Participating in a limited

period of a historical process means choosing the battles to struggle. For the following generation, this confrontation might not make any sense;

4. **The need for constant transmission of accumulated cultural goods:** That which is conscientiously being taught, between generations, is the most quantitative and qualitatively limited content (from the perspective of its meaning). Most contents and dispositions functioning in a new generation were transmitted unconsciously, without either “teacher” or “student” explicitly knowing. What is consciously being taught is the content which, at some place and at some point in the course of history, has become problematic and reflexive for past generations. For the new generations, receivers of this legacy, the unconscious contents tend to be established as a “natural image of the world” (Mannheim, 1993, p. 218);
5. **The continuous nature of generational change:** Generations are in constant interaction. It is the intermediate generations – and not the oldest or youngest – that confront each other. In addition, social dynamism moderates these relations, intensifying or attenuating intergenerational conflict. The constant interaction between the young and old softens the differences, and, in times of tranquility, the continuity of the transitions permits the transformation to take place without great dissension.

There is a specific concept in Mannheim (1993) that supports generational analysis, although it is not explicit as part of his model: the generational unit. The similarity between the conscientious contents of the individuals and the socializing effects these contents have over the establishment of bonds between individuals is the starting point to understand the concept. Human perception is oriented by configuration arrangements, that is, reality is not perceived with individual meanings and separate from unconscious arrangements. One cause of this behavior would be the human incapacity to deal with – and process – the infinite elements that emerge. Therefore, previous arrangements of these elements (categories, classes, etc.) would be crucial for a continuous interpretation of reality. However, in addition to the psychological explanation, there are also social origins for these arrangements or configurations. That is, values and meanings would be previously defined by the group they belong to, and the configurations would be crucial to the perception of one generation in relation to another.

Mannheim (1993) argues that the study of generations especially involves the study of youth, which is corroborated by other authors (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997; Mörch, 2003; Nielsen, 1998). Notwithstanding, the insertion of the elderly into these studies is suggested, due to their importance for a broader generational discussion (Domingues, 2002; Grün, 1993), and accompanying the worldwide tendency of population aging (Camarano, 2002). Thus, the expansion of the concept

of generational conflict to organizations seems reasonable, based on the dissociation of the concept of chronological age from the concept of social age, and the addition of the concepts of static and dynamic generational conflict (Grün, 1993).

Analyses conducted from interviews with executives of two distinct generations show that, with the older executives, some personal issues are highlighted, such as resentment, the heroism of the time, professional ethics, cult to technical titles obtained during their career, dedication to an organization and openness to deal with personal affairs. Of the younger executives, however, the issues that are prominent are: unwillingness to mention personal issues, higher educational level, alignment with company objectives, role as specialist/consultant and detachment from the organization (Grün, 1993), which suggests a potential for strong intergenerational conflicts.

Grün (1993) proposes the analysis of generational conflicts in organizations as a function of issues related to (a) merit and market (for the younger, the destiny of individuals would be decided by the market, in function of his/her capacity in fulfilling the demands of this market), (b) aspects of public and private life (the younger clearly see the differences between private and professional life), (c) ethics and *ethos* (the implicit guiding principles, the *ethos* of the elder are no longer sufficient, and must be made explicit in ethical principles), (d) sentiment of legitimacy (the older feel valued when listened to, while, to the younger, this would be a routine situation, inherent to their performance), (e) diploma, training and re-socialization (the title of higher education provides the elder with the cognitive conditions for insertion into modernity, legitimizing the fundamental bases acquired in professional careers), (f) the individual and the organization (the older see the organizations as autonomous, transcendent to individuals; the younger see power relations in organizations only as ordinary/professional relations between people), and (g) aging and *auto-poises* (aging would not occur homogeneously in each generation, since individuals possessing greater amounts of social and cultural capital would be more resistant to organizational dynamics).

Some other social patterns suggest behavioral changes in the new generations. First, the extension of youth, which is characterized by the expansion of the life stage previous to adulthood, along with new meanings for the concept of youth, in which this stage would progressively cease to be a step towards reaching the objective of becoming an adult (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997). Specifically, the assumption of the responsibilities as adults would cease to be the final transition between youth and adulthood, and become a “social condition that can last many years”, that is, a new transition stage, *per se*. Add to this the “growth of expectations”, defined by the increase in educational levels and by the sensitive and increasing gap between the demand and supply of work positions (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997, p. 111).

The first explanation for such a phenomenon would be given by the role of economic conjecture over the strategies for the extension of the transition period to adult life. The model elaborated by Chiesi and Martinelli (1997) is based on behaviors demonstrated by the young in relation to (a) completion of studies, (b) establishment of their own residential address, (c) conjugal life, (d) involvement with work and (e) paternity-maternity. That is, these behaviors would be proxy for a favorable/unfavorable economic conjecture.

Secondly, an increasing demand of the young for autonomy and the valuation of their capacities is observed, which entails as a consequence the decrease in the role of work in relation to other existential values. Work is critically evaluated, “less and less a tiresome need”, despite not being avoidable (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997, p. 123) whenever a routine is considered uninteresting (Nielsen, 1998). Backed by these propositions, it is recommended that organizations adopt new forms for work organization that involve the delegation of responsibilities, self-management of functions and result evaluations (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997), which, if made effective, would be inserted in a socio-technical perspective of work systems, even if the authors do not mention it.

The understanding of changes that occur in the process from youth to the adult phase seems consensual. The trajectory of the standard life phase (economic independence, marriage, reproduction, housing) and its obsolescence must be discussed, with possible causes being the longer duration of formation, which would be consequence of the greater demands of the labor market (Nielsen, 1998). Other possible causes could be highlighted, connected to consumption, welfare, comfort or a standard of living which the young would hardly be able to afford without relying on the direct support of parents or responsible others.

In this sense, the concept of stability – in conjugal life and in employment – is highlighted as valuable for the young, given control aspects (anticipation, predictability, reduction of uncertainty) that could be provided. The unpredictability would postpone the independence and autonomy of the young, which can be treated by such concepts as “extended present”, by Nowotny (1993) and “perpetual present”, by Adams (1995), from which one may deduce that the hedonic consumption aspects (of travels, relationships, etc.) would precede the desire for stability. Such change is also treated by Du Bois-Reymond (1998), by pointing out that the life projects of young people depart from a normal biography – linear and predictable –, and approaches another, that of choice, centered on freedom and self-choice, in a context marked by uncertainty. However, it is believed that these tendencies may be individualized due to the cultural and professional context in which the young may be inserted.

Third, underlying the idealist discourse manifested by youth, ambiguities are perceived in their perceptions on adult life. The effects they understand as stability are not able to be generalized and vary especially in relation to the educational level. The post-industrial or post-modern generations would have departed from the standard life trajectory, established traditionally and reinforced, to a large degree, by modernity (Camarano *et al.*, 2004; Nielsen, 1998). Individualization would be the characteristic of this new society in constant mobility (of employments, of residences, of partners), seeking to postpone its entry into adult life. It would be representative of the “Peter Pan” syndrome (Nielsen, 1998, p. 74).

Could this fear of routine be related to the ideals of complete and constant happiness, generally disseminated by the consumption market? In which measure would these ideals be reachable? Which ambiguities would be generated from the impossibility of reaching this objective?

There would be tensions between the young regarding aspects of security (stability) and the desire for making choices (Nielsen, 1998). That is, stability is desirable, insofar as it does not restrict the life options of the individual, which seems paradoxical since choices, in the levels discussed, implicate the possibility of destabilization. This search for choice autonomy is also demonstrated in the interest in disposing of many employment opportunities, for no dependence (and consequent attachment) to a single job for one’s entire life (Grün, 2003; Nielsen, 1998). However, some authors criticize this approach since, the State and employers would transmit the responsibility for employment to the worker or to the candidate to the job placement, in a process which involves blaming the individual (Helal and Rocha, 2011).

When compared to their parents’ life, the perceptions of the young on their own life indicate that (a) future life (marriage, housing, possessions, children) would contrast with the values demonstrated by their parents’ generation; (b) the young reveal greater concerns with education, in contrast to their perception on parents’ education; (c) specifically young women reveal a critical stance on their mothers’ view regarding marriage; and (d) the young reveal greater difficulties in relation to employment – in function of the educational demands – and housing, when compared to their parents (Nielsen, 1998).

The fourth reference for generational analysis is concentrated on competences, based on the education/formation of the young, since the concept of competences is a converging point between three large dimensions: the historical perspective of education, the perspective on the development of the youth themselves (and underlying issues of individualization and social interaction that derive from the relation between these two aspects) and the challenges of modernity, which include the themes of post-industrial, consumption and knowledge societies (Mörch, 2003).

In this context, an oscillation is verified between being young and adult, with alternate attractions between one point and another of a continuum – while common sense shows that education establishes a transitional, unidirectional trajectory towards work and the future. The transition would have occurred successfully if the youth acquires good employment (Mörch, 2003). Once again, a challenge is proposed to the established idea, since stability at work has been confronted with the flexibility offered by the labor market (Nielsen, 1998). Therefore, would it make sense to continue thinking on transition in a post-modernity condition? Or, seen from another angle, would adults and adult life have disappeared? (Mörch, 2003).

One fact becomes prominent: constant learning (along life) has broadened the central activity of youth – learning – and expanded it to all spheres of life. This constant learning causes the adult to see him/herself as young, with young desires, values and behaviors (Mörch, 2003). Perhaps the meaning that Mörch (2003) gives to learning deserves a warning, since it seems to mistake learning with experiences when mentioning the constant search for new relationships and sexual partners as examples of learning.

The challenge of this fragmented and “indirect” youth (in the sense of not being directed only to adult life) becomes that of obtaining individual skills, adequate and sufficient for the labor market, along with the formation of “transversal” professional competences (Mörch, 2003, p. 59). The model for the development of these competences, however, must be based on three dimensions to be jointly developed: on being (self-knowledge), knowing (knowledge, information) and on doing (know-how, practice), instead of centered on only the capacity of applying knowledge for practical problem solving (Mörch, 2003). The issue becomes even more difficult for many youths, since discerning which activities and competences would be the most important for future careers requires a certain level of maturity (Camarano *et al.*, 2004).

Regardless of the chronology or age segmentation of a generation, Domingues (2002, p. 77) proposes multiple dimensions for the social systems to analyze the generational issue in its complexity: (a) the material dimension: “generations find a fundamental substrate, indeed, in the body and biological succession”. In addition, the material dimension considers the resources that a generation can mobilize as crucial for defining generations and the relations between them; (b) the hermeneutic dimension, which defines the symbolic universe (cognitive, normative and ritualistic) of the collective. This implies that “distinct generations do not only coexist from distinct biological stages, but also from differentiated experiences and identities” (p. 78); (c) the power dimension, which considers generations as collectivities with variable power, capable of imposing one over the other; and (d) the time-space dimension in which a generation develops, which considers the generational succession as a composition of biological, maturity and chronological elements.

These analytical dimensions allow the observation of a complex “collective subjectivity”, sufficient to inhibit the tendency of thinking of generations from a reified subject, “Cartesian-Hobbesian”, self-conscious model, “with strong performance capacity based on their rationally defined and pursued interests”, theorizing the generational issue as an instance of collective subjectivity which attempts to perceive generations by means of “heterogeneity, decentralization, and interactivity of social generations, without disregarding the material substrate, or the biological” (Domingues, 2002, p. 68; 82).

For Beck (2011), different classes and family bonds are not completely annulled; in fact, there is a process of substituting one dependency for another. Thus, the author explains that the individual discharges him/herself from sustaining structures and traditional bonds, but in turn, receives the pressures of the labor market: a subsistence based on consumption and the standardization and controls contained.

With these transformations, the loss of centrality of certain social aspects that are modernly influential in the formation of identities is also considered, especially work and profession (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997; Domingues, 2002), giving place to consumption as the relevant element in the construction of identities.

As assumed from collective subjectivity, social life “is constituted of an interactive, multidimensional network, in which individuals and collective actors are influenced in a mutual and causal manner” (Domingues, 2002, p. 68). These multiple influences would encompass the networks of meaning (hermeneutic, normative and cognitive), power relations and social space-time dimensions as interconnected analyses. Whereas this pluralization reaches other collectivities, including the professionals ones, the complexity of the phenomenon is strengthened.

Studies on IT Generations

It seems reasonable to estimate that for those pioneers in the use of computers and its artifacts, the degree of difficulty to begin their professional activity was considerably higher when compared to today’s beginners, since practically all the technical framework still had to be developed and it was those same pioneers who were responsible for this development. Shared knowledge was unavailable, even less in volume, diversity and readiness currently available.

In the 1970’s, for example, for young people to use innovative technology they were required to develop it themselves. This explains why approximately 50% of them began software coding when they were less than 16 years old, while today, close to 80% of the developers are between the ages of 18 and 24 (including students of undergraduate programs related to IT) and began coding after 16 years of age (Ravisankar, 2018).

Grün (1993, p. 50) recalls that the insertion of technology within organizations, mostly via computers, was an event of large proportion for all of a generation that awaited for this moment, since with this insertion, companies would necessarily undergo internal reorganization and would not do without the large supply of knowledge and skills that could only be obtained from a new generation of professionals: “the main attribute of the new generation comes to be its technological contemporaneity” while “exacerbating the differences between the newly arrived and the previous occupants”; “all the ethics of autodidact careers is called into question in the conflict that opposes the technique of the new executives against the loyalty of old employees.”

One should note that Grün (1993) speaks of “technological contemporaneity” in confrontation with “autodidacts”. The extension of this concept to deal with “technological contemporaneities” could also be considered, that is, in the IT field, the generational succession would be due to this overlapping of “technological contemporaneities”. Such a proposition does not seem absurd if one considers that studies on IT professionals generations are confused with studies on generations of technology, as in the case of the studies that compare third generation language programmers with their colleagues who program fourth generation languages (Myers, 1991). The strength of the influence of technology over the determination of what would be a generational unit is easy to perceive (Mannheim, 1993). A possible strong bond, therefore, between IT professionals generations and technological waves, or “technological contemporaneities”, may be deduced.

The characterization of IT professionals generations could consider other aspects in addition to technological contemporaneities. Experience (as an attribute of human capital), cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1979), and social bonds (as an attribute of social capital) would be relevant aspects for the career advancement of IT professionals (Zhang and Jones, 2009), and, as such, the stage of the career could be adopted as a generation proxy. Another plausible deduction for generation proxies would be the use of experience, taken as the quantity of years professionally performing in the IT area, or tenure perceived as the quantity of years performing professionally in the same organization (Myers, 1991).

Other generational studies show that the *soft skills* in IT are defined as a pragmatic intelligent form, in counterpoint to academically demonstrated intelligence. The additional soft skills (non-technical) have been comparatively analyzed between experienced and new IT professionals (another form of characterizing IT generations), by means of four generational dimensions: the task (the know-how for problem-solving in IT), the career (anticipation of which skills will be valued in the future), the self (intra-personal competencies of self-motivation and self-management aimed at productivity) and the others (employers, supervisors, subordinates, collaborators, clients, users, partners, etc.). There are indications that more experienced IT

professionals perform better (than their less experienced colleagues), specifically by providing a larger repertoire of solutions, by demanding less time to evoke this repertoire and by providing higher quality responses (Joseph *et al.*, 2010).

Specifically, concerning the need for constant motivation for the challenges that arise – which includes the need for self-development in many diverse competencies – two phenomena have deserved attention in studies on IT professionals: change of employment, remaining active in IT (turnover); and abandoning the IT area, starting to work in another professional area in the same or another company (turnaway). Studies on the antecedents of the *turnaway* among IT professionals reveal that the lack of growth opportunities in the IT career, by technical or managerial development, is one of the main factors that leads to change in the professional area (Joia and Mangia, 2017).

The turnover intensions among IT professionals of generation X (born between 1965 and 1980) and from other IT professional generations are not affected by the differences between generations. There is an assumption that members of generation X are more creative, self-determinant and less prone to follow authority, and are leading a movement towards voluntary turnover, which is not confirmed, however. On the other hand, the strongest motives for turnover have been recorded as (a) the lack of loyalty of the organization to the professional, (b) the lack of leadership, (c) technological discrepancy by the employer (which hinders the professionals from being updated with new technologies and, therefore, pursuing a higher degree of employability) and (d) incompatible remuneration and lack of clear opportunities for advancement (Burnes, 2006).

The role of the human and social capital over career opportunities of IT professionals is evaluated considering that (a) their skills and competences, distinctly from most other professions, erode over time; (b) to maintain his/her value, this professional must constantly renew his/her skills and competences; (c) they present high turnover rates; (d) they demonstrate a high need for professional growth; and (e) despite the low requirement of social interaction, when compared to other professional groups, continuous growth in this sense has been noticed (Zhang and Jones, 2009, p. 70).

Concerning the development of skills and competencies, despite the fact that most professionals present an university diploma attesting to their formation in IT, approximately 90% of these professionals play continuous self-taught learning (as recorded in a sample of close to 39 thousand software developers). For the younger generations, self-taught learning occurs directly with the use of technology (such as by accessing videos on the internet), while older generations appeal to books (Ravisankar, 2018).

Furthermore, organizations more oriented to professionalism would be more capable of leading their IT professionals to perform within teams and be more inclined to problem-solving (Brodbeck and Brodbeck, 2010). Orientation to problem-solving

is highlighted by employers as the most valued skill, since it indicates the capacity of structuring complex problems and transform them into specific algorithms (Ravisankar, 2018).

There is a strong concern with the future IT professional generations, specifically regarding the educational/formative aspects and the stimulation to engage the youth in careers in this area to avoid the collapse in the provision of professionals to the society (Bei *et al.*, 2011; Carroll *et al.*, 2006). In this sense, recommendations are being made regarding the choice (or definition) of the technologies to be used in organizations, given that there are distinct preferences among the many generations that coexist within a certain context. As an example, the older generations will opt for learning new technologies based on their experience and will preferably select those that tend to “survive” longer in use, while younger generations are prone to deal with new technologies which they do not even like, provided their “thirst” for learning is met (Ravisankar, 2018).

DEFINITION OF IT GENERATION AND A FRAMEWORK PROPOSAL

Recovering the definition of “culture” borrowed from Eliot (2011, p 41), where it is all that is produced by “society as a whole, and, on the other hand, all that becomes a society”, whereas cultural segmentation is denominated as local culture or “group culture” (*idem*, p. 47), we define IT generation as a cluster of IT professionals which endorse a particular set of values and behavior, and share (create and are created by) the same group culture.

An IT generation is modeled as a third order, latent construct, formed by the dimensions of (1) technological contemporaneities (technological influence; Grün, 1993; Mannheim, 1993); (2) accumulated cultural goods (experience/tenure, social bonds; Bourdieu, 1979; Mannheim, 1993; Zhang and Jones, 2009); (3) generational unit (arrangements of social configuration and arrangements of categories and classes relative to professional perceptions on (a) merit and market, (b) aspects of public and private life, (c) ethics and *ethos*, (d) segment of legitimacy, (e) diploma, formation and re-socialization, (f) individuals and organization, and (g) ageing and *auto-poiesis*; Grün, 1993; Mannheim, 1993); (4) view/level of consensus/conflict (intra and extra-professionals; De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014; Grün, 1993; Mannheim, 1993); (5) transition between youth and adult life including the stages of: (a) conclusion of studies, (b) establishment of own residential address, (c) conjugal union, (d) involvement with work, (e) paternity/maternity; (Adams, 1995; Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997; Nielsen, 1998; Nowotny, 1993); (6) work centrality (in relation to other existential values; Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997); (7) development of

Figure 1. Theoretical model



competencies and learning (education, formation, formal credentials vs. self-teaching; Joseph *et al.*, 2010; Mörch, 2003); (8) power and time-space (Domingues, 2002); and (9) external motivation and self-motivation (resilience, *turnover*, *turnaway*) (De Moura Jr and Helal, 2014; Joia and Mangia, 2017). Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical model derived from this definition.

Understanding that Mannheim (1993) seeks to analyze the intergenerational dynamics in depth, it may be concluded that the model may serve as a base for generational studies in IT. Figure 2 proposes a dynamic model for generational research in IT that simultaneously contemplates the constant emergence of new culture bearers (arrow ‘a’), the output of old culture bearers (arrow ‘b’), the fact that culture bearers of a specific generational connection only participate for a limited period of the historic process (arrow ‘c’), the necessity of tradition – the constant transmission – of cultural goods accumulated (curved dashed arrow ‘d’) and the continuous nature of the generational change (correlations ‘e’, that do not occur directly between ‘a’ e ‘b’, but only by means of the intermediary generation ‘c’).

of new knowledge as a form of acceptance and belonging to several technological contemporary groups. Its permanence in performance would be responsible for the transmission of accumulated cultural goods between the generation that ceases to perform and the emerging new generation, as well as would be a communication link between both generations.

The intergenerational conflict (indicated by the arrows) would be analyzed by means of the seven dimensions/analytical categories proposed by Grün (1993), namely: merit and market, aspects of the public and private life, ethics and *ethos*, sentiment of legitimacy, diploma, formation and re-socialization, individual and organization, and aging and *auto-poiesis*.

It may be deduced from literature that the greater efforts in research have been employed in the analysis of 'a' (Figure 2), from studies on the duration of youth (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997), on the demand of the young for autonomy, capacity valuation and the "decentralization" of work (Chiesi and Martinelli, 1997; Nielsen, 1998), on the ambiguities regarding adult life (Camarano *et al.*, 2004; Nielsen, 1998) and on the skills and competencies needed (contemplating the sub-dimensions of being, knowing and doing) (Mörch, 2003). In this fashion, the constant emergence of new culture bearers (or the (re)insertion in the IT labor market) could be investigated in light of this technical-conceptual input.

Still, 'a', 'b' and 'c' (Figure 2) could be analyzed according to the dimensions of social systems (Domingues, 2002), namely: material, hermeneutics, power and space-temporal dimensions.

CONCLUSION

In a context in which daily objects have computational capacity, autonomous vehicles circulate the streets or over our heads and decisions on surgery interventions or on investments are largely events performed or supported by IT artifacts and, therefore, suffer higher or lower intervention from IT people, it seems opportune to investigate the structuring of this professional group and, specifically, the relation between accepted worldviews and behaviors manifested by distinct generations that coexist in IT communities and in organizations that employ these professionals.

Generations comprise a phenomenon of sociological interest due to their role in understanding the structure of social and "spiritual" movements, specially during the kind of increasing transformation that society undergoes (Mannheim, 1993, p. 204). In this sense, the framework presented proposes the contribution to generational analyses in IT from an expanded perspective, seeking to escape from reductionist limitation that conceptually homogenize (possible only in this manner) differences and eventual conflicts.

Theoretical and Managerial Contributions

By grounding and elaborating on the literature related to sociology of generations, information technology (IT) professionals, IT professional management, IT project teams and generational studies, this study fills a gap in this body of knowledge by identifying, defining and modeling the interdisciplinary concept of *IT generation*. We define *IT generation* as a cluster of IT professionals which endorse a particular set of values and behavior, and share (create and are created by) the same group culture. As we have observed (Figure 1), the criteria for IT professional clustering involve age, experience, knowledge, technology, worldview, etc.

As for modeling the concept, *IT generation* is a third order, latent construct, formed by nine dimensions, as summarized in Figure 1, and contains a dynamic model that simultaneously contemplates the constant emergence of new culture bearers, the output of old culture bearers, the fact that culture bearers of a specific generational connection only participate for a limited period of the historic process, the constant transmission of cultural goods, and the continuous nature of the generational change.

As for managerial or practical implications, it is understood that, due to the social and economic importance of IT, considerations regarding the generational differences must not be ignored in the management of professionals from this area. Such considerations may impact turnover, turnaway, work satisfaction and performance.

Abstracting the likelihood of intergenerational conflicts may be causing serious problems in the management of IT professionals and teams. In this sense, it is worth to mention the applicability of the *IT generation* concept and the corresponding framework as a resource for better understanding of (a) professional relationship, (b) attitudes towards consensus/conflict, (c) integration of legacy and innovative technologies or (d) multicultural team composition, for instance.

Proposition of a Research Agenda

Relevant practical and theoretical issues arise when researchers and managers have a framework for identifying and interpreting specific IT generations within organizations. For example:

- Which are the possible current IT generations and which traits are remarkable to each one?
- Which are the levels of compatibility/incompatibility among distinct IT generations?
- How to anticipate intergenerational conflicts?

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- Whereas performance is an outcome of teams and teams represent a mix of generations, there are performative differences among distinct mixes of generations?
- To which generation (old/new/connection culture bearers) a specific set of IT professionals belongs to?
- There are distinct IT generations working together in a same environment?
- Who are those professionals with generational connection roles?
- How to strengthen the generational connections, in order to preserve cultural goods?

Future studies can apply the proposed reference framework to empirically verify the generational phenomenon in IT. Such verification can occur in light of the alternative constructivism and personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955), since it offers a theory and technique (repertory grid) that allows the evocation of mental structures that can illustrate how the members of a professional generation view other generations. The findings can bring important managerial and theoretical implications regarding the composition and management of teams that involve professionals from distinct generations.

Considering a desirable level of parsimony in the proposed generational model (Figure 1), it would be necessary to verify the proposed structure via factorial analysis and structural modeling, considering the possibilities of overlap/intersection of items in distinct factors or dimensions. To do this, the compilation of validation instruments (if any) for measuring each construct is recommended, and could be done by means of systematic literature reviews. In this sense, each proposed theoretical dimension must be submitted to converging and discriminating validations, as well as to nomological validation for the model as a whole.

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Section 4

Millennial Workers

Chapter 10

The Important Issues for Millennial Workers

Meng-Shan Tsai

Clouder Technology Inc., Taiwan

ABSTRACT

This chapter will help you to understand the important issues facing the Millennial Generation and their behavior in the workplace, understand the concepts of interpersonal relation and the viewpoints of the Millennial Generation, understand the contents of communication skills, communication models and communication styles, and understand how the Millennial Generation views conflict and conflict management.

INTERPERSONAL RELATION IN THE WORKPLACE

Interpersonal Relation and Important Theories

Interpersonal relations are a matter of degree: they focus on a participant feeling he/she is in a good relationship with others, such as family members, friends, or colleagues (Lin, 2014). Jung and Yoon (2016) define interpersonal relations that focus on human relationships with colleagues or supervisors in the workplace. Kim and Eves (2012) indicate that interpersonal relations can be viewed as reciprocal, social, and emotional interactions between people, as a desire to spend time with family and friends, and as a need to be satisfied from beyond the normal circle of acquaintances.

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However, the quality of interpersonal relations depends greatly on personality. Many factors influence interpersonal relations, including personality disorders and attachment insecurities that generate problems in emotional regulation, interfere with the construction of a stable and positive sense of self, as well as disrupt the accomplishment of major developmental tasks (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Hence, poor interpersonal relations cause tension in the workplace, which occurs between colleagues, managers, and customers, as well as sellers (Gunbayi, 2009). In contrast, a close interpersonal relationship can improve communication and exchange more information, and then strengthen inter-firm outcomes, including inter-firm trust, relationship satisfaction, and performance (Wang, Wang, & Zheng, 2014).

In Chinese society, interpersonal relations are based on “guanxi.” This term refers to a particular type of relationship, social connections, or personal connections that bonds the exchange partners through reciprocal exchange of favors, personal resources, and mutual obligations, as well as establishing expectations (Shou, Chen, Zhu, & Yang, 2014; Wu & Chiu, 2016). However, guanxi can have several negative influences in society or the workplace, such as influence privilege or promotion. Once an interpersonal relationship is used to obtain individual benefits or results in losses to others, it becomes unhealthy.

Interpersonal Needs Theory--- Schutz

Schutz’s interpersonal needs theory indicates that an individual has a specific need for interactions and that only interactions satisfy this need, if this person experiences the interaction to be a rewarding one. These needs include the feeling of perceiving a sense of authority in making decisions or the need for respectful treatment. Once the demand is met, an individual is likely to be satisfied with his or her experiences (Brexendorf, Mühlmeier, Tomczak, & Eisend, 2010). Schutz proposes that interpersonal needs theory contains three main interpersonal needs; that is, affection, inclusion, and control (Lu & Ramsey, 2013). Additionally, individuals create and maintain relationships to meet these three needs (Wood, 2014).

Affection

This is the first interpersonal need. The amount of affection that a person requires varies, but all humans desire some degree of affection. Types of affection are diverse, ranging from intimate touch in interpersonal relationships to positive work evaluation in the workplace setting. An individual with a low affection-seeking score only requires simple appreciation or praise in the workplace; in contrast, an individual with a high affection-seeking scores requires more attention and emotional support (Lu & Ramsey, 2013).

Inclusion

The second need is inclusion. The demands for inclusion speaks to our human desire to belong. Like affection, although the amount a person requires varies, all humans need to belong. However, most people have experienced loneliness or the psychological discomfort of not being included. Interpersonally, our families, friends, social organizations, and workplaces satisfy our needs for inclusion (Lu & Ramsey, 2013). Therefore, inclusion refers to the demands of the company or organization, and recognition of other people, as well as establishing and sustaining a mutual interest with others (Markopoulos & Mackay, 2009).

Control

This is the third interpersonal need. Control entails the need to experience oneself as a competent, responsible person, as well as establishing a feeling of mutual respect for the competence and responsibility of other people (Markopoulos & Mackay, 2009). The core of this need is interpersonal communication. As humans, we control an important part of our daily interactions. If a person perceives a lack or loss of control, he or she feels anxiety or discomfort. In addition, if an individual lacks control or power, this occurs to uncertainty simultaneously (Lu & Ramsey, 2013).

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is the prerequisite that human behavior or social interaction is an exchange of activity, tangible and intangible—particularly of rewards and costs. This theory explores how the structure of rewards and costs in a relationship influence patterns of interaction (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Additionally, the core of social exchange theory is benefit maximization and cost minimization (Yan, Wang, Chen, & Zhang, 2016). Social exchange theory indicates that an exchange process is able to generate social behavior (Tsai & Cheng, 2012).

The important issue in social exchange theory is *trustworthiness*. This theory proposes that trustworthiness on the part of both parties is critical for an effective social exchange relationship (Zapata, Olsen, & Martins, 2013).

Social exchange theory proposes two types of exchange in organizations: economic and social. Economic exchange between employees and the organization is usually explicit and monetarily rewarded. On the other hand, social exchange has unspecified obligations with indirect chains of exchange, as well as being concerned with non-monetary aspects of employment, especially those based on social exchange conceptions (Slack, Corlett, & Morris, 2015). In fact, social exchange theory is derived from economic exchange theory. However, social exchange proposes that

individuals participate in exchange behavior since they consider that their reward will justify the cost (Liao, 2008).

As reported earlier, trust is an important element for social exchange theory. Liao (2008) indicates that trust can be defined as:

the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party, with the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party.

In addition, key elements such as commitment and loyalty offer the basis for social exchange.

Role Theory

Role theory is often used to discuss phenomena in the workplace, such as the relationship between supervisor and subordinate. Like social exchange theory, role theory explains various “currencies of exchange,” such as contribution, professional respect, loyalty, as well as affect (Matta, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015).

Role theory emphasizes that as a result of role dynamics in the work environment, the incompatible, inconsistent, or unclear expectations are appeared. In role theory, two concepts are proposed; that is, role conflict and role ambiguity (Liu, Gould, Rollins, & Gao, 2014). *Role conflict* refers to when a person is confronted with situations where they may be needed to play a role that conflicts with their value system or to play two or more roles that confront each other (Liu et al., 2014). Thus, employees in the workplace experience a degree of role conflict, which is strongly related to interpersonal variables, such as the degree of trust and respect, as well as the liking they have for their colleagues (Nicholson & Goh, 1983). *Role ambiguity* refers to the fact that the single and multiple roles that confront one person may not be obviously articulated in the light of performance levels anticipated (Liu et al., 2014). According to research by Hu, Wang, Xu, and Xu (2014), a positive significant correlation is shown to exist between role ambiguity and interpersonal relations ($r = .22, p < .01$). Therefore, if an individual shows the expected behavior and plays the expected role, the purpose is to foster socialization and obtain identification from other members in the group.

THE INTERPERSONAL RELATION VIEWPOINTS OF GENERATION Y

Those in Generation Y pay more attention to interpersonal relations, and especially to their friends, than do other generations. Their degree of caring for their friends is higher than that for their families and co-workers.

As reported earlier, those in the Millennial Generation use a lot of technology products. Additionally, Valentini (2015) indicates that digital technologies and social media have substantially changed, which can develop interpersonal relations. Therefore, Generation Y is able to maintain and establish interpersonal relations via technology products. In addition, Generation Y is interested in 3C products, namely, computer, communication, and consumer electronics (e.g., smartphones, email, Line, Facebook, and so on) and this generation likes to use technology products to contact others. They spend a lot of time using 3C products to get in touch with their family, friends, colleagues, and supervisors. Hence, Millennial individuals are not limited by time and space in building interpersonal relations.

In contrast, Generation Y relies on technology products too much, which leads to a reduction in opportunities to communicate and interact with other people face to face. Although Generation Y uses various approaches to connect with other people, such as Facebook, Line, text message, these products lengthen the distance between people.

This is a serious problem. Once an individual connects with others predominantly through technology products, he or she will be unable to live and work with other people. He or she will be unable to understand the feelings and emotions of others, and to collaborate with others. This phenomenon makes people become selfish and unconcerned about other people. Therefore, many Generation Y individuals are not able to conduct interpersonal relationships.

Communicating Skill in the Workplace

Bradley and Campbell (2016) consider that successful outcomes result from difficult workplace conversations need the parties to balance task and relational goals. Moreover, different levels of organizational leadership, such as CEO, top management, middle-management, and frontline managers affect internal communication practices and effectiveness in a variety of degree (Men, 2015).

What Is Communication?

Communication is an important element for influencing the negotiation process. Like interpersonal relations, technological advances and the availability of communication tools, for example, telephone, fax, email, and so on, are able to influence the negotiation process (Ahammad, Tarba, Liu, Glaister, & Cooper, 2016). The essential aspect of communication is that the issue being discussed may also cause defenses. That is to say, a new thing examines an old thing, or a new attitude challenges a presented one (Mortensen, 2011).

Approaches to corporate communication have changed. Table 1 shows the differences between traditional communications and twenty-first-century communications in the workplace, with viewpoints proposed by Don Schultz and Philip Kitchen (Hetrick & Martin, 2006).

According to Hargie, Dickson, and Tourish (1999), the definition of communication involves three dimensions:

1. Communication is a process that is open to measurement, analysis, assessment, as well as improvement.

Table 1. Changing corporate communications

	Traditional Corporate Communications	21st Century Corporate Communications
Basis and direction of communication	Everything is outbound instead of inbound, reflecting demands of corporation	Focus on dialogue and interactivity among stakeholders
Channels	Specialist employees or workers and departments through a plan-develop-implement model	Focus on 'customer' demands and integration of functions applying a sense-adapt-respond model
Focus of communications	Need to satisfy national markets	Need to satisfy global markets
Content of communications	Focus on how well corporation is employing tangible assets, such as finance, plant, etc.	Focus on how well corporation is employing intangible assets, such as values, brands, people, knowledge, CSR
Basis of differentiation	Unique selling propositions for products and services	Customer value or customer captivity
Structural drivers	Communications reflect corporate monolith	Communications reflect alliances, partners and context
Importance of communications	Corporate communications is viewed as optional	Corporate communications is viewed as a core strategic driver
Importance of corporate message	Corporate brand as an optional item	Corporate brand as a key strategic target

Source: Hetrick and Martin (2006)

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2. Research into communication focuses on how messages are generated, how to process and deliver information through, for example, face-to-face interaction, in writing, or via technological mediation, and what effects it has on those who receive these messages.
3. The importance of signs and symbols should be emphasized. All interpersonal behavior potentially is viewed as a communicative function and is evaluated on the basis of both verbal content and non-verbal signals. The explicit message may be less important than the implicit meaning, or “subtext.”

Good communication is a very important skill. It is able to assist people avoid major problems and minor misunderstandings alike. Sometimes communication causes misunderstandings and this can lead to extremely serious consequences for individuals, families, and communities (Wandberg, 2000). The study results of Yoo, Flaherty, and Frankwick (2014) indicate that the indirect and bi-directional communication between manager and employee reduce an employee’s workplace deviance by improving trust and motivation. Furthermore, internal organization communication and internal supervisor communication support enforce the workplace relationships based on meaning and worth, as well as have a significant part to play in developing and sustaining optimal employee engagement (Karanges, Johnston, Beatson, & Lings, 2015). Hargie et al. (1999) propose four types of communication: intrapersonal communication, interpersonal communication, network and organizational communication, as well as macrosocietal communication. Hargie et al. (1999) explain them as follows:

Intrapersonal Communication

This type of communication focuses on what goes on “inside” the individual—the study of how individuals process, store, and generate communication messages. Intrapersonal communication involves individual perception, cognition, emotion, beliefs, attitudes, self-image, and self-awareness. Furthermore, this kind of communication concerns how an individual interprets the behavior of other people and responds to it immediately by these internal processes.

Interpersonal Communication

This type of communication emphasizes on the research of communication relationships in one-to-one and group contexts. Interpersonal communication contains the analysis of communicative ability and skills, communication dysfunction, as well as the research on professional communication.

Network and Organizational Communication

This type of communication includes many studies; for example, the study of group norms and how they are developed, disseminated, and enforced; the pattern of organizational identity and its expression through symbols, and the relationship between formal and informal channels and networks. Additionally, an organization is gradually more aware of the benefits of effective internal and external communications.

Macrosocietal or Mass Communication

This type of communication refers to the communication properties and activities of large social systems. There is also much researches at this level, for example on the nature, role, production, as well as results of mass media; the dissemination and expression of national values, norms, and identity; as well as the diffusion of and continuity in language and culture.

Wandberg (2000) provides a self-assessment scale to evaluate communication ability. This scale contains 15 questions and involves knowledge, attitude, and behavior. Therefore, the scale is able to assist an individual to understand how well he or she communicates with others.

Communication Model

Narula (2006) proposes a number of communication models in *Handbook of Communication: Models, Perspectives, Strategies*. In this book, Narula (2006) reports detailed and complete knowledge on communication models. Until now, many scholars have discussed communication, and they have proposed various models. However, the basic elements of any communication model include sender, encode, channel, decode, receiver, and noise.

The *action model* is sender oriented and is the simplest model. This model focuses on how the sender constructs a message, but is not concerned with listeners. Therefore, this model is too simplified in ignoring the listener. Based on this model, miscommunication may occur, which results from the following situations (Narula, 2006):

1. The source does not construct the message correctly for transmission.
2. The listener does not receive the message correctly or the listener uses their own meaning to interpret the message, which leads to misunderstanding.

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Figure 1. Action model of schematic diagram

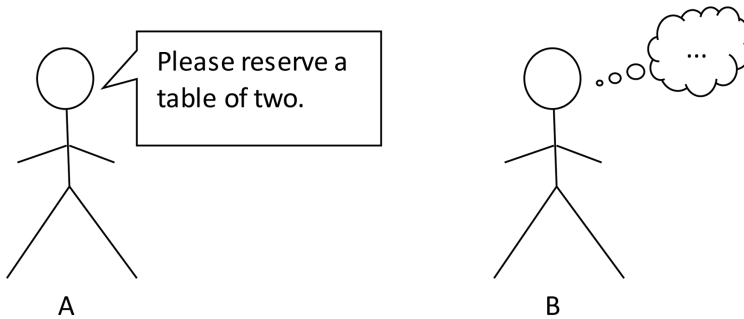
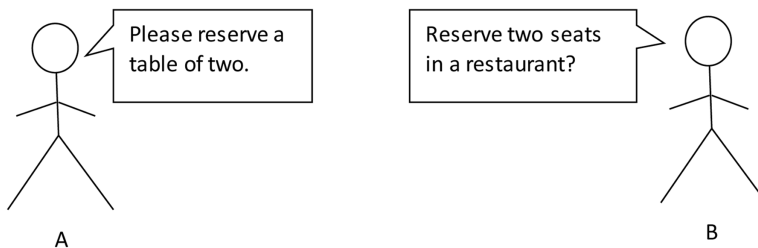


Figure 1 shows two persons to communication, A asks B to reserve a table of two, and B does not reply A. Therefore, does B understand A's meaning completely? We cannot be sure.

The *interaction model* emphasizes interaction and relatedness between sender and receiver. This model concerns both the sender and the receiver. Nevertheless, the fact that the receiver obtains the message does not mean that the message is received correctly. Hence, this model adds the "linear feedback." This can confirm whether the message has the intended outcome or not. Moreover, control is able to be achieved if the sender realizes the reactions of receiver to the message. So feedback is very critical: it is able to help the sender maintain control over the intended effects and adjust future messages accordingly (Narula, 2006). The schematic diagram is shown in Figure 2.

In Figure 2, A asks B to make a reservation for two, and B confirms the position. A does not express the position in this conversation, so B has to confirm that if A desires to reserve a table of two in a restaurant.

Figure 2. Interaction model of communication schematic diagram



Transactional Model of Communication

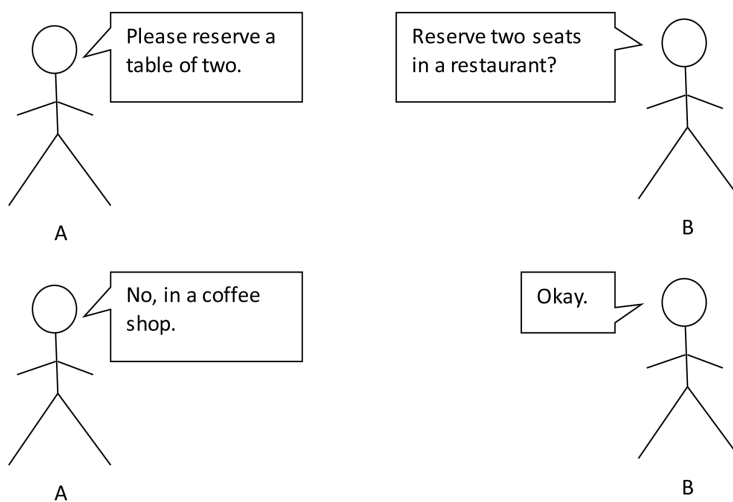
According to Narula (2006), this model considers simultaneous responses, whereas linear feedback is central to interaction models. In the transactional type of model of schematic diagram (Figure 3), while A is speaking, B is generating a message or feedback to A. The message or feedback are presented in a number of ways, such as body posture, facial expression, eye movement, hand gestures, and language use. Differences exist between the interaction and transactional models: in the former the sender may interact with receiver and feedback may be linear; in the latter both persons are involved simultaneously in the communication process. Both individuals mutually perceive each other. In the communication process, they are making adjustments to the messages exchanged (Narula, 2006). Figures 3 is the schematic diagram about transactional models of communication.

Continuing the conversation of Figure 2. In Figure 3, B asks A the position, and A desires to reserve two seats in a coffee shop. If B does not confirm the position to A, B cannot complete this job.

Shannon and Weaver's Model

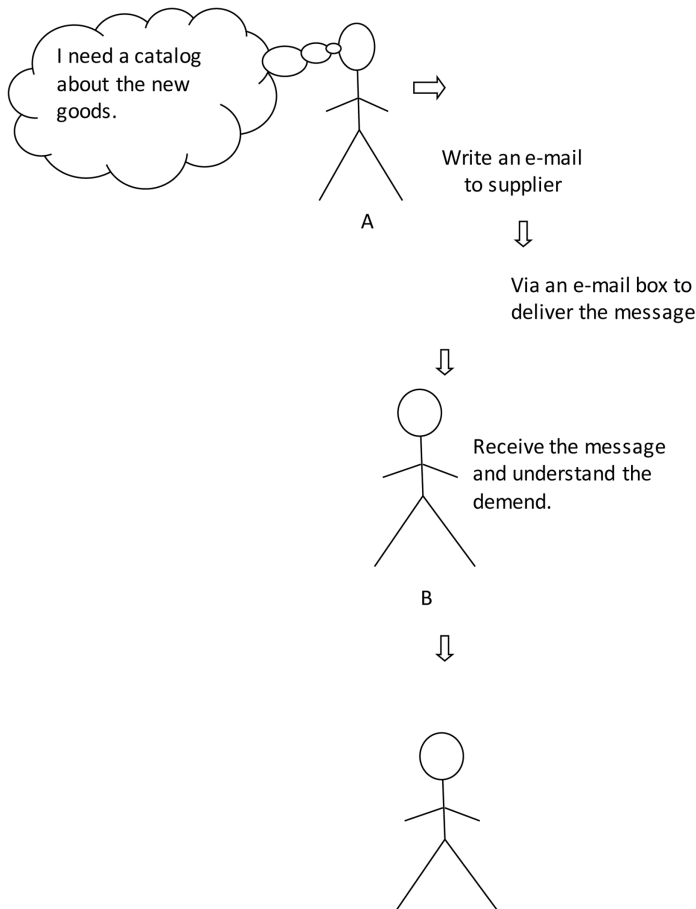
The model by Shannon and Weaver, describes communication as a linear and one-way process. This model comprises five functions (information source, transmitter, channel, receiver, and destination) to be carried out and notes one dysfunctional element: noise (Mcquail & Windahl, 2015). The schematic diagram is shown in Figure 4.

Figure 3. Transactional model of communication schematic diagram



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Figure 4. The communication model of schematic diagram



In Figure 4, A has a thought and delivers an e-mail to B. B receives this e-mail and satisfies A's demand.

The first function in this model is the information source, generating a message or a chain of messages to be communicated. In the second step, a transmitter makes the message transfer to signals which should be adapted to the channel resulting in the receiver. Then, the receiver recreates the message from the signal. Later, the received message then achieves the destination. However, noise disturbs and interferes with the communication process (Mcquail & Windahl, 2015). According to the five functions of Shannon and Weaver's model, A is information source, e-mail is transmitter, e-mail box is channel, B is receiver, and B sends an catalog to A is

destination. In this schematic diagram, any issues disrupt the transferring process are called noise. When a noise exists, this communication process may disrupt, as well as the process is not smooth.

DeFleur's Development

This communication model is further developed from that of Shannon and Weaver. DeFleur describes how in the communication process “meaning” is transformed into a “message” and depicts how the transmitter transforms the “message” into “information,” which passes through a channel such as a mass medium. Then the receiver decodes the “information” as a “message,” which in its turn is transformed at the target into “meaning”. DeFleur added another set of components to the original model by Shannon and Weaver, how the source gets its feedback, which provides the source with a possibility of adapting its way of communicating more effectively to the destination (Mcquail & Windahl, 2015).

DeFleur adds feedback mechanism into the communication model, and noise may influence any steps of the model. Moreover, this concept is reasonable. Feedback confirms that the communication result is effectiveness, as well as noise is existed in any phases.

The Osgood and Schramm Circular Model

If Shannon and Weaver's is considered a linear model, Osgood and Schramm's model is highly circular. There is one difference between the two models. The former focuses on the channels mediating between senders and receivers; at the core of the latter is the behavior of the main actors in the communication process. In Osgood and Schramm's model, functions are carried out even though they do not communicate with transmitters and receivers. The main functions in this model include encoding, decoding, and interpreting. The interpreting function in the Osgood and Schramm circular model is fulfilled in the model of Shannon and Weaver by the source and the destination (Mcquail & Windahl, 2015).

In Osgood and Schramm circular model, everyone is an encoder, interpreter and decoder. For example, A desires to deliver a message to B, A encodes the thoughts and transfers into the words (A is an encoder). B receives the message, and decodes the words (B is a decoder) as well as interprets the message (B is an interpreter). When B replies to A, B has to encode the thoughts, and transfers into the words (B is an encoder). A receives the message, as well as decode (A is a decoder) and interpret the words (A is an interpreter).

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As earlier reported, in a communication model there are five basic elements, namely, sender, encode, channel, decode, and receiver. In this process, the sender desires to deliver a message to the receiver, so the sender encodes the message and then the message is transmitted by channels, which could be verbal, email, or other media. Through these channels the receiver accepts the codes and decodes them, and then the receiver understands the message. This is *unilateral communication*. This type of communication is simple; however, the receiver cannot confirm whether the message is correct or not. Unilateral communication is shown in Figure 5.

In order to rectify this problem, bilateral communication is generated. Bilateral communication contains “feedback” in the communication model. Additionally, in unilateral communication the receiver plays the role of the sender and encodes the message through the channels in bilateral communication. Likewise, the sender in unilateral communication becomes the receiver and decodes the message in bilateral communication. Bilateral communication is shown in Figure 6. All phases in both communication processes are disturbed by noise.

The Communicating Skills Viewpoints of Generation Y

Generation Y individuals are more likely to communicate with other people through technology products. However, face-to-face talk is highest in channel richness, because it conveys the maximum amount of information to be transmitted during a communication episode. That is to say, face-to-face communication provides multiple information cues, such as words, postures, facial expressions, gestures, and intonations; moreover, it also offers immediate feedback, which includes verbal and non-verbal feedback. Face-to-face talk makes people feel the personal touch of “being there” (Robbins, 2002). These characteristics belong to face-to-face communication; other media or approaches cannot achieve these effects.

Figure 5. Unilateral communication

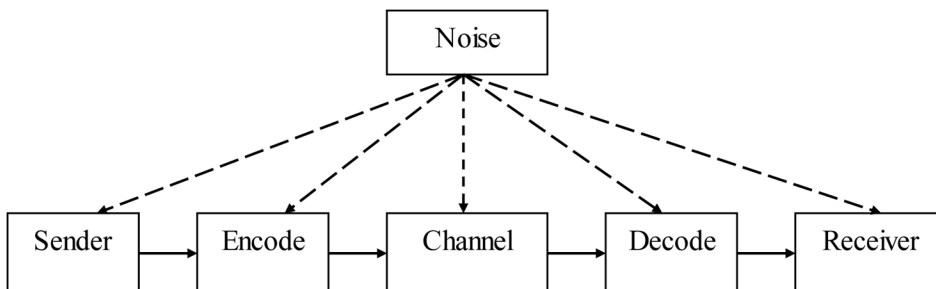
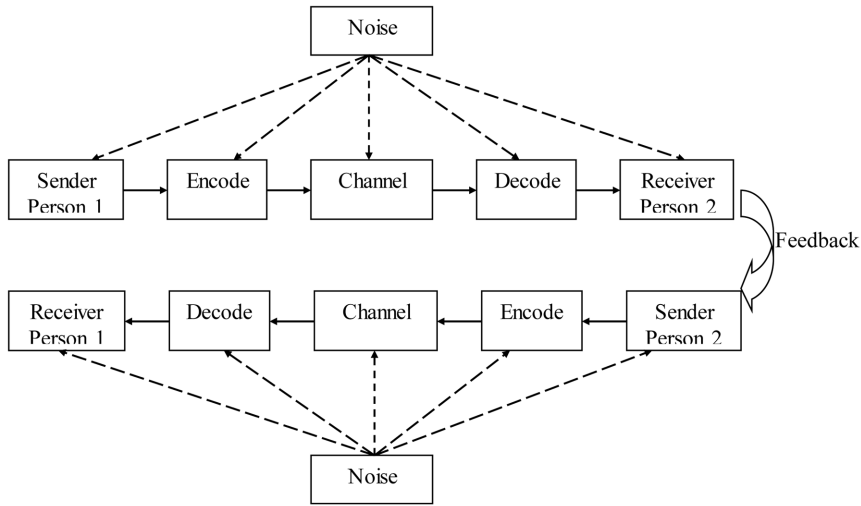


Figure 6. Bilateral communication



In spite of Millennials’ presenting different communication approaches to other generations, they have to possess an outstanding communication skill set. However, Millennials are often criticized for not communicating properly and not closing the loop in follow-up at times, hence communication skill is the critical issue (Phillips & Phillips, 2015). The study by Hartman and McCambridge (2011) also indicates that communication is one of the most important skills for Millennials. In Taiwan, Generation Y individuals do not like to use complicated words or means to express their thoughts; they try to use simple ways to communicate with others, such as family, friends, or co-workers. Sometimes, in order to simplify their written or verbal expression, Millennials create novel words. For example, in Chinese we use zhèyàng (這樣) to express “So that’s how it is.” However, Generation Y shortens the word and creates one new and informal word --- jiàng(醬) to replace “zhèyàng”. Moreover, Millennials disseminate these new words through a network or a television program, therefore these novel expressions soon become known and used in daily life.

Millennials are seen as social learners and they are more likely to work best in a group environment, and adopting peer-to-peer and cooperative learning strategies (Hartman & McCambridge, 2011). Many Generation Y individuals enter the workplace, therefore communication skills are important for them. Mattone (2012) introduces a model to discuss communication skills. That employees have good communication skills is critical at all organizational levels. Additionally, leaders have communication skill is also important, they have to communicate with various people, including employee, employer, seller, customer, and so on. Moreover, they are able to progress effective communication. This model contains six elements:

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creating genuine relationships, communicating clearly, listening fully, giving effective feedback, managing conflict constructively, and influencing others.

Millennial individuals express their thoughts clearer and more direct than other generations, but this does not represent that Generation Y individuals are impolite. In other words, they know what their needs and they consider that these thoughts should be expressed. According to the six elements of Mattone (2012), the communication skills of Generation Y individuals in Taiwan satisfy several characteristics:

- **Communicating Clearly:** They are able to express their thoughts correctly and precisely.
- **Giving Effective Feedback:** Generation Y individuals accepts novel things easier than other generations, so they have a lot of ideas. When they receive an information, they are able to understand the meaning, provide their thoughts, and give effective feedback.
- **Influencing Others:** Generation Y individuals are considered as a special and smart generation. A lot of oral or words are originated with this generation. Because the new language are special, other generations may use it. Although Generation Y individuals influence others, they are influenced by other persons easily.

In the study by Hartman and McCambridge (2011), the four communication styles are introduced: analytical, driver, amiable, and expressive. The four quadrants are divided into two dimensions: assertiveness (high and low) and responsiveness (high and low). I list the characteristics of the four communication styles in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparing to the four communication styles

	Analytical	Driver	Amiable	Expressive
Specialist	Technical / Systems	Control	Support	Social
Pace	Slow	Fast	Slow	Fast
Priority	Task	Task	Relationship	Relationship
Main Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Hard working ● Persistent ● Serious ● Vigilant ● Orderly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Determined ● Demanding ● Thorough ● Decisive ● Efficient 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Supportive ● Respectful ● Willing ● Dependable ● Personable 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Enthusiastic ● Dramatic ● Inspiring ● Stimulating ● Personable
Questions	Why	What	Who	How
Goal	Work in the system	Obtain results	Cooperate	Create alliance
Face stress	Retire comfort zone	Dictate	Conform	Attack

Source: Hartman and McCambridge (2011)

Hartman and McCambridge (2011) explain the four types of communication as follows:

Analytical

This type is a technical or systems specialist. This individual is not very assertive or responsive. An analytical person prefers to remain in the background, works at a slow pace and his or her priority is task oriented. An analytical person asks “why” questions. An analytical individual is hard working, persistent, serious, vigilant, as well as orderly; however, he or she can be uncommunicative, not able to make a decision quickly, stuffy, rigorous, as well as impersonal.

Driver

This type is a control specialist. The individual is very assertive and not as responsive to opposed perspectives. A driver works at a fast pace and his or her priority is task oriented. This kind of individual likes to ask “what” questions. The characteristics of drivers include being determined, demanding, thorough, decisive, and efficient; in addition, they are able to be seen as pushy, strict, tough minded, controlling, as well as harsh.

Amiable

This type is a support specialist. An amiable person is very responsive, but not very assertive. An amiable’s pace is slow, and his or her priority is relationships (i.e. people). Additionally, the amiable focuses on “who” questions. An amiable person is supportive, respectful, willing, dependable, and personable. This kind of individuals is more likely to be conforming, retiring, noncommittal, undisciplined, and emotional, as well as having the goal to cooperate.

Expressive

This type is a social specialist. An expressive individual is assertive and responsive. The pace of an expressive is fast, and his or her priority is relationships (or people). Expressive individuals like to ask “how” questions. This type of individual is enthusiastic, dramatic, inspiring, stimulating, and personable. An expressive person’s goal is to create alliances.

However, how do we know which individual belongs to which communication style? Hartman and McCambridge (2011) provide a questionnaire to solve this problem. In Taiwan, there are a lot of (but not all) Millennial individuals belong

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Table 3. The characteristics of Millennial workers in Taiwan

	Analytical	Driver	Amiable	Expressive
Main Characteristics	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Hard working <input type="checkbox"/> Persistent <input type="checkbox"/> Serious <input type="checkbox"/> Vigilant <input type="checkbox"/> Orderly	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Determined <input type="checkbox"/> Demanding <input type="checkbox"/> Thorough <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Decisive <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Efficient	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Supportive <input type="checkbox"/> Respectful <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Willing <input type="checkbox"/> Dependable <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Personable	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Enthusiastic <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Dramatic <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Inspiring <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Stimulating <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Personable

to expressive communication style. They are more likely to work with others, and they desire to obtain success. In addition, Millennial workers have an express their thoughts, and they are confident to achieve the goal. Generation Y individuals create and take part in an alliance.

According to the main characteristics in Table 3, Millennial workers in Taiwan express several characteristics. In other words, millennial workers show the characteristics, which belong to the four communication style. The results report in Table 3.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

What Is Conflict Management?

High-performance organizations are not able to avoid conflicts, because conflicts are the lifeblood of the organizations. However, conflict appears itself as a difference between two or more individuals or groups characterized by tension, divergence of opinions, emotion, or polarization (Kohlrieser, 2007). Although many people are afraid of conflict and even avoid it, managers have to spend a lot of time managing conflicts. According to the report by Thomas (n.d.), managers spend 18–26% of their time dealing with conflict. In addition, the report by Kohlrieser (2007) also shows that managers spend about 24% of their time on conflicts. Both Thomas (n.d.) and Kohlrieser (2007) consider that managers spent too much time managing conflicts in an organization. Nevertheless, conflicts should be solved once they occur in the workplace. On the other hand, conflict is inevitable, because everyone has different thoughts. Therefore, many people suggest that conflict can be accepted, if the conflict is healthy and constructive. Thus, conflict is able to offer broader viewpoints and deeper understanding (McConnon & McConnon, 2008). McConnon and McConnon (2008) claim that conflict is constructive only if the following situation occurs:

1. The relationship is stronger sufficiently
2. An individual understands other people more

3. There is greater willingness to satisfy each other's needs
4. The greater trust exists in the organization
5. An individual has resolved the source of future conflicts
6. There are broader perspectives

Hence, if the conflict causes deeper frustration, negative perspectives and a growing hostility, then the relationship is destroyed. Later, if people desire to remedy this relationship it is not easy, and they have to do a lot of things to recover it (McConnon & McConnon, 2008).

According to the human resource management viewpoint on conflict management of Mahony and Klaas (2008, cited in Roche, Teague, & Colvin, 2014), which focuses on the perspectives and ability of employees to exercise their voice under the employer-promulgated processes that are, at least in the United States, the most common mechanism for conflict management (Roche et al., 2014), conflict management is considered as a form of interaction between parties (Mazaheri, Basil, Yanamandram, & Daroczi, 2011). Furthermore, most organizational conflict involves disagreements over task-related issues, when people have different or diverse viewpoints, information, or expertise to bear on an issue or event (Thomas, n.d.). In addition, the role of conflict management has been oriented toward the approach regarding keeping or restoring order (Jeong, 2009). Budd and Colvin (2008) propose three dimensions to explain conflict management: efficiency, equity, and voice. Efficiency refers to the effective, profit-maximizing apply of rare resources and it pays more attention to productivity, competitiveness, as well as economic prosperity. Equity refers to fairness in both allotment of economic rewards and management of employee policies. Voice refers to the ability of participants to have important input into decisions both individually and collectively in the workplace. Roche et al. (2014) consider that the three dimensions combine into a trilogy framework, which is useful for considering the objectives of conflict management in an organization. Table 4 describes the contents and standards, as well as selected key elements of the three dimensions.

THE MODELS OF CONFLICT PROCESS

Pondy's Model

Spaho (2013) indicates that conflict belongs to a dynamic process that does not occur suddenly, and it takes some time to develop, and the approach of Louis R. Pondy explain the conflict process which passes through five stages. Spaho (2013) express the five stages as follows:

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Table 4. The three dimensions of conflict management

	Efficiency	Equity	Voice
Contents	Effective use of scarce resource	Fairness and justice	Participation in design and operation
Standards	Economic or business performance	Treatment	Employee participation
Selected key elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduces barriers to performance • Does not interfere with productive use of resources • Cost effective • Speedy • Flexible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision-making through fair attitude • Reliant upon evidence • Consistent • Effective remedies • Opportunities for appeal • Coverage independent of resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Input into design and use of a dispute resolution system • Hearings • Acquiring and presenting evidence • Representation by advocates and employ of experts

Sources: Budd and Colvin (2008); Roche et al. (2014)

Stage 1: Latent conflict stage. In this stage the conflict is hidden, though there are conditions for starting it. The reasons for these conflicts include competing for rare resources, divergences in goals, and orientation toward organizational independence.

Stage 2: Conflict perception stage. In the second stage, all parties are aware of the latent conflict. In this stage, there are some issues in conflict perception. Sometimes conflict does not exist, but people perceive that it does. Another situation is the reverse, when latent conflict does exist but people do not perceive it. The latter situation is able to be explained by emphasizing on other conflicts in the organization, when some conflicts remain unnoticed. Because there are many conflicts within the organization, it is normal that supervisors are focused on those that is able to be solved in a short time and by routine approaches.

Stage 3: Stage in which conflict is personalized. In the third stage, a “personalization” of conflict occurs. Therefore, both sides in the conflict perceive tensions and experience anxiety and other uncomfortable perceptions in this stage.

Stage 4: Manifested conflict stage. In this stage, low spirits between individuals in conflict are identified. The conflict behavior is represented in several approaches, from complete unconcern to open invasion; however, this is often contrary to organizational rules.

Stage 5: Consequence stage. In this stage, individuals have the result of noticeable conflict. It is either solved or unsolved. If the conflict is not solved or there is no satisfactory solution, the conflict goes back to the first stage, namely, the latent conflict stage.

Thomas's Model

Spaho (2013) introduces the second model, which was developed by Kenneth W. Thomas and is often quoted in conflict management theory. This model also contains five stages: frustration, conceptualization, behavior, reaction from the opposite side, and consequence. The core of this model is a dynamic loop. In this loop, the sides in the conflict adjust their behavior and their style of solving conflict as a response to the strategic choice and other side's behavior.

Spaho (2013) also indicates that all the stages in both models do not always take place, depending on the situation where the conflict occurs. Nevertheless, in order to explain the situation of the conflict, four points must be mentioned:

1. Previous situations when conflict has occurred—lack of resources, incorrect organizational policy, inappropriate reward system, and wrong perception of groups.
2. Affective state of persons and teams, such as stress, tension, hostility, and anxiety.
3. Cognitive state of persons and teams, which includes belief, consciousness, and knowledge that the conflict occurs, that another side could confront danger, or has already endangered the interest of the subject.
4. Conflict behavior—from passive resistance to attack towards the other side.

The Types of Conflict

Cooperative and Competitive Conflict Management

Cooperative conflict management. The characteristic of cooperative conflict management is that an individual is concerned about other people, and the individual likes to open issues and search for solutions that are agreeable to everybody involved. Moreover, this kind of conflict management occurs over various generations. Therefore, this type of conflict management is an open-minded discussion process, in which individuals accept others' opposing arguments, integrate opposing thoughts, generate quality solutions, as well as reinforce the relationship (De Clercq & Balausteguioitia, 2015, Mazaheri et al., 2011).

Competitive conflict management. The opposite to cooperative conflict management, competitive conflict management expresses low concern about the viewpoints or feelings of other people, thus this type of conflict management tries to impose the perspectives of other generations at all costs, irrespective of the

implications for an organization. Nevertheless, competitive conflict management is able to be interpreted differently relying on an individual's pre-existing attitude (De Clercq & Belausteguioitia, 2015, Mazaheri et al., 2011).

Organizational Conflict

Spaho (2013) introduces four types of organizational conflicts: vertical conflict, horizontal conflict, line–staff conflict, and role conflict. Spaho (2013) explain these four kinds of conflicts as follows:

- **Vertical Conflict:** This type of conflict occurs because the manager is always telling an employee or a worker what to do, as well as attempting to “micro-manage,” and he or she should let the employee carry out his or her job. Vertical conflict exists in organizations in which the organizational structure has a high degree of formality.
- **Horizontal Conflict:** This type of conflict occurs between employees or workers in the same department; that is, on the same hierarchical level. This type of conflict is able to manifest for many reasons, for example different interests, ideas, or thoughts related to distribution of resources.
- **Line–Staff Conflict:** This type of conflict occurs between support staff and line employees or workers. Therefore, line–staff conflict occurs in a department or an organization.
- **Role Conflict:** This type of conflict stems from an deficient or otherwise incorrect understanding of the assignment given to an employee or worker at a specific moment in time.

Interpersonal Conflict, Task Conflict, and Procedural Conflict

- **Interpersonal Conflict:** This type of conflict refers to conflict that take place between different individuals, groups, and organizations. Definitely speaking, interpersonal conflict belongs to a dynamic process that takes place between interdependent parties and they experience negative emotional reactions to became aware of disagreements and interference with the achievement of their targets (Yang, Chen, & Wang, 2015). Moreover, interpersonal conflict is viewed as the main stressor in an organization (Mulki, Jaramillo, Goad, & Pesquera, 2015). Thus, interpersonal conflict is the important issue for managers, because interpersonal conflict causes various negative emotions and outcomes, such as angry, jealousy, poor communication, decrease team

performance (Liu, Chen, Chen, & Sheu, 2011; Mulki et al., 2015). The measure scale is employed the study by Mulki et al. (2015) and the researchers are able to use this scale to study.

- **Task Conflict:** Task conflict can be defined as disagreements among the members within a group about the tasks being carried out (Puck & Pregonig, 2014). When members of a group who work toward a common or shared goal, at this time, a task conflict may occurs when members have different task-related perspectives. Since this type of conflict is easily misinterpreted as a relationship conflict, this phenomenon is likely to trigger counterproductive cognitions and behavior, and leads to individuals generate defensive mind (de Wit, Jehn, & Scheepers, 2013). However, task conflict is related to the content and the objective of the work (Omisore & Abiodun, 2014). The measure scale is used the study by Jehn (1995), and this scale contains four items.
- **Process Conflict:** Simply speaking, process conflict can be defined as how to work gets done, and an individual disagrees about how a task should be performed, a person's responsibilities and delegation (Omisore & Abiodun, 2014). Jehn and Bendersky (2003) state that small amounts of process conflict is resolved easily and is able to facilitate performance, but for the most part, process conflict results in negative effect. Therefore, high process conflict may decrease productivity and causes poor team performance (Omisore & Abiodun, 2014). Process conflict is able to be ranked by the scale of Jehn and Mannix (2001), this scale contains three items and the researchers are able to use this scale to study.

According to this description, task conflict is able to facilitate organizational goal achievement. In contrast, both a high level of interpersonal conflict and process conflict are harmful to organizational performance. Originally, some studies asserted that task conflict and low process conflict are positive and functional conflicts, but interpersonal conflict and high process conflict belong to dysfunctional conflicts. However, recent studies consider that task conflict may cause positive or negative outcomes, depending on the nature of the task given to the team (Miao, Tien, Chang, & Ko, 2010).

The Conflict Viewpoints of Generation Y

Conflict is likely to occur between different generations (i.e., Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials). For example, Millennial individuals are willing to spend more time to work (i.e. longer working hours) but pay more attention to the conflict between work and family as compared to Baby Boomers (Mukundan, Dhanya, & Saraswathyamma, 2013). The Millennial Generation tends toward be hesitant to

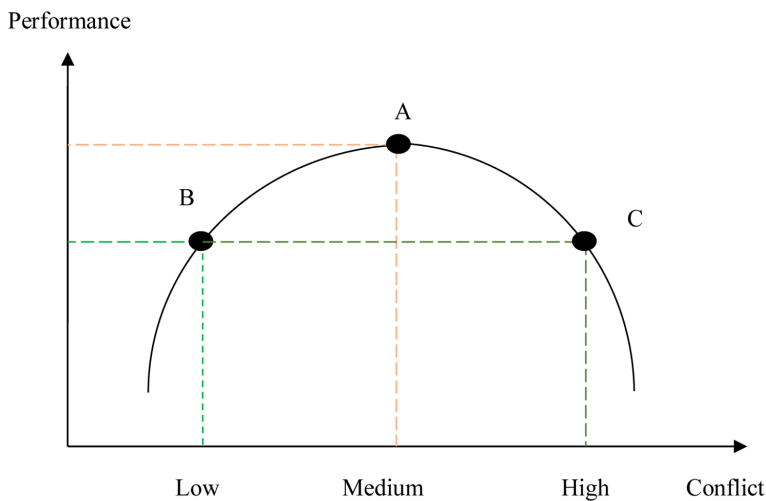
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communicate directly about problematic events. Additionally, Millennials do not talk a lot, and this causes a problem, which leaves a lot of space for misunderstanding with fellow teammates and supervisors, as well as leads to workplace conflict occurring (Kendall, 2015).

However, Millennial individuals often use technology products, so they do not like to talk to other people, such as family, friends, and co-workers. Based on this viewpoint, Generation Y workers tend to show *low interpersonal conflict*, as they do not like to argue with others. With regard to work, Generation Y workers tend to complete their tasks, improve their performance, and obtain promotion opportunities in the workplace. Therefore, they show *high task conflict*. In addition, Millennial individuals do not like to interfere with others' responsibilities, usually being concerned with their own tasks. Hence, Generation Y workers show *low process conflict*.

For conflict management, in the workplace, conflict cannot be avoided completely. Nevertheless, healthy and constructive conflicts should be accepted. Moreover, the appropriate level of conflict is a benefit to the company, although both a too low and too high level of conflict may be harmful. Figure 7 shows that the relationship between conflict and performance is an inverted U curve.

Figure 7. Conflict management



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APPENDIX

Questions

After you learn the content of this chapter, please try to answer the following questions.

1. Do you pay attention to the interpersonal relationships with your families, friends, classmates, or other people?
2. Do you like to communicate with other people? And, what the communication approaches or skills do you tend to use?
3. Do you avoid conflict? When you confront conflict, how do you deal with?

Chapter 11

Millennial Leadership Model

Heather M. W. Petrelli
University of South Florida, USA

ABSTRACT

Recent attention has been given to the attitudes, perceptions, and needs of the Millennial Generation both in the educational setting and the workforce. This chapter provides background and rationale for the development of a Millennial Leadership model benefitting teachers, administrators, and employers desiring to proactively address concerns attributed to individuals in the millennial generation, and positively influence their success. A brief overview of the past four generations events, both social and politically, that have shaped values and perspectives. Millennials at work and the effects of the economic recession on Millennials are also discussed. The chapter ends with a model for millennial leadership, which outlines clear expectations, open and respectful communication, consistent feedback, flexibility, involved decision-making and provided opportunities for growth.

INTRODUCTION

As an introduction to this chapter and disclaimer, it's important to recognize discussions on generations include broad generalizations and stereotypes that have been observed in the behaviors of people within different generations. These have been studied and explained according to shared formative experiences and cultural trends that differ over the course of time. Most of the shared experiences used in defining these generations are specific to people living in the United States at the time, and may not translate to other countries. It is always preferable to get to know people as individuals, recognizing that each individual is unique and may differ

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greatly from their peer group. Rhea Turteltaub, as quoted in Joslyn's article (2010) stated, "anytime we generalize about a group of people, we're probably missing an understanding of who they are as individuals" (p. 9). However, when interacting with large groups we do not know well, it may be helpful to begin by tailoring our approach to some generational expectations. This may require different behaviors and actions from what is a natural tendency based on personal life experiences. Additionally, it's important to stress that individuals only have the power to control themselves in order to improve communication abilities, leaders must examine themselves and consider making positive changes that will help interaction with others.

Until recently, most of the research and observations about the millennial generation have been reserved for the school environment between teachers and students (Carlson, 2005; Fidler & Foubert, 2006; Oblinger, 2003; Roberts, 2005; Skiba & Barton, 2006). However, as individuals in the millennial generation enter the workforce; more attention has been given to leadership in the work environment. Recently, in the *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, a junior faculty member published her reflections on experiences during the first three years of being a faculty member (Schuh, 2010). This article spawned quite a discussion about the needs of the millennial generation at work at a specific southern college (Petrelli, H., personal communications, June, 2010). Schuh's (2010) reflections as a junior faculty member included concern that she was assigned a mentor, yet the mentor never scheduled time to meet with her. Discussions about this article among faculty revealed differing expectations between older faculty of the Generation X and Baby Boomer populations and junior faculty members of the millennial generation (Petrelli, H., personal communications, June, 2010).

For example, it is the expectation of older faculty that junior members should take the initiative to schedule appointments and seek guidance from their mentor when needed. Furthermore, older faculty have the expectation that junior members recognize the unique roles of life in academe including working autonomously with little to no supervision, handling multiple priorities simultaneously, and utilizing effective judgment and problem-solving skills. Conversely, it is the expectation of junior faculty that clear, ongoing guidance is provided every step of the way with strong training programs (Ferri-Reed, 2010; Phillips & Torres, 2008). To the older generations, this is likened to "spoon-feeding" and to the younger generation it is simply a lack of understanding of what is expected (Hollon, 2008; Warner, 2010). Ultimately, there is a choice when working with individuals of different generations: one can choose to continue to complain and expect others to automatically conform to expectations without guidance, or one can learn about the needs of others and implement strategies that will eliminate confusion and anxiety and promote harmonious relationships. In the end, having students and employees perform well

Millennial Leadership Model

and to the best of their ability is the goal. Being annoyed and frustrated because Millennials have not been prepared to meet expectations or intrinsically know exactly what is expected is a waste of time and energy, when a solution-oriented approach is readily available.

Northouse (2010) commented in, *Leadership Theory and Practice*, that the change from an industrial-based society to a knowledge-based society due to the Information Age has caused a shift from a bureaucratic to an interactive social character, which will have major implications for leadership practice. This chapter will focus on the development of a leadership model specifically related to the millennial generation of the Information Age.

GENERATIONAL OVERVIEW

For the purpose of this chapter, a brief overview of the last four generations will be provided as a baseline for further discussion regarding leadership of the Millennial Generation. The purpose of explaining characteristics of the generations is to provide a basis of understanding for conflict in the educational environment and workplace between generations and give weight to the need for consideration of specific leadership methods for members in the millennial generation. The dates of birth separating the generations have been reported differently depending on the researcher (Howe & Strauss, 2002; Skiba & Barton, 2006). It is important to note that generations fall along a continuum, may overlap, and are only generalizations. This chapter will combine the authors to present the most common dates discussed in the literature.

Veterans

For the purpose of this chapter, the Veterans were born between 1925 and 1942 (see Table 1); they are over age 65 and also called the “Silents” or “Traditionals” (Hagevik, 1999; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). They share formative influences of the World Wars and the Great Depression. They are characterized by their loyalty and patriotism and they have a strong sense of family and community. They tend to be thrifty, disciplined, respect law and order, and like consistency. Their management style is influenced by a lot of military experience and they appreciate the chain of command and respect authority and the hierarchy (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000).

Table 1.

	Veterans, Silents, Matures 1925-1942	Baby Boomers 1943-1960	Generation X 1961-1981	Millennials (Gen Y) 1982-2005
Childhood Influences	Patriotism, Great Depression, WWII, Rebels without a cause, activists,	Prosperity, TV, Vietnam, space, civil rights, cold war	Scandals, divorce, latchkey kids, MTV, AIDS, computers	Multiculturalism, school violence, mass media, helicopter parents
Defining Traits	Loyalty	Optimism	Skepticism	Realism
Management Style	Military chain of command	Change of command	Self-command	Collaboration

Baby Boomers

Baby Boomers were born approximately between 1943 and 1960; they are currently 44-64 years old (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). They are the largest generation, 80 million strong (Holtz, 2007), and much is being written and planned for Baby Boomers effect on Health care as they move into retirement age. They have a tradition of advocating for change and improvement, are open-minded and sometimes rebellious. The Baby Boomers’ childhood influences include great improvements in luxury and prosperity compared to their parents with increased car and home ownership, mass produced items, and televisions in every home. They have experienced significant social change with civil rights, feminism, and environmental movements. They are defined by their optimism and ability to bring about change in the world. Their management style has been coined “change of command” because they respect hierarchy but believe in the potential for rapid advancement and change (Zemke et al., 2000). Because they are a large generation, they have developed a competitive spirit and value their careers as a priority.

Generation X

Generation X’ers; born between 1961 and 1981; are currently 29-45 years old (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). There are 46 million, just about half of the 80 million Baby Boomers (Holtz, 2007). They have been influenced by an explosion of mass media that has exposed them to scandal and tragedy including Watergate, Bill Clinton, deterioration of social security and pension plans, and economic recession. They are said to have a skeptical outlook and value independence and self-reliance. Individuals in the Generation X had a less stable family life with more divorce,

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mothers in the work force, and the introduction of day care and the term “latchkey kids” (Lamorey & Robinson, 1999). They were born at the beginning of the era when parents attempted to increase the self-esteem of their children and introduced “time-out” (Alfvén & Hofsten, 2015; Haiman, 1998). However, spankings were still common, it was socially acceptable to be disciplined by individuals external to the home, and there was a definite winning and losing team in little league. Because there is a pattern of growing up with a less stable family life, this group highly values and protects family and personal time. Their focus at work is maintaining relationships, achieving outcomes, rights, skills, and not interested in long careers or corporate loyalty and will leave a job if unhappy. The management style of self-command reflects their independence and disdain of micro-management (Zemke et al., 2000).

Millennials

Overview

There is a great deal of talk among print and televised media and books about this generation. Articles have been printed in major magazines indicating the importance of the issue to the American public such as *Time*, *Newsweek*, *The New York Times*, and the *Wall Street Journal* (Alsop, 2008; Carey, 2010; Coppins, 2010; Warner, 2010). Several books have also been published on the topic to include *Generations at Work* (Zemke et al., 2000) and *When Generations Collide* (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). However, much of what has been written is based on anecdotal observations and very little attributed to empirical research.

Millennials; also called Nexters, Generation Y, Net Generation, or the ME Generation; were born approximately between 1982 and 2005 and are currently under 34 years old and between 73 and 76 million strong (Brownstein, Freedman, & Joseph, 2010; Holtz, 2007; Zemke et al., 2000). “The Millennials are now the largest, most diverse and possibly the best-educated generation in the U.S.” (Brownstein, Barone, et al., 2010, p. 4). They are considered optimistic, tenacious, hard-working, and civic-minded. Although they also have been exposed to great tragedy, such as 9/11, Columbine, Virginia Tech, and terrorism, they are considered very optimistic about the future and their own potential. They have had significant involvement from their parents, termed “helicopter parents” and have grown up with instant communication. Annette Lareau of *Unequal Childhoods* (2003) posits that children in middle-to-high income families experience “concerted cultivation” in which the family unit focuses time and attention on the activities of children and helps them to navigate social systems. Ultimately, concerted cultivation increases the value of the knowledge and opinions of children and may have the unintended consequence of entitlement. Finally, Millennials are confident, social, value diversity, and working

in teams (Ferri-Reed, 2010; “Report of the ASHP task force on pharmacy’s changing demographics,” 2007). Because of their connection to technology and the internet, they also expect to be entertained and value feedback and evaluation (Roberts, 2005).

Criticism and Support

A great deal of criticism has been directed toward the Millennial Generation both in the classroom and the workplace. For example, in an article entitled the *Why Worry Generation* in the *New York Times*, Judith Warner (2010) stated that Millennials:

have been depicted more recently by employers, professors and earnestly concerned mental-health experts as entitled whiners who have been spoiled by parents who over stoked their self-esteem, teachers who granted undeserved A’s and sports coaches who bestowed trophies on any player who showed up....they have [been considered] unmanageable in the workplace....Stories abound about them as college students, requiring 24/7 e-mail access to professors and running to Mom and Dad for help with papers or to contest a bad grade. A consensus has emerged that, psychologically, they’re a generation of basket cases: profoundly narcissistic and deprived of a sense of agency by their anxiously over involved parents -- in short, a ‘nation of wimps,’ as Hara Estroff Marano, the Psychology Today editor at large, has put it (Warner, 2010, p. 11)

This is a rather demoralizing description of the millennial generation. Further, another description provided by Hollon (2008) describes Millennials as “over-parented, overindulged and overprotected. They haven’t experienced that much failure, frustration, pain. We were so obsessed with protecting and promoting their self-esteem that they crumble like cookies when they discover the world doesn’t revolve around them. They get into the real world and they’re shocked.” (p. 42).

In contrast, there is indeed much support for individuals in the millennial generation. For example, David Teicher (2010) argued against negative stereotypes suggesting young adults are poor employees. Conversely, Teicher highlighted that young adults actually portray attitudes of self-reliance and entrepreneurship. The authors of *When Generations Collide* (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002) portray a more balanced perspective of the Millennials as both positive and critical aspects of the generation are highlighted. For example, Veterans think Millennials are smart and have good manners, but need to toughen up, and that they watch too much television with crude language and violence. The Baby Boomers would like Millennials to do a web page for them, but also think they need more discipline from their parents, and to learn to entertain themselves because they require too much attention. Finally, there doesn’t seem to be a great deal of support from members of Generation X as

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they have regularly referred to Millennials as a generation of self-absorbed spoiled brats. There is a significant gap in technology because Millennials don't know what a record album is or ever made a pay telephone call. Also, Gen X'ers believe that Millennials are a generation of self-absorbed spoiled brats. However, members of Generation X would be hard pressed to argue that members of the millennial generation are strong in the areas of cultural competence and humility.

Further support is given by Pooley in a recent article by stating: "Yes, they're disloyal. Yes, they're rebellious. And yes, they're cocky—but no more so than their parents or grandparents were when they were the same age... The characteristics often attributed to this generation are not different than any other generation when they were in their 20s—and that's one of the biggest myths out there" (Pooley, 2005, p. 67). Pooley praised the Millennials for having excellent socialization, collaboration, and management skills; in addition to getting involved in every aspect of the business and not afraid to speak up when necessary. Hollon stated that "the rap on the Millennials is that they have been spoiled and coddled, but they also tend to be much more realistic and pragmatic about the modern workplace" (2008, p. 42). Hollon (2008) believes that we can learn a lot from Millennials, who see work as a means to an end and not an end goal itself and that once they completely take over, our organizations will never look the same again. Finally, Maggs (2010) interviewed Jane Oats, the Assistant US Labor Secretary, who defined the Millennial Generation as global in their thinking, color-blind, gender-blind, and don't have the same biases that most others have grown up with. It is these positive traits of the Millennial Generation that need to be drawn upon when considering the best strategies for leadership and how to shape work environments for optimum effectiveness and efficiency.

Millennials at Work

At work, Millennials have been described by Gardner (2006) as respectful of authority requiring minimal supervision if given the appropriate guidance, and that Millennials can be impatient and have trouble with interpersonal conflict and are inexperienced with handling difficult issues working with others. One challenge for individuals in a younger generation is to foster rapport and relationships with one another outside of digital communications. Leaders will need to help Millennials to improve communication skills because they have not had the same experience developing interpersonal relationships as previous generations (Gardner, 2006; Joslyn, 2010; Raines, 2002). Claire Raines (2002) discussed some motivations and challenges or leading Millennials in the workplace including that they need clear direction, supervision, and structure, and they want to be challenged (Raines, 2002). They also want a sense of play and fun in the work atmosphere (Raines, 2002; Roberts, 2005). Millennials enjoy working in groups with other bright and creative

people. However, they do not enjoy working with others if their reputation will be damaged by the lack of work ethic or intelligence of others, (Ferri-Reed, 2010; Gardner, 2006; Raines, 2002; Roberts, 2005). Millennials expect to share their ideas, engage in active-learning, have real time answers, and have some technology in the workplace (Roberts, 2005). Other considerations for Millennials in the workplace include a requirement of flexibility both in the structure of the work environment and within process and procedures (Gardner, 2006; Raines, 2002). They also have a tremendous need to feel respected and not be embarrassed in front of their peers (Raines, 2002; Roberts, 2005). Millennials view changing jobs as a natural process and expect to do so quite often in their careers (Wieck, Dols, & Landrum, 2010). Finally, Millennials want to make a difference in their world and want to have enough time and flexibility to enjoy their lives outside of work (Raines, 2002).

In support of trait theory (Northouse, 2010), personality traits that would be perfect for a millennial leader include encouragement, supportive, organized and flexible (Raines, 2002). Behaviors that would be beneficial for a millennial leader to adopt would be approachability, mentoring, coaching (Ferri-Reed, 2010; Raines, 2002). In addition, providing individualized attention, holding employees accountable, and trusting employees to get the job done well are all important for the millennial leader (Raines, 2002). Additionally, Millennials desire leaders who are visible life-long learners and encourage the same for employees (Raines, 2002). Leaders can also help Millennials by providing opportunities to learn new things and help to connect their actions to personal and career goals. This is very similar to the Path-Goal theory of leadership (Northouse, 2010). Millennial leadership would suggest that organizations adopt leadership models that value transparency, and follower input. Millennials would respond well to a leader that communicates through text, email, or instant messages, in person meetings, and social networking (Hickman, 2010). The ways in which leaders can reward Millennials would be through promotions in title, recognition for a job well done, flexibility in schedule, and providing opportunities that can strengthen their resume (Raines, 2002). Conversely, characteristic traits that would not work well for Millennials include micromanagement, quashing their spirit, discouraging their ideas, condescension, inconsistency and disorganization, cynical, and not recognizing the skills they have that can benefit the organization (Raines, 2002).

Conflicts with Millennials at work are generally related to their high demand for feedback, impatience for advancement opportunities, desire to collaborate and make a difference, social boldness, constant questions and offering opinions, desire to pursue multiple interests and careers, and tendency toward “delayed adulthood” (Vanderveen & Bold, 2008). The nonprofit sector has been experiencing many of

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these conflicts within the working environment due to four generations occupying the workforce (Joslyn, 2010). One noted conflict in the nonprofit sector is the demanding nature of the Millennials for increased authority (Joslyn, 2010).

Effects of Economic Recession on Millennials

In looking further into the future, what might be ramifications of the economic recession be on this generation? How might leaders in organizations prepare for welcoming Millennials into the workforce? Brownstein, Freedman, and Joseph (2010) reported on the Allstate/National Journal Heartland Monitor survey on the economic experiences and attitudes of young adults. The poll found that the Millennial Generation is struggling through the severe economic crisis. Only one sixth of Millennials surveyed indicated that they make enough money to live comfortably, 60% of them have large student loan debts, a large number is still relying on their parents for financial help, and one fourth of Millennials ages 25 to 29 are still or once again living with parents. There is a great deal of discussion of this topic in the literature (Brownstein, Barone, et al., 2010; Brownstein, Freedman, et al., 2010; Fallows, 2010; Hollon, 2008; Maggs, 2010; Peck, 2010; Pooley, 2005). In general, people ages 20 to 24 years are facing high unemployment rate. The Baby Boomers, who would normally be retiring to pass the torch are now postponing retirement due to the economic crisis and lost retirement savings (Hollon, 2008). Therefore, the competition for entry-level jobs is fierce. However, Millennials have been reported as being very optimistic and resilient and have chosen to ride out the economic difficulties through entrepreneurial ship, seeking advanced education, military careers, and committing to the pursuit of public service (Brownstein, Barone, et al., 2010; Brownstein, Freedman et al., 2010). Other pathways that are popular for members of the Millennial Generation include travelling or living at home with parents and having the flexibility to move to where the jobs are (Peck, 2010). Another implication of a lack of work for the millennial generation is the inability to manage debt from college loans.

With a generation so poorly prepared to handle criticism or loss, one is left to wonder how the generation will cope with joblessness or even being offered a job to begin with. Hollon (2008) reported that an advertising executive had stated that he would not hire an applicant out of college unless he or she had work-related internship or an advanced degree. The executive stated his perspective that Millennials lack the ability to deal with responsibility, accountability and setbacks. "They wipe out on life as often as they wipe out on work itself...they get an apartment and a kitty, and they can't cope, Work becomes an ancillary casualty" (Hollon, 2008, p. 42)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overall, there is limited empirical research available on the Millennial Generation with even less on effective leadership styles for this generation. Following is a discussion of empirical research found in the literature regarding the Millennial Generation. This information coupled with the previous discussion will inform the development of a new model for leadership.

The nursing industry has proven to be a leader in empirical research related to Millennials and the leadership of Millennials in the workforce (Dols, Landrum, & Wieck, 2010; Hahn, 2009; Wieck et al., 2010). The first study involved focus group discussions with four generations of nursing staff members in which five themes were identified, providing suggestions for managers in creating a positive working environment for all (Dols et al., 2010). Because of the large shortage of nurses and the large number of Baby Boomer consumers in health care, it is the intention of hospitals to increase retention of the nursing workforce. The five themes included transitioning from student to nurse, managing difficult staffing conditions, maintaining morale, and building relationships to enhance teamwork.

Another nursing study designed to improve the retention of nurses was conducted by Wieck, Dols, and Landrum (2010). A survey was conducted of the staff nurses of 22 southern hospitals. The survey included measures of job satisfaction, perceptions of safety, the Nurse Manager Desired Traits survey, and the Nursing Work Index-Revised. The researchers found that younger nurses had less job satisfaction than nurses over 40. They also found that one-third of the Millennial nurses planned to leave their job within two years and two-thirds indicated they would leave their jobs within 5 years. In summary, Millennial nurses were found to have shorter employment tenure and more frequent switching of jobs.

Phillips and Torres (2008) conducted a focus group survey on professionally employed Millennials across the country. They asked the question "If you could tell your boss one thing, what would it be?". The results were categorized into six themes and provide insight into Millennials' expectations and what keeps them motivated. The six themes were teach me, mentor me, this job is not my life; trust me, reward me, and don't take me for granted. These responses indicate that they realize they have a lot to learn; want more than just a boss, rather mentors and coaches; want flex time, vacation, and work/life balance; want to be given the autonomy to make a real impact; want clear performance expectations attached to incentives such as bonuses, pay increase, or increase in vacation time. Finally, Millennials feel they have more options. Therefore, their loyalty will only be given to companies that "earn" their devotion.

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Considering the previous literature review, the millennial generation is in need of a leadership style that will incorporate the encouragement of developing a competitive instinct and drawing upon already present strengths in self-reliance and entrepreneurship.

MODEL

The Millennial Leadership Model draws on several leadership approaches to include Transformational Leadership, Shared Leadership, Path Goal Theory, and E-Leadership (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010). While each will be discussed briefly for context, the reader is encouraged to seek additional resources for depth of understanding. Transformational leadership focuses on the premise that the leader possesses qualities inspiring followers through a strong vision, which encourages commitment and buy-in (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010). The leader engages with followers to create a connection that raises the motivation and sense of belonging to something greater than themselves. The transformational leader is attentive to the needs and motives of the followers as a tool for achieving the vision and raises the level of morality in both the leader and the follower. This is accomplished through inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transformational leaders have been described as passionate, confident, competent, articulate, and encouraging. Historically, examples of transformational leaders exist that had both a positive and negative impact. For example, Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Nelson Mandela have inspired positive outcomes, whereas Adolph Hitler, Charles Manson, and Saddam Hussein are considered pseudo transformational leaders that inspired others for nefarious intent, focusing on selfish interests with no morality. The Millennial Leadership Model is draws on Transformational Leadership in that individuals in this generation are innovative, seek mutual respect, and opportunities to be inspired to believe in something greater than themselves. This was illustrated in the grass roots efforts with focus on the Millennial Generation in the presidential election of Barak Obama (Cogburn & Espinoza-Vasquez, 2011).

The Millennial Leadership Model also draws on the Shared Leadership Model, in which leaders draw on the inclusion of followers in the decision-making process (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010). Further, leadership responsibilities are broadly distributed, such that leadership is formed by individuals within a team and not necessarily from an assigned leader (Pearce & Sims, 2002). This is important in the Millennial Leadership Model as individuals in this generation value involved decision-making.

Path-Goal Theory also informs the Millennial Leadership Model as this theory focuses on aligning the needs of the follower with the needs of the work setting (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010). The goal is to focus on employee performance and satisfaction by tapping into motivation. In this theory, the leader identifies goals, clears a path, removes obstacles, and provides support for the follower. It increases the number and kinds of payoffs subordinates receive from their work. Larson (2015) recently identified Path-Goal theory as effective with the Generation Y, also known as Millennials, as it helps to develop contentment and commitment of the follower to the vision of the organization. Path-Goal Theory informs the Millennial Leadership Model as it supports the value of Millennials for seeking opportunities for growth in aligning the needs of the follower with meeting the goals of the organization.

Finally, in E-Leadership (electronic leadership), teams work together and communicate through technological means and therefore, the members of a team may never actually meet face-to-face (DasGupta, 2011). One of the first usages of the term E-Leadership in scholarly literature by Avolio, Kahai, and Dodge (2011), posited that technology both informs and transforms leadership structures of an organization. As such, E-Leadership serves as a social influence within organizations incorporating advanced information technology to produce a change in attitudes, feelings, thinking, behavior, and /or performance with individuals, groups, and/or organizations. To that end, E-Leadership influences the Millennial Leadership Model as the proliferation of information technology in this digital age resulted in producing the first digital native generation. Therefore, consideration of E-Leadership is integral to understanding best practices for leading the Millennial Generation.

The Millennial Model is designed to help leaders or mentors identify the needs of their millennial employees and alter their own behaviors, traits, or actions to meet those needs. Starting at the top of the model shown in Figure 1 and moving clockwise, millennial employees will require leaders that provide respectful communication, clear expectations, consistent feedback, flexibility, involved decision-making and opportunity for advancement.

Respectful Communication

Because of their high self-esteem, Millennials desire respectful communication and do not want to be embarrassed or too harshly criticized (Raines, 2002). Chambers (2010) discussed the importance for young nurses to have leaders that adopt supportive relationships in the social climate of the workplace. In discussing Bill George's approach to Authentic Leadership, Northouse (2010) spoke about the type of relationships that Millennials are seeking from their leaders:

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Figure 1.



People today want to have access to their leaders and they want their leaders to be open with them. In a sense, people are asking leaders to soften the boundary around their leadership role and to be more transparent. People want to have a trusting relationship with their leaders. (p. 213)

Nurses indicated that they would accomplish anything if they had the respect and appreciation of their managers; they wanted to be appreciated, and acknowledged and respected by their managers for what they do. Praise and appreciation goes a long way. Younger nurses indicated that they wanted managers that were approachable and would listen to them (Dols et al., 2010). Phillips and Torres' survey indicated that Millennials want to be coached and mentored, and not treated as subordinates (2008). This can be difficult in environments in which hierarchy and deference for individuals in a position of authority is the norm.

Clear Expectations

New Millennials need more than a manual or a quick tour of the facility (Ferri-Reed, 2010). Ferri-Reed (2010) stated that new employees benefit most from an in-depth introduction to the company from the history, to mission, culture, products and services. Rather than orienting a new employee in one day, having a standardized orientation program that spans the first year is best. This type of strategy helps Millennials understand how their position fits into the big picture. Strategies for this type of program might include the use of mentors, special projects, or presentations (Ferri-Reed, 2010).

Pooley (2005) quoted Raines as stating that:

many companies are finally beginning to wake up to the unique needs of the Millennials and have implemented mentoring and coaching programs to help welcome the generation into the corporate fold – often doing it on terms that are more meaningful to the way they work and function. (p. 68)

Just as the nursing force requested mentoring through the transition from student to nurse (Dols et al., 2010), individuals in the Millennial Generation also wants clear mentorship.

Consistent Feedback

Plenty of positive feedback is extremely important to individuals in the Millennial Generation (Ferri-Reed, 2010). It is imperative for mentors to identify ways to meet millennial employees where they are and to alter their leadership style to meet their needs. However, it is not benefitting the Millennial employee if there is no opportunity for growth or development. It is the responsibility of the mentor to respectfully and gently share feedback with Millennials in an effort to foster continued growth and development (Ferri-Reed).

Lancaster (2002) discussed the need for Millennials to receive ongoing and effective feedback in the book entitled *When Generations Collide*. Where the silent or veteran generation has the perspective ‘if you don’t hear from me, it means you’re doing fine’. If a manager says something about your performance, he means it and you better listen. Baby Boomers are products of the pop psychology of the sixties, they are in touch with their feelings and love communication. They pushed traditionalists into the once a year appraisals and made it as objective as possible. In contrast, 90% of individuals in Generation X want feedback immediately within a few days of completing a project. This is related to the general increase in the efficiency of

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processes and communication. To illustrate, the general speed of communication of the Veterans/Silents was fairly slow with US mail as the primary source of communication and work communication occurring through meetings or memos. Boomers were introduced to FedEx and whereas executives historically relegated communication to administrative assistants, downsizing occurring throughout the 80's and the proliferation of personal computers led to executives writing their own communications. Members of Generation X became accustomed to instant meals from the microwave, cash from the ATM, instant news from the web. Even further, Millennials have access to instant feedback through smart phones, Facebook, and Twitter. X'ers. Therefore, it is not surprising Millennials want to monitor their performance just like anything else, instantly, exactly, and often (Lancaster).

Feedback can be provided in much the same way it is in education (Bell, 2007). Most people are familiar with summative evaluations, taking place at the end of a project or year and often with high stakes, such as a promotion or pay increase. However, Bell stated that having formative evaluations, as you go along, will help to avoid unexpected conflict or disappointment during summative evaluations. The primary task of the mentor is to present high-quality feedback to the employee to stimulate his/her own self-evaluation (Bell). The leader may help with interpretation and analysis, but the more the employee makes the connection himself, the greater the impact and likelihood to increase self-awareness and problem-solving skills. In offering specific feedback, Bell suggested presenting the facts in a non-judgmental manner, recognizing the employee's need for support and focus on the outcome of the desired behavior (Bell).

Ende (1983) stated that the best feedback is well-timed and planned, data that is presented in the form of frequent verbal comments, is objective and behavior-oriented without assumed motives, is descriptive not evaluative, and is tied to specific goals. Furthermore, feedback should involve the employee and ask their perspective of the situation to identify accuracy of perceptions. Judgments of personality traits or vague generalizations should be avoided while utilizing a direct expression of observations utilizing "I" statements (Ende, 1983). Finally, mutual trust is important. If an employee feels threatened, their defenses will rise and nothing will be accomplished (Ferri-Reed, 2010). Ferri-Reed suggested emphasizing to Millennial employees that eliminating unproductive behaviors will lead to increased success.

Phillips and Torres (2008) warned against feedback shifting into micromanagement. They emphasize that there is a big difference between open communication and telling someone how to do every detail of his or her job. "A manager's goal should be to find a balance between giving employees generous feedback and giving them the freedom to make decisions and solve problems" (Phillips & Torres, p. 56).

Flexibility

The millennial generation is very adept at intertwining their work, family, educational, and leisure activities in such a way that a regular work day might not be necessary (Joslyn, 2010). The question becomes not, ‘why are you not at work’, but rather, ‘is your work getting done’? Millennials may not have a career-goal for staying in one organization for a long period of time, and that does not necessarily mean that they lack commitment (Joslyn, 2010). Millennials may instead be committed to a cause in which they will work in several different organizations (Llorens, 2009). This will require managers to develop short term goals for employees and devise management systems that allow for flexibility and cross-training of employees.

An article by Kahai and Avolio included in Hickman’s (2010) text discussed e-leadership, which has some strong implications for millennial leadership. One example provided was a CEO of a computer company in the 1990’s that mandated the cessation of email communication at certain times of the day to counteract loss in productivity. Millennial leadership would suggest that organizations learn to value the multi-tasking nature of this generation and allow flexibility in the workday as a result of the immediate access employees have to information through smart phones, etc. Brownstein et.al. (2010) discussed the importance for the Millennial generation to collaborate with peers and have the opportunity to have a lasting impact on the organizations for whom they work and the world around them. Therefore, they may have an incredible opportunity to develop new ways of organizing their work lives.

Flexibility will also be required not only to work schedules and collaboration, but also the structure of *how* things are to be done. Leaders need to try to understand that Millennials have the ability to simultaneously consume a wide variety of media (Carlson, 2005). They will take new avenues to accomplish their work goals. Millennials would prefer to have completely paperless and online working environments that are fast and interactive (Carlson).

Phillips and Torres (2008) found in their survey that most Millennials expect flexible work schedules, three-week vacations, and an opportunity to work from home.

Many continue to receive financial support from their parents, which means they have the luxury of being more demanding. While they can appreciate how fortunate they are, they don’t feel the need to apologize for it. They believe that work/life balance will make them even more productive (Phillips & Torres, p. 56).

Involved Decision-Making

Millennials are used to be consulted in their own families about big decisions. Therefore, businesses need to become more transparent about how they make big decisions (Joslyn, 2010). Understanding how their role fits in with the organization's mission is very important. This is quite similar to Terri Doyle's (2009) perspective of shared leadership within the classroom.

Northouse (2010) discussed a weakness of Transformational Leadership in that it can seem elitist and antidemocratic. Millennial leadership seeks to overcome this perspective and be transformational, yet with a democratic undertone and a perspective of servanthood. Rather than the leader taking sole responsibility for creating changes and developing vision; a millennial leader exists to serve the team in meeting needs and eliminating obstacles, seeking input, and garnering democratic consensus if possible. Another leadership model upon which Millennial Leadership can be drawn is the Shared/Collaborative Leadership model discussed by Allen et al. in Hickman's (2010) text. The authors stated that "there is a growing understanding that the patterns of hierarchical leadership that served us in the past are not well suited to the global complexity, rapid change, interdependency, and multifaceted challenges" (needs page #) we face in our complex, diverse, changing, educated and interdependent society.

Taking a lesson from education Carlson (2005) explained that education used to be founded on the premise that the teacher, or leader, had something important to share. Now, everyone has become the group facilitator with collaborative learning and all points-of-view adding to the knowledge.

Opportunities for Growth

Terri Doyle (2008) suggested that helping individuals grow and adapt requires three steps. First to understand the motivation behind feelings, behaviors, and beliefs. Then, to share a clear set of reasons for decisions backed up by research. Finally to teach new skills needed to be successful in a working environment.

Ferri-Reed (2010) suggested giving Millennial employees a challenge. She indicated that Millennials expect to do well and receive recognition for their contributions due to their high expectations stemming from a long history of positive feedback. She suggested giving the youngest employees special projects to help them shine and earn the recognition they feel is deserved (Ferri-Reed). Because Millennials expect to rise quickly within the organization, helping them to chart a career path early in their employment will give them vision and motivate them to work for something. Outlining the steps required to reach executive management as well as the career options within the organization will lead to optimum performance (Ferri-Reed).

CONCLUSION

A breadth of non-peer reviewed literature exists describing the behaviors of the millennial generation. However, a dearth of scientific research exists to measure the validity of these perceptions and or suggest ways to identify and effectively meet the needs of those in the millennial generation. Suggestions include increasing empirical research to assist leaders in developing models and best practices for the Millennial Generation and generations of the future. Models need to be developed and studied in order to be considered valid and reliable.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Baby Boomers: Individuals born between 1943 and 1960, 80-million strong and advocates for change (Hagevik, 1999; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). {Hagevik, 1999 #285}.

Concerted Cultivation: A parenting strategy to assist children with navigating social systems (Lareau, 2003).

E-Leadership: Serves as a social influence within organizations incorporating advanced information technology to produce a change in attitudes, feelings, thinking, behavior, and/or performance with individuals, groups, and/or organizations (Avolio, Kahai, & Dodge, 2000).

Generation Xer: Individuals born between 1961 and 1981, half the size of the Baby Boomers and influenced by mass media (Hagevik, 1999; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Millennials: Individuals born between 1982 and 2005 almost as large as the Baby Boomers, referred also as Digital Natives (Hagevik, 1999; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Path-Goal Theory: Focuses on aligning the needs of the follower with the needs of the work setting (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010).

Shared Leadership: Leaders draw on the inclusion of followers in the decision-making process (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010).

Transformational Leadership: Focuses on the premise that the leader possesses qualities inspiring followers through a strong vision, which encourages commitment and buy-in (Hickman, 2010; Northouse, 2010).

Veterans: Individuals born between 1925 and 1942 considered the Silents or Traditionalists (Hagevik, 1999; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

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Chapter 12

Challenge of Millennials in Project Management: Insights on Attitudes and Perceptions of Generation Y in Software Development Projects

Nihan Yıldırım

Management Engineering, Istanbul Technical University, Turkey

Yeliz Korkmaz

Bahçeşehir University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

The need for understanding Generation Y employees' attitudes and expectations that considerably differed from previous generations had been a focus of researchers in the last decades. IT industry and specifically software industry had been among the most popular employment areas of Generation Y professionals and hence Generation Y Software Developers constitutes the majority of the work force in the software industry. As known, software development is a project-based business where the project management methodologies and principles are utilized. Similar to other project based works, the effectiveness of human resources management and team development is the determinant of project success in software development. Therefore, to effectively manage and to adapt appropriate approaches for leading the project teams which include Generation Y software professionals, managers and leaders prior in need to understand their perspective. In this context, research aims to understand the expectations and attitudes of Generation Y Software Developer

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professionals in projects. The research is structured in two parts reflecting these dual aims. The first part of the research addresses the expectations of Y generation employees from project management and project environment in software development projects. The second part of the research explores the attitudes of Y generation Employees in software development project teams. Survey is conducted with the participation of 113 Generation Y Software Professionals who are employed in major software companies in Turkey. Basic concepts that are explored in the study are expectations from working environment, expectations from project type and content, leadership, motivation factors, challenges faced, perceptions on generation conflicts and the attitudes of Generation Y professionals towards project-based work and work environments. Software industry is dominated by project based management methods, perceptions and attitudes of Generation Y in projects are expected to provide practical guidelines to policy makers and HR professionals in developing solutions and tools for improving motivations and effectiveness of Generation Y employees.

1. INTRODUCTION

The advent of the twenty-first century is that highly performing employees may have better employment opportunities in other organizations. Their experience, skills and abilities are appreciated by their companies but they are not prepared to give the workers what they really desire, so they decide to leave in spite of the time spent and the knowledge they have acquired in that company. While not subscribing to the popular notion of generational differences, found that each generation reported themselves as less optimistic than the previous generation. They suggest that managers will have to deal with a group of increasingly negative and possibly cynical employees and noted that it is important to provide younger generations with challenges in workplace. Project managers managing a multigenerational team must be aware of the expectations, motivations, perceptions and attitudes of their team members, because it presents a serious challenge in dealing with a project team comprising of people with differing attitudes and approaches toward project outcomes. Generational conflicts or differences also may require an effective emotion management, which is defined as a significant trend in today's workplace (Liu & Jason, 2016).

The term, Generation Y, was first coined in 1993 by Advertising Age as the last generation to be born entirely in the twentieth century (Reed 2007; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Generation Y is also known as Echo Boomers, the Millennium Generation, Generation Next (Durkin 2008), the Net Generation (Tyler, 2008) and Generation Why? (Reed 2007). Millennials as a group are more like-minded than other generations (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010). From a psychological perspective, Generation Y demonstrates higher self-esteem, personal

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admiration, anxiety, depression, lower need for social approval, and more external locus of control (Twenge and Campbell, 2008). They are technical, adaptable, and learner centered (Deal, 2007; Dobbs, Healey, Kane, Mak & McNamara, 2007). They tend to be comfortable with technology, open to new ideas, and are visual learners (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). In their jobs, Generation Y is discussed for being both individual and collaborative, and for challenging current systems and rules, questioning the existing solutions, and willing to make decisions (Shih & Allen, 2007; Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012; Reisenwitz & Iyer 2009).

Generation Y employees are worth studying for their motivations and demotivators in Project Management context which focuses on triple constraints of budget, schedule and scope. Though they are known to be effective in providing unique solutions and networking through effective communication (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012), Generation Y employees are also discussed to be risk averse and rapid change seekers who are against intensive control, supervision and bureaucracy.

In this context, this paper has dual aims; to understand the expectations from project management and project environment and to explore the attitudes of Generation Y software professionals in projects. Data is collected from 113 Generation Y Software Professionals who are employed in major software companies in Turkey. A questionnaire is designed in the light of the theoretical background. Basic components of the research are selected as expectations from working environment, expectations from project type and content, leadership, motivation factors, challenges faced, perceptions on generation conflicts and the attitudes of Generation Y professionals towards project-based work and work environments. Next section of the paper presents the literature research and theoretical background on generation theories, definition of Y generation, Y generation in work place and in Projects. Research approach and Data collection is explained in the third section. Fourth section includes the analysis and findings of the research. Then those findings are discussed and a conclusion is presented in the final section.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Generations

Generations are cohorts of people who were born in the same date range, share similar cultural experiences and tendencies. Every generation has its own characteristics, attitudes, morals, weakness and strengths (Lower, 2008). Approximately born in the same year, the terms of the same age, so people who have been charged with similar responsibilities to the community is called generation. A generation consists of people who feel connected to peers of the same age; they have experienced the

same zeitgeist (Bontekoning, 2008). Demographers note that generational cohorts share cultural, political, and economic experiences as well as have similar outlooks and values (Kotler & Keller 2006). From past to present each subsequent generation is more advanced, more progressed. Each generation perceives the previous generation as “outdated”, “stodgy” and “conservative”, while the next generation is seen as irresponsible and disrespectful (Alwin & McCammon, 2007; Biggs, 2007). Individual’s shared social and group events, keeps them together. Individual in the same age group move together and affect each other because of their common ground. From the moment they are born, are exposed to similar situations. These groups develop a unique pattern of behavior based on these common experiences (Kupperschmidt, 2000). A generation characteristic varies according to the society in which they live. Each country’s definition of generation, according to their socio-cultural structure may differ in time.

Figure 1 shows us aging of the generations. According to Macon & Artley (2006) generations can be defined by keywords as follows:

- **Baby Boomers:** Idealistic, driven individuals who are willing to make both personal and professional sacrifices to achieve consensus, which requires teamwork and collaboration.
- **Generation X:** Feelings of pragmatism, alienation, and cynicism, poor at networking and somewhat skeptical of authority. They are considered to be more independent and disloyal, and more likely to change jobs in order to improve skills for their next opportunity.
- **Generation Y:** The most confident generation by far, a high level of optimism but expect and demand instant feedback, have poor communication and problem solving skills, an inflated sense of self and taught to believe they can achieve anything. Fearless, blunt, and not afraid to tell you they know a better way, regardless of your position.

Generation Z- is also called Generation M who is media-savvy and possess technological know-how and rely heavily on and literate in multimedia in their daily lifestyle (Roberts & Foehr, 2005) hence they seek internet and mobile technologies in their learning experience, thus needs a new, creative way of teaching and learning (So & Lam, 2014).

Silent and Baby Boomers generations are looking forward to get retired, as more Generation Y employees enter the workforce (Levack, 2007). As Table 1 refers, even IT resource characteristics are changing based on generation (Luftman, 2011).

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Figure 1. The aging of the generations (cionet.com, 2011)

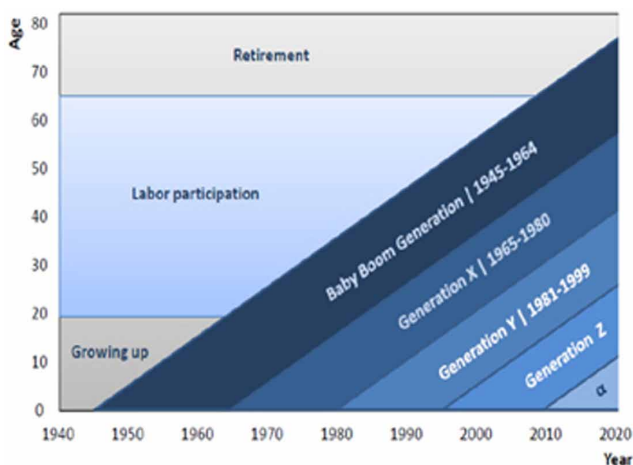


Table 1. IT resources characteristics (Luftman, 2011)

Generation (year of birth)	Resource Views			
	Organizational	Technical	Human	Financial
	Development of paradigms	Development of technology	Development of knowledge creation	Development of strategic focus and corporate responsibility
Baby Boom (1945-1964)	Organizations acting as a machine	Information Technology (IT) and Telecommunication, as engineering	Physical	Profit
X (1965-1980)	Organizations acting as an organism	Information Technology (IT) and Telecommunication, as engineering	Virtual	Profit
Y (1981-1999)	Organizations acting as a culture and political system	Information-and Communication Technology (ICT), to support communication	Mental	People
Z (2000-2009) and Alpha(>2010)	Organizations acting as a brain and flux and transformation	Community Technology, to support communities	All-embracing	Planet

2.2. Generation Y in Workplace

In business, Generation Y exhibits the propensity for working in teams while being collaborative, results-oriented individuals, and having an ardor for pressure (Shih & Allen, 2007). As well they intend to challenge the status quo, question processes and systems in their work place if they are uncomfortable with a decision (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). Moreover, as Reisenwitz & Iyer (2009) quoted from various studies;

- Generation Y professionals are the hardest of all to recruit (“Recruiting and the Job Hunt” 2008).
- They focused on practical issues like salary and healthcare/retirement, benefits, job stability, and career satisfaction, (“Focused on the Future” 2008)
- They are more flexible, with a more positive attitude, ready to work as part of a team, and can multitask (“How Millennial Staff” 2009)

Differing from Generation X, Generation Y employees do not tend to follow directions well or require a structure in the work environment. They prefer flexibility to get the job done and mentoring rather than supervision. (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Working with a boss they respect and can learn from was the most important aspect of their work environment (Hastings 2008).

As of 2025, Generation Y employees are expected to form 70% of the working population, and as of 2018 will have more spending power. The most diverse and the most educated in history, this generation is accounted for 1.8 billion of the world’s 7 billion population. Harvard Business Review’s Ideal Employer Survey Held in Turkey in November 2013 gives information about the business environment generation Y wants to work in (see Table 2). When we look at the career profile, priority in the field of engineering is as follows;

In a recent study of Bristow, Amyx, Castleberry & Cochran (2013) on College Students’ motivational factors following factors are considered, and Generation Y respondents had shown higher sensitivity to satisfier motivator factors (Recognition, Sense of Achievement, Status, Personal Development) then Gen X, while they had given significantly lower ranks to hygiene factors like Supervision, Job Security, Coworkers, Fringe Benefits, Working Conditions. Generation Y’s average attribute utility for advancement potential is also much higher than both Generation X and Baby Boomers (Barford & Hester, 2011).

According to Sujansky (2008) Y Generation in IT businesses can be motivated by making retention a top priority, giving constant feedback, relaying praise, bringing joy back into the workplace, providing challenging and meaningful work and being

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Table 2. Generation Y ideal work environment (Harvard Business Review Ideal Employers Survey, 2013)

Career	Importance
Entrepreneurship, creativity	1
Leadership	2
Global career	3
Work – life balance	4
Job protection	5
Be a technical or functional specialist	6
Be a freelance	7
Social responsibility	8
Competition	9

aware of their need for life balance. Schullery (2013) noted that, Millennials give whole-hearted effort to meaningful work (Alsop, 2008) and managers should insist that Millennials meet the organization’s standards, while meeting Millennials’ desire for work that is engaging. As Tulgan (2009) concludes, “They want to learn, to be challenged, and to understand the relationship between their work and the overall mission of the organization. They want flexibility in work”. In their work, Anantatmula & Shirivastav (2012) quoted that Generation Y employees are ethnically diverse, global, independent, confident, and adaptive to various situations and multitasking. However, they often lack loyalty towards their employers (Gale, 2007). Millennials are open to change and are willing to embrace broad societal trends. Because they’ve been taught a collaborative working style, both in school assignments and community projects; hence they prize community service and often judge prospective employers by an organization’s commitment to philanthropy and expect to “do well by doing good” (Ferri-Reed, 2013).

Table 3 also shows the overview of organization of IT resources based on generation.

It is argued that the attention span of Generation Y is short, as they are constantly moving from one idea or trend to the next, and they will not stay with an employer unless the employer provides them with a variety of experiences. Management approach is also very important topic for them because it directly affects their motivations for work. Generation Y wants to get feedback from their managers and believes that manager should be a coach for them (Keles, 2011). As a result of technological developments and other factors, jobs are becoming more mobile and flexible causing employees work with higher independence and flexibility. Companies offer flexible working opportunities to acquire and retain good employees. Flexible

Table 3. Overview of organization of IT resources (Luftman, 2011)

Gen	View from the generation	IT professionals of this generation “My IT department should be...”
Baby Boom	An organization should act as a machine	Organization design: bureaucracy, drawn in a hierarchical organization chart.
		Leadership: controls by giving clear tasks, hierarchical.
		Organization culture: efficient, stable, measurable.
X	An organization should act as an organism	Organization design: sets of interacting subsystems.
		Leadership: internal and external focused.
		Organization culture: open, informal, together.
Y	An organization should act as a culture, and as a political system	Organization design: democracy.
		Leadership: conflict solving, natural hero’s
		Organization culture: social interaction
Z/ Alpha	An organization should act as a brain, and as flux and transformation	Organization design: holistic, infinite, decentralized
Leadership: strong leader		
Organization culture: creativity, diversity, self-regulating, learning, stories.		

working with autonomy provides productivity and efficiency increases and motivation (McEwan, 2009). On the other hand, Generation Y are discussed to be risk-averse (Beaton 2007) yet self-assured (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).

2.3. Generation Y in IT Projects

Motivation factors for IT employees (Kaplan & LeRouge, 2007) for all generations were concluded as creating boundary spanning jobs, practicing effective performance management, and increasing participation in decision making, providing concrete resources such as research time, opportunities to attend courses, and physical facilities that facilitate trial and error, augmenting generalized technical knowledge and skills with organization-specific ones. When these are combined with project management approaches and linked to Generation Y professionals, there are differences besides lots of intersections. Specifically, with increased proportion of the workforce, Generation Y is assigned greater responsibilities on project teams. Past research shows that Generation Y people come into the workplace with a unique perspective, having a different approach in the way they view their job, network with others, and communicate (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). They use techniques, which are often not familiar to other generations, and their management style may lead to skepticism among other generations (Pooley, 2005). Considering that projects are used as means to achieve an organization’s strategic goals and that global spending

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on projects is in the order of many billions of dollars annually (Williams, 2005), it is critical that organizations engage people from different generations productively to complete projects on time, within budget, and as per specifications to meet customer and market needs (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). As a subject, generational differences is still not understood well and it is critical for managerial research (Westerman and Yamamura, 2007, Anantatmula and Shirivastav, 2012). Knowledge of the differences among the various generations in the workforce will help organizational leaders in making important decisions about human resource policies and practices (Sullivan, Forret, Carraher & Mainier, 2009). Sacks (2006) states that if this generational conflict is not considered by organizations, they will face the challenges related to lower productivity, higher turnover, and frustrated employees, and as a result to reduced profits. However, it must be noted that, in a broader context, some studies state that conflict is not considered negative, but a beneficial instrument for the creation of organizational knowledge. (Varriale, Luisa, Paola Briganti, La Peruta & Ferrara, 2012). Hence generational conflict may also force Project teams to foster their learning and multi-dimensioned thinking.

Inclusion of generation-specific information in leadership seminars help managers learn how to manage teams consisting of people from different generations (Wagner, 2007). Generation Y participation in project teams presents a number of opportunities and challenges as well for project managers and they need to capitalize on the strengths and minimize the impact of weaknesses of Generation Y in order to integrate them into project teams effectively (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). Project managers must be aware of these Generation Y needs while defining roles and responsibilities of individuals and teams. Opportunities in terms of team building, collaboration, feed-back must be created for Generation Y employees (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012). Because they enjoy the social aspect of the job and want to know their co-workers. They enjoy meetings and appreciate constructive feedback from their superiors or colleagues frequently (Solomon, 2008). Further, interdependence, consensus decision making and collaboration are considered important (Sirias, Karp & Brotherton, 2007).

3. RESEARCH APPROACH

Research aim is to understand the expectations and attitudes of Generation Y Software Developer professionals in IT industry in Turkey about the project based work, working environment management approach and their objectives.

The research is structured in two parts reflecting these dual aims. The first part of the research addresses the expectations of Y generation employees from project management and project environment in software development projects. For this

part, the survey questions are designed with nominal/classification scales. Main themes that are included in this first part of the research are expectations from the project leaders/managers, from the project characteristics/types and from the working environment. As well, challenges and motivations which Y generation employees face in projects are explored in this section.

The second part of the research explores the attitudes of Y generation Employees in software development project teams and it draws upon the data that was provided from the survey questions structured in 5-Lykert scale. As we did not use a validated, adapted scale for surveying attitudes of Y generation employees, a factor analysis is conducted to find out the basic constructs and the survey data is analyzed by these factors/components.

Survey questions are derived from the previous research (constructs that the questions are built on are collected from literature).

3.1. Data Collection

Data is collected by an “Online Quantitative survey” that is sent to respondents who are software developers who are working in major software companies in Turkey and who were born between 1980 – 1995 (Generation Y). In October 2013, 500 software professionals are invited to the survey. By January 2014, 112 people responded to survey’s all questions. Survey questions are derived from the literature on Generation Y, IT employees, Project Management and Motivation theory that are presented in previous sections. When designing the survey questionnaire, we utilized some items from the following scales:

- Kaplan & LeRouge (2007) for Motivation factors;
- Anantatmula & Shirivastav (2012) for work, workplace and project management topics,
- Sirias et al. (2007) for decision making and consensus
- Harvard Business Review (2013) for Generation Y Work environment,
- Luftman, (2011) *for Leadership, Organization Design and Culture*.

Besides, items of the questionnaire are derived from the literature given below on the motivation factors, work place, leadership style, team work, attitudes and expectations of Generation Y employees:

1. Motivators:
 - Sense of Achievement (Bristow et al., 2013), consensus decision making (Sirias et al., 2007), Personal Development (Bristow et al., 2013), career satisfaction, (“Focused on the Future” 2008: Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).

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- Status (Bristow et al., 2013); Higher position (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012)
- Leader (Bristow et al., 2013); mentoring rather than supervision. (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009), consensus decision making (Sirias et al., 2007); Working with a boss they respect and can learn from was the most important aspect of their work environment (Hastings 2008)
- Following directions (Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009), structure in the work environment. (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Barford and Hester, 2011), joy into the workplace (Sujansky, 2008), Flexibility (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Tulgan, 2009)
- Advancement (Bristow et al., 2013), Advancement potential (Barford & Hester, 2011) Learning (Tulgan, 2009)
- Job Itself (Bristow et al., 2013), Responsibilities (Barford & Hester, 2011), providing challenging and meaningful work (Sujansky, 2008), meaningful work (Alsop, 2008) (Schullery, 2013), Being Challenged (Tulgan, 2009), (Twenge et al., 2010 (-), Innovation, (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012).
- Retention (Sujansky, 2008)
- Constant feedback (Sujansky, 2008) Understand the relationship between their work and the overall mission (Tulgan, 2009), feedback (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012), meetings (Solomon, 2008), constructive feedback (Solomon, 2008).
- Life balance (Sujansky, 2008), Free time (Barford & Hester, 2011) time for “other things in your life,” (Twenge et al., 2010)
- Opportunities for volunteering during work hours (Twenge et al., 2010) Community Service/philanthropy (Ferri-Reed (2013); Social aspect of the job (Solomon, 2008).
- Working part of a team (“How Millennial Staff”, 2009; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009), Team oriented (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012); collaboration (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012; Sirias et al., 2007).), Interdependence (Sirias et al., 2007)
- Risk and uncertainty (Beaton 2007/2008; (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).
- Multitasking (“How Millennial Staff” 2009; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Anantatmula and Shirivastav, 2012).

* *Quoted from Deal (2007), Dobbs et al. (2007), Gale (2007), Glass (2007), Howe et al. (2000), Houlihan (2007), Kogan (2001), Lyon et al. (2005), McGuire et al. (2007), O’Bannon (2001), Pooley (2005), Sirias et al. (2007), Smola and Sutton (2002), Sullivan et al. (2009), Timmermann (2007), Wong et al. (2008), Zemke et al. (2000, 2001) and Yu and Miller (2003)*

2. Hygiene Factors:

- Salary (“Focused on the Future” 2008: Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009). Pay (Bristow et al., 2013), Compensation (Barford and Hester, 2011), relaying praise (Sujansky, 2008), (Twenge et al., 2010) Monetary gains (Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012).
- Healthcare/retirement (“Focused on the Future” 2008: Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). Fringe Benefits (Bristow et al., 2013; Twenge et al., 2010)
- job stability, (“Focused on the Future” 2008; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Job Security Bristow et al., 2013)
- Supervision (Bristow et al., 2013; Anantatmula & Shirivastav, 2012), Self-paced work, work that is “mostly free of supervision,” (Twenge et al., 2010; Anantatmula and Shirivastav, 2012)
- Coworkers (Bristow et al., 2013, Solomon, 2008)
- Working Conditions (Bristow et al., 2013), work environment (Barford & Hester, 2011)
- *Perception on Generation Gaps* is also questioned for re-testing the hypothesis of Anantatmula & Shirivastav (2012) which revealed that Generation Y employees are “viewed unfavorably at workplace”.

The Original Survey Questionnaire is prepared in Turkish including 45 items. For first 8 questions that aim to explore the following constructs on Expectations of Y generation employees, nominal scales are used for the questions. Frequencies of responses are presented for these questions in the Findings Section.

- Expected skills of Project Manager
- Preferences on project types
- Motivation factors
- Challenges in current projects
- Expectations from working environment
- Perceptions on generation conflicts

To collect data on the attitudes of Generation Y on following topics, we designed a questionnaire consisting of 38 questions that are derived from literature on different perspectives:

- Project management process
- Documentation process in projects
- PMO organization
- Task distribution
- Contribution and initiative taking

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- Workload and over-time working
- Rewarding

These questions as items on attitudes of Generation Y employees about Project Management was measured with 5 point Lykert Scale as “1. Totally disagree”, “2. Disagree”, “3. I am not sure”, “4. I agree”, “5. Totally agree” in a 5-point Likert scale. At least 112 of cases are valid along data analysis.

4. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Expectations of Y Generation Employees

Basic topics regarding expectations of Y Generation employees in Software development projects are explored with survey questions that use ordinal scales.

- *Expected skills from Project Manager;* Generation Y employees are discussed to be desiring to work with a leader they respect (Hastings 2008) and they are need of mentoring rather than supervision (Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009). As can be seen from Figure 2, mostly expected skill from Project manager is communication, that is followed by leadership, honesty and sensitivity to her team. Being visionary and friendly is among the expectations with a lower level of consensus.
- *Expectations from Project Type and Content:* As Figure 3 refers, Generation Y developers prefer to work in projects both with business and social value.

Large teams are also among their preferences. In a considerable rate, complex and problematic projects are preferred by Generation Y developers.

- *Critical Motivation factors;* As can be seen from the Figure 4, project scope and value is the determinant of motivation of Generation Y professionals. Value of the project as a motivation factor is also aligned with the findings in “Expectations from the Project type”. However, project team and project manager also among significant motivation factors, followed by benefits that is offered by the project. Cultural differences and global teams in projects seems to be less important for Generation Y.
- *Challenges in current projects:* As can be seen from Figure 5, almost 1/3 of respondents sees the time-pressure as the first challenge in their working environment currently, while 1/5 feels high risk and uncertainty mostly. Another 18% feels challenged by the new tasks they are assigned uncontrollably.

Figure 2. Expectations from project manager

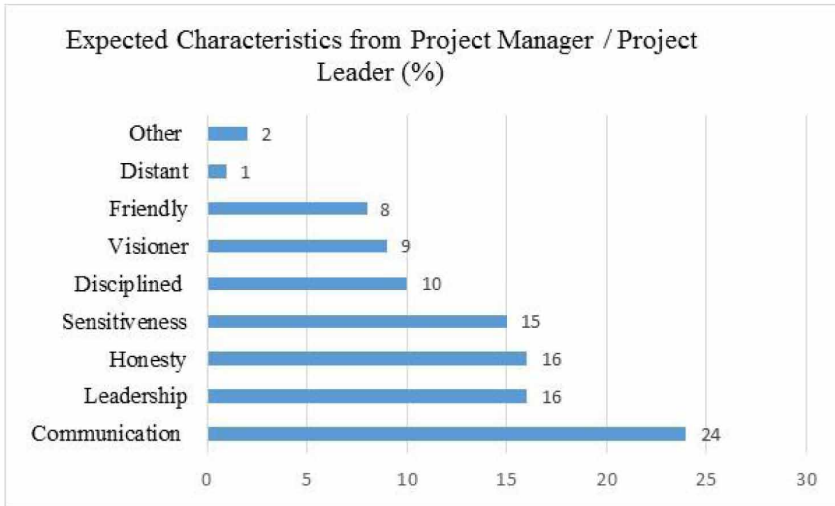


Figure 3. Project characteristics that Generation Y expects

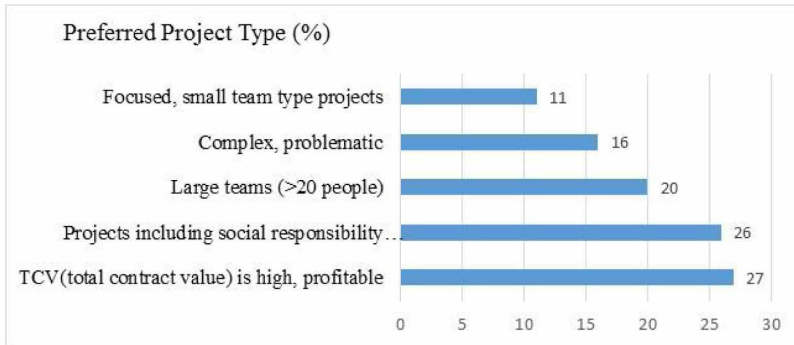
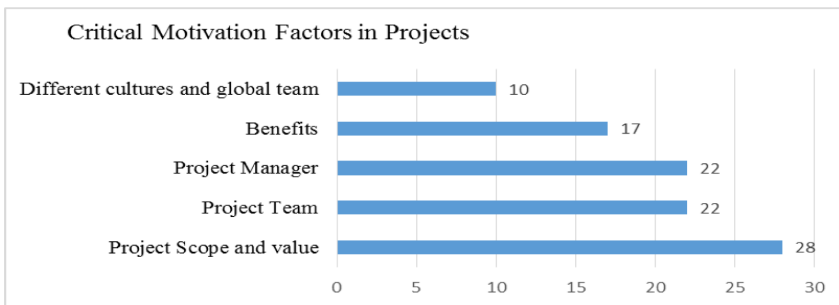


Figure 4. Motivation factors of Generation Y in projects



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Spatial challenges like different locations or intra-organizational involvement in the projects are not perceived among key challenges.

- *Expectations from working environment:* Characteristics of Generation Y is visible in the responses to this question (Figure 6). More than 1/3 of them expects friendly and social working environment, and they do not like dress codes. Almost none (3%) prefers official environments. And only 16% prefers regularity /discipline in their work place.
- *Perceptions on generation conflicts:* In the survey, perceptions of Y Generation employees on the conflicts that are caused by generation difference is also explored. More than half of the participants in the survey stated that they do not feel any generation conflicts while one forth believes that the generation conflict is significant (Table 4).

Figure 5. Challenges faced in projects

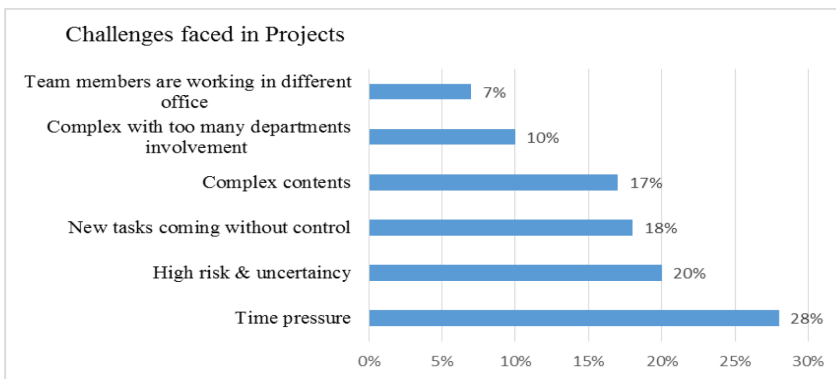


Figure 6. Expectations of Generation Y from their working environment

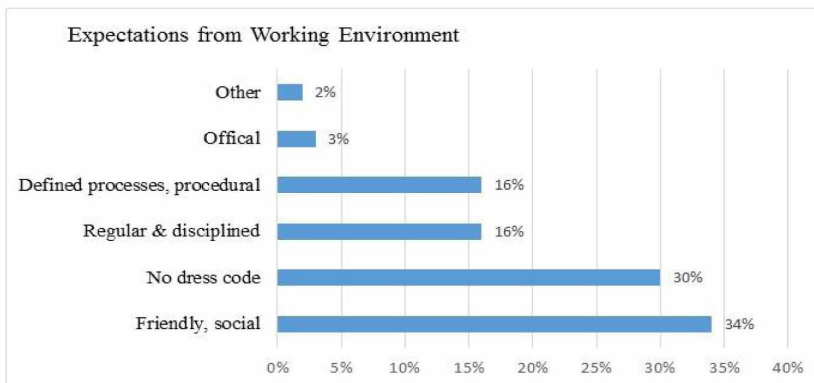


Table 4. Perceptions Generation Y employees on Generation Conflicts

Conflicts between employees from different generations are significant and this conflict cannot be resolved	25%
There are conflicts between generations but it can be resolved.	22%
Not sure about the conflicts between generations	3%
There is no conflict between generations	52%

4.2. Attitudes of Y Generation Employees

Attitudes of surveyed Y generation software developers about project management components are analyzed in this section.

Using the data that is collected by a self-questionnaire, a scale with thirty-eight items from 112 valid cases, firstly reliability of data was tested by Cronbach’s alpha statistic and it is calculated as 0,921. This result satisfies the requirements for further analysis. To test the factorability of the data and utilize exploratory factor analysis, principal component analysis is applied for validity. This technique was iterated three times to reach better results. Third iteration is completed with 23 items (14 items had low factor loads and hence were omitted in the end of first two stages, and one principle component including 2 items was omitted since it is problematic to measure a concept with only two items) and the analysis is resulted in 8 principle components.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure is used for testing the sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is used for finding the Approximate Chi-Square and df. For the final (third) rotation, KMO and Bartlett’s Test results are as follows (Table 5):

In this analysis, Principal Component Analysis is utilized by building the Principal Component Matrix for each iteration as well as anti-image Covariances and Correlations to provide the strength of the factor structure. For all factors, KMO measure was found higher than 0.60 as given in the following table, hence it is concluded that our data matrix set was adequate for factor analysis.

Table 5. KMO and Bartlett’s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.848
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7952,990
	df	990
	Sig.	,000

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Table 6. Summary statistics for factors of attitudes of Y Generation Software developers on project management issues

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Item Statistics
Factor 1 - PMO organization	.744	3	3.83
Factor 2 - Task distribution and Multi-tasking	.791	3	4.46
Factor 3 - Project management process in Project Success	.738	4	3.50
Factor 4 - Documentation process in projects	.646	5	3.22
Factor 5 – Contribution and initiative taking	.698	4	4.68
Factor 6- Acceptance of additional tasks	.829	3	3.92
Factor 7 - Working over-time in projects	.760	4	3.78
Factor 8- Reward and Promotion	.782	3	4.13

When the initial Eigen Values of these 8 components are added, it is seen that these components explain about sixty-three percent of total variance. Each component included different numbers of valid cases and summary statistics of components (Factors) are shown in Table 6. (*Items in each component is also given in Table 9 in the Appendix*)

Finally, in Table 7, Pearson Correlation (Sig.(2-Tailed) correlation analysis is conducted between the factors to test the validity of factor groups. This analysis uncovers the pattern of relationships among the factors; the interpretation of these patterns does not differ from those found for the variable correlations. In the social sciences some correlation among factors are generally expected, since behavior is rarely partitioned into neatly packaged units that function independently of one another. (Costello and Osborne, 2005). As Table 7 presents, the values of Pearson Correlation between all factors remained under 0,5, showing the validity of factor distinction. It can be seen that most of paired correlations are significant at level 0.05. But it is remarkable that some components has negative correlations:

- “Factor 5- Contribution and Initiative Taking” is negatively correlated with “Factor 3 - Project management process in Project Success” and “Factor 4 - Role of documentation process in projects”.
- “Factor 4 - Role of documentation process in projects” is also negatively correlated with “Factor 8- Reward and Promotion” and “Factor 6- Acceptance of additional tasks”.

Table 7. Factors of Y generation software developers

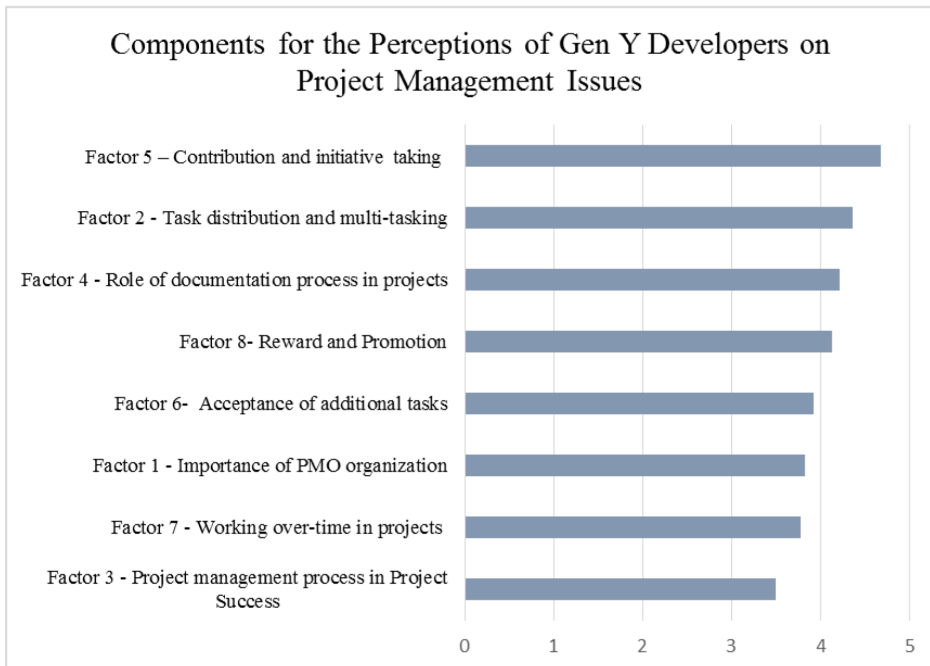
		Factor 1 - Importance of PMO organization	Factor 2 - Task distribution	Factor 3 - Project management process in Project Success	Factor 4 - Role of documentation process in projects	Factor 5 - Contribution and initiative taking	Factor 6- Acceptance of additional tasks	Factor 7 - Working over-time in projects	Factor 8- Reward and Promotion
Factor 1 - Importance of PMO organization	Pearson Correlation	1	,076	,139	,221	,089	,041	,132	,303
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,008	,002	,000	,320	,000	,000	,001
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 2 - Task distribution	Pearson Correlation	,076	1	,202	,170	,246	,380	,308	,356
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,005		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,002
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 3 - Project management process in Project Success	Pearson Correlation	,139	,202	1	,337	-,166	,433	,118	,114
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	,000		,000	,000	,177	,000	,002
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 4 - Role of documentation process in projects	Pearson Correlation	,221	,170	,337	1	-,202	,120	,174	-,136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000		,001	,001	,000	,005
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 5 - Contribution and initiative taking	Pearson Correlation	,089	,246	-,166	-,202	1	,392	,274	,236
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,320	,000	,000	,001		,131	,000	,000
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 6- Acceptance of additional tasks	Pearson Correlation	,041	,380	,433	,120	,392	1	,148	-,136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,177	,001	,131		,000	,000
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 7 - Working over-time in projects	Pearson Correlation	,132	,308	,118	,174	,274	,148	1	,124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000		,002
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Factor 8- Reward and Promotion	Pearson Correlation	,303	,356	,114	-,136	,236	-,136	,124	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,002	,002	,005	,000	,000	,002	
	N	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112

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This finding can be interpreted as the Generation Y employees who has high intentions to contribution and initiative taking are relatively less involved in project management process and documentation. As well, role of documentation in project management is less important for Generation Y employees who are relatively more concerned about reward and promotion, and who have relatively higher intentions for accepting additional tasks.

As can be seen from the Figure 7, all components have higher levels than medium. However, the component/factor that has the highest value (4,68/5 which is almost “totally agree” in the scale) is Factor 5- Contribution and Initiative Taking, that strongly supports the previous literature. It is followed by “Factor 2- Task Distribution and Multi Tasking” which is also so close to “Totally Agree” option. Importance of Reward and Recognition (Factor 8) is also considerably important for Generation Y Software Developers that were surveyed. On the other hand, Role of Documentation in projects (Factor 4) received the lowest score among all other components.

Figure 7. Expectations of Generation Y from their working environment



5. DISCUSSION

With this study, the expectations and perceptions/attitudes of Generation Y in the software industry in Turkey on project management topics are explored.

As discussed in literature, constant and constructive feedback has been a critical motivation factor for Generation Y employees (Sujansky, 2008; Tulgan, 2009; Anantamula and Shirivastav, 2012; Solomon, 2008). This research has also highlighted the “Communication” as the mostly expected characteristic of the Project Leader as well. Supporting the previous research, our study revealed that honesty, sensitiveness and leadership are among the expectations of Generation Y employees from Project Managers. However, expectations from leader from being visionary had less been scored by the respondents (Figure 2). These expectations are aligned with the characteristics of transformational leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1988) and reveal that software developer project team members expecting a “transformational” leadership in project settings.

The most important characteristic that is expected by Generation Y employees from the projects that they work in is profitable and high total contract value (Figure 3). Also in the motivation factors (Figure 4) Project Scope and Value had been the mostly chosen option. This finding is in accordance with the theoretical background that underlines that the Job Itself matters for Generation Y employees in terms of its challenges and meaningfulness. However, complex and problematic projects were not highly preferred by the respondents, opposing to the previously concluded intention of Generation Y employees for challenging work in the literature (Tulgan, 2009, Twenge et al., 2010, Anantamula and Shirivastav, 2012). An important contribution of the study can be that 1/5 of the respondents preferred to work in large teams (Figure 3).

As referred in literature, Generation Y employees has an intention to work for social impact. Hence the findings of this study on the project characteristics that Generation Y employees expect complements this as the projects including social responsibility is the second highest project type that was referred by the respondents (Figure 3).

Project Team had been one of the critical motivation factors in projects (Figure 4). This finding is also aligned with the previous research which revealed the fact that Generation Y employees are team oriented.

Benefits are not among the prior motivation factors as they are already Hygiene Factors (from Herzberg’s motivation theory). This finding is also aligned with previous research. In literature, working conditions, life balance, free-time, joy in the workplace and flexibility are among the motivation factors of Generation Y employees. Relatedly, “Time Pressure” was found to be the mostly cited challenge in the survey (Figure 5) providing evidence to the validity of these motivational

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factors. The other challenges are “High Uncertainty and Risks”, “New tasks coming out of control” and “complex contents”. In literature, Generation Y is argued to be risk averse (Beaton, 2007). Hence it can be noted that, Generation Ys who are viewing uncertainty as a challenge is supporting this idea. Similarly, tasks coming out of control can also be discussed to be related to risk perception, and corresponds with the theoretical background. However, the perception of complex contents as challenges can contradict with the idea that Generation Y employees are motivated by challenging work (Tulgan, 2009, Twenge et al., 2010, Anantatmula and Shirivastav, 2012).

Among the expectations of Generation Y professional from their working environment (Figure 6) “Friendly and Social environment” is the mostly referred expectation by the respondents of our survey. In previous research, as Sujansky (2008) indicated, Generation Y professionals prefer joy in the work place, while Solomon (2008) and Ferri-Reed (2013) underlined the Social aspect of the job as a motivator. Anantatmula and Shirivastav (2012) also referred to collaboration as a component of project environment which Generation Y looks for. In the light of these references, it can be concluded that the finding in Figure 6 is supportive to previous research. On the other hand, dress code which is one of the expectations that the respondents rated high, is among the independency and individualism symbols. Rejecting dress code and regularly discipline working environment can be discussed to be related to the previously mentioned Generation Y characteristics of expecting flexibility in work place, resistance to following directions and rigid structures in the work environment (Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009; Tulgan, 2009).

Contradicting with the findings of Anantatmula and Shirivastav (2012) revealing that Generation Y employees have a perception for they are “viewed unfavorably at workplace.” our research results show that the surveyed 52% of Generation Y employees do not intensely feel conflict between generations in the projects they work or they thing conflicts between generations can be resolved (22%) (Table 4). Another factor that define attitudes of Generation Y employees in projects is that they have an intention of working on multiple projects and tasks. This finding also contributes to the motivation factors and competencies of Generation Y as discussed in literature (“How Millennial Staff” 2009; Reisenwitz and Iyer, 2009, Anantatmula and Shirivastav, 2012; Gale, 2007; Sirias et al., 2007).

In literature, supervision is discussed to be a hygiene motivation factor of Generation Y employees and self-paced or supervision-free work are found to be among their expectations from their work. In our study, the most critical component of the Generation Y employees’ attitudes on project based work is the attitude for contribution and initiative taking. As contribution and initiative taking are strongly correlated with employee empowerment and advancement, and they are self-challenging attitudes, findings on Factor 1 in Figure 7 is in accordance with

the theoretical background. Hence initiative taking and contribution can be added as a construct of motivation in project based work environments for Generation Y employees in further practices. Though there is widely accepted view that Generation Y is not comfortable with rules and bureaucracy, surveyed Generation Y professionals agreed that the role of documentation is important in project based working environments as stated in Factor 4 in Figure 7. This finding can be discussed in the established frame of Project Management discipline which underlines the critical importance of documentation in projects as a successor and evaluation tool. In Factor 8, Reward and Promotion are presented as a critical component for Generation Y employees on project based works. This finding is linked to previously referred motivation factors of “Recognition,” “Sense of Achievement,” “Advancement” and “Status” or higher position and career satisfaction.

Additional tasks and Working over-time are not demotivating the surveyed Generation Y employees as stated in Factor 6 and Factor 7 in Figure 7. Though this finding can be discussed for supporting the Generation Y employees’ positive attitudes for multitasking or being challenged, it also seems to be conflicting with the expectations of Generation Y professionals for life balance, Free time (Barford and Hester, 2011) or time for “other things in your life,” (Twenge et al., 2010). Hence, the interrelations of these two factors with both the intrinsic motivations and the hygiene factors of job security or job stability need to be explored in further research.

Generation Y employees think that Project Management Office is very important for project management and it is not a “waste of resources”. However, in this factor one of the items was on the responsibilities of the Project Office, and some of the respondents stated that PMO roles and responsibilities are not clear. In Factor 3, the attitudes of Generation Y employees for “Project management process in project management” is explored. This component had the lowest score among other factors. Hence the attitudes of Generation Y employees on project management process seems to be neutral. It can be discussed that the project management process is not a motivating or demotivating factor for Generation Y software professionals. Summarizing the findings, Table 8 presents the classification of the studied expectations from and attitudes in projects for their being a motivator or hygiene factor or a demotivator.

6. CONCLUSION

Generation Y will form a large part of the business world in the near future. For motivating and providing the productivity of Generation Y employees, companies should develop advanced management and organization approaches and design their project management practices in accordance. As findings of our study revealed,

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Table 8. Classification of findings by their motivational factors

Motivators	Hygiene	Demotivator
self-paced or supervision-free work	Benefits	Time Pressure
working on multiple projects and tasks	Working in large teams	New tasks coming out of control and complex contents, Risk taking
Joy in the workplace	Conflict between generations	Dress code regularly discipline working de
flexibility	Documentation	Complex and problematic projects
Friendly and Social environment	Life balance, Free time	
Project Team	Job security or job stability Hygiene in Herzberg's theory- In PM Context? Need to be explored in the future research	
Social impact – Sociaş responsibility	Additional tasks and Working over-time	
Profitable and high total contract value of Projects	Project Management Process	
“Communication” constant and constructive feedback of the Project Leader Honesty of Project Leader Sensitiveness of Project Leader	Project Management Office Hygiene – when roles and responsibilities are not clear, then Demotivator	
Reward and Promotion, Sense of Achievement		
contribution and initiative taking		
Multitasking or being challenged		

Generation Y professionals have high intentions for initiative taking, decision making and contributing to projects in case that they can balance their work and life. They expect their performance to be recognized and hence they would like to be rewarded and regularly promoted. They are ready to highly contribute to the projects but it is critical to communicate the requirements to persuade them about the necessity and importance of the additional assignments and work-load. Hence planning process in projects plays the key role that can prevent project managers from taking the all responsibility of shifts in tasks and schedules during the projects. Agility and participative project implementation can provide practical roadmaps, methods for managing Gen Y project teams.

Human resources management and communication frameworks in project management have been and continue to be the determinants of success. Hence for overcoming challenges about employee motivation, empowerment and satisfaction,

new and contemporary methods and approaches that considers diversity management and equality are needed. Within these approaches, management through a multi-generational frame can be very valuable and contributive for advancing motivation and peace in the work place. We see that, there is still room for research and development in this field.

In further research, relationships between the demographics like gender, profession, education, income level or position of Generation Y professionals and their attitudes/perceptions in project management can be explored. As well, the research can be expanded to other segments of IT industry.

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APPENDIX

Table 9. Factor analysis reliability tests and item statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Item Statistics	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5
Factor 1 - Importance of PMO organization	,744	3	3,83	Project Management Office is very important for project management.	PMO is effective and not a waste of resources".	PMO roles & responsibilities are clear.		
Factor 2 - Task distribution and multi-tasking	,791	3	4,36	Like working on multiple projects	Like multi-tasking type of working	Like working on different tasks		
Factor 3 - Project management process in Project Success	,738	4	3,50	PM Standards are important:	Success of PM Process Implementation is important	Processes can be applied for all projects	I can find right PM process for my tasks	
Factor 4 - Role of documentation process in projects	,646	5	4,22	Documentation is important	Documentation must be done properly	Documentation is a waste of time	Everything should be documented systematically	Documentation must be a part of PM process
Factor 5 - Contribution and initiative taking	,698	4	4,68	I work with tasks which are not in my role definition	I want to get not only technical knowledge but also business knowledge	I want to take responsibility	I want to be a part of decision process	
Factor 6 - Acceptance of additional tasks	,829	3	3,92	I accept unwillingly just because I have to	I resist at first but I do if I have no other choice	I accept willingly all tasks because it is my job		
Factor 7 - Working over-time in projects	,760	4	3,78	I can work overtime if necessary.	I can work overtime from home.	There is no "over-time" any more as every where is a working place in software development	I can work over time if this need is caused by my in-efficiency	
Factor 8 - Reward and Promotion	,782	4	4,13	I want to get promotion for each 2 years	I want to get financial reward beside my salary	I also expect Non-financial rewards		

Chapter 13

Millennial Teamwork and Technical Proficiency's Impact on Virtual Team Effectiveness: Implications for Business Educators and Leaders

C. Matt Graham

University of Maine, USA

Harold Daniel

University of Maine, USA

Brian Doore

University of Maine, USA

ABSTRACT

The successful completion of information systems projects is already a difficult process that many times ends with projects failing to meet the information systems requirements. These requirements typically center on completing projects that perform the way initially envisioned, and delivering completed projects on time and within budget. Pressures around communication and leadership style are now compounded by the use of virtual teams. The goal of this study was to determine whether or not technical proficiency in the project-based skills, facility with database management systems development, and greater technical proficiency in coping within the virtual environment contributed to the development of greater virtual team effectiveness. This study targeted millennial students at the Maine Business School who were assigned to virtual teams tasked with developing a database management system

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within a virtual environment. Findings suggest that increased proficiencies in project skills will contribute to greater team effectiveness and more importantly, increased proficiencies within the virtual environment will contribute to greater virtual team effectiveness. These findings have implications for business educators and by natural extension, business practitioners as they suggest that training students and workers how to communicate, collaborate, exchange ideas, and share information better within virtual environments will improve virtual team effectiveness which should translate into greater virtual teams project outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, organizations are using virtual teams to accomplish business goals (Zivick, 2012). Martins, Gilson, and Maynard (2004) reported that the use of virtual teams that use technology to interact with each other across geographic, organizational, and other boundaries are becoming very common in organizations (p. 805). Not only are virtual teams used more frequently in organizations, Brandt, England, and Ward (2011) stated that firms report these teams must have the ability to be constructed rapidly and be extremely adaptable to meet each individual project's goals. Kayworth and Leidner (2000) reported that many benefits are derived from these virtual teams: cost reductions, cycle-time reductions, integration of distant members, and improved decision-making and problem-solving skills. Arguably, the significance of virtual teams is best stated by Hargrove (1998) who stated: "in the future, the source of human achievement will not be extraordinary individuals, but extraordinary combinations of people." Despite the increased use of virtual teams, they experience many of the same problems of face-to-face teams. Blackburn, Furst, and Rosen (2003) stated that there is "no guarantee that virtual teams will reach their full potential and that as many virtual teams fail as succeed in completing assigned tasks / projects. According to Marks, Sabella, Burke, and Zaccaro (2002) a few of the problems facing any team include: poor team member composition, incomplete knowledge of project goals, and poor coordination processes. As research on virtual teams continues to grow, an acknowledgement of the lack of interpersonal skills and human relations in virtual teams persists. This fact was acknowledged by Gonzales, Nardi, and Mark (2009) when they found that while collaborative technology had improved over the years through better human-computer-interaction (HCI) design, strategies that explored how to "work better" within these collaborative environments were still not adequately addressed.

Hagen (1999) posited that the problems associated with virtual teams are primarily related to the leadership abilities and the attributes of the virtual team leader. Almost 10 years after Hagen's research, Morris (2008) found that the biggest problem with virtual teams was not the technology, but rather how people were managed throughout the virtual team project. Morris stated the problem for leaders of virtual teams is that they must juggle technology, people, and tasks, while ensuring virtual teams achieve their objective. Morris suggested that members of a virtual team need to be inspired, motivated, and emotionally invested in the virtual team project. This can be difficult in virtual environments where there is little face-to-face time. While leadership has been found to contribute to the success or failure of virtual teams and collaboration technologies have definitely improved over the years, this paper asked whether or not technical proficiency also contributes to overall virtual team effectiveness. Two types of technical proficiency are associated with virtual team effectiveness. The first is the team member's proficiency with the technical skills specific to the project (e.g., database design) while the second proficiency is that team member's ability to cope with the virtual environment. Both types of effectiveness are linked to strong, documented influence on the quality of virtual project outcomes (Graham, Daniel and Doore, 2015).

Virtual Teams

Virtual teams according to Brandt, England, and Ward (2011) are made up of individuals working together who may have never met and often will not meet face-to-face during assigned projects. There are many variations of the definition of virtual teams. Virtual teams, according to Green and Roberts (2010), are geographically separated teams that have little face-to-face contact and are dependent upon computers and telecommunication technologies to communicate with each other. Martins et al (2004) developed their own definition of virtual teams as "teams whose members use technology to varying degrees in working across locational, temporal, and relational boundaries to accomplish an interdependent task" (p. 808). Martins, et al. added that virtual teams are teams first, and that the 'virtualness' is a team characteristic. Powell, Piccoli, and Ives, (2004) stated that virtual teams are "groups of geographically, organizationally, and/or dispersed workers brought together by information and telecommunication technologies to accomplish one or more organizational tasks" (2004; p. 7). Today, computing technologies are not limited to computers. Kock and Nosek (2005) stated that people working together from remote locations can also use other electronic devices for communication such as the telephone. Today, the telephone would include smart phones with texting capabilities, email, and social networks. Kock (2005) added that Internet-enabled technologies such as smart phones have made collaboration significantly more mobile. While the definition of

virtual teams varies to some degree and there are types of virtual teams that feature some face-to-face contact, most virtual teams experience problems that are unique to virtual environments.

Contributing Factors for the Success or Failure within Virtual Teams

According to Brandt et al. (2011), virtual teams have several dynamics contributing to the success or failure of their projects including:

- **Trust:** Develops from interpersonal interactions where people get to know each other (Brandt et al., 2011). In virtual teams, trust has to be established through other means when face-to-face meetings are few or not possible at all.
- **Cultural Differences:** With the absence of face-to-face interaction, cultural and language differences become more pronounced. Brandt et al. (2011) stated the unintended non-inclusive behaviors based in unstated cultural norms can be misunderstood and contribute to the lack of trust in virtual teams.
- **Communication:** Virtual teams are made possible through technology such as email, video-conferencing, and discussion threads. Brandt et al. (2011) stated the “rules of engagement” should be established for effective communication in virtual teams. Lack of rules of engagement, in terms of virtual teams combined with cultural and language issues can contribute greatly to the breakdown of successful communication ultimately contributing to failure to achieve the project’s goals.
- **Social Skills:** According to Brandt et al. (2011), expertise should not be the sole reason for assembling virtual teams. Brandt et al. stated that social skills should be considered a major prerequisite for good teamwork within virtual teams. This recommendation is based on the idea that if teams cannot establish a basis for the effective exchange of “know-how”, then performance within the virtual team will suffer.
- **Mission and Goal Clarity:** Virtual teams are much more susceptible to “diverse assumptions about the team’s mission and goals.” According to Brandt et al. (2011) effective teams develop a clear understanding of the team’s deliverables that come from discussion amongst all team members.
- **Rewards and Recognition:** According to Ruggieri (2009), traditional leaders have the ability to “encourage, reward, and motivate” employees, and those they are responsible for, through their physical presence and comments. Ruggieri also stated the physical presence of the leader in face-to-face teams provides a platform for clear recognition of the leader’s status on the team. The lack of physical presence makes rewarding team members more difficult. You can’t give someone a “pat on the back” to acknowledge a job well done. According to Brandt et al. (2011), rewarding team members in virtual teams,

distributed over a large geographic area, requires creativity. The diversity of team members possibly distributed across the globe, along with local rules, regulations, and cultural differences make a common reward system difficult to implement.

- **Time:** According to Sridhar, Nath, Paul, and Kapur (2007) the evolution of relationships among virtual team members and between team members and their leadership over time has been shown to impact the quality of outcomes from virtual team projects and team cohesiveness. While this may not be as impactful for short duration projects, this is likely to impact the quality of contributions and the quality of outcomes for longer duration projects. Research on the development of strategic alliances and consumer exchange relationships in the service sector has shown that relationships among partners in an alliance or between customer and vendor can evolve through stages, from setting up housekeeping to growth, maturity and decline over time (Kanter, 1994).

Additionally, Blackburn et al. (2003) reviewed a series of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) they considered critical for face-to-face teams and then using the scientific literature on virtual teams developed a set of KSAs required for leading and participating in virtual teams. These KSAs included several of the factors identified above such as cultural sensitivity, trust, and communication. Blackburn et al. adds other factors such as an individual's KSA: comfort with technology and technological change and other team level KSAs such as establishing team norms and team problem solving skills.

Technical Proficiencies

In the past, technical proficiency has been absent as a contributing factor in successful virtual teams. Technical proficiency is, in fact, the justification for the use of virtual teams. According to Zivick (2012), virtual teams are assembled to take full advantage of all of the firm's human resources regardless of their physical location. Zivick stated that, using virtual teams, organizations can quickly assemble staff possessing the necessary skills and knowledge to accomplish a specific task, or serve an on-going project, who may be located across large geographic areas. That said, technical proficiency today is more than just the skills required to achieve a certain goal. Venkatesh and Davis (2000) reported that "information technology adoption and use in the workplace remains a central concern of information systems research and practice." (p.186). Venkatesh and Davis went on to state that "low usage of installed systems is a major factor underlying the 'productivity paradox' surrounding lackluster returns from organizational investments in information technology."

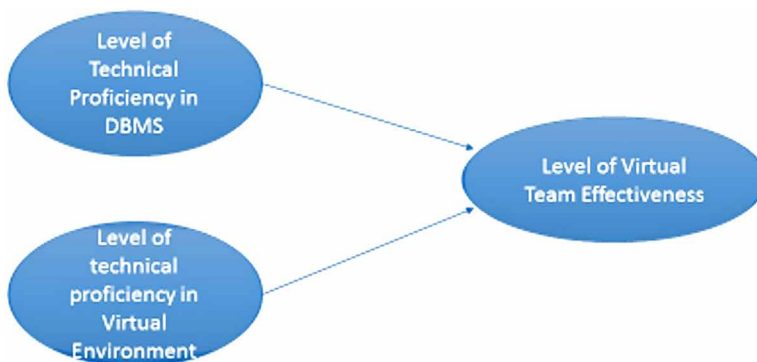
(p.186). Venkatesh and Davis stated that one dimension that they kept in their 2000 revision to the technology acceptance model (TAM), was ease of use. They found that the less effort that is required to use a system will result in increased use of the system which in turn can increase job performance. These are important points to the ongoing research on virtual teams as Kayworth and Leidner (2000) found that virtual teams will have a harder time communicating, interacting, finding shared meaning, and reach any consensus with the absence of face-to-face interaction. Powell et al. reinforced this point when they found that traditional face-to-face teams have been found to outperform virtual teams in terms of their ability to “orderly and efficiently exchange information and engage in effective planning.” (2004; p.8). These findings appear to demonstrate that communication and collaboration within the virtual environment itself is an inhibiting factor towards the successful outcome of virtual team projects. This paper posits that, along with proficiency in the project-based skills required, e.g., facility with database management systems (DBMS), greater technical proficiency in coping with the virtual environment is also a contributing factor for the development of effective virtual teams.

We, therefore, hypothesize the following. Figure 1 below shows the hypothesized relationships.

H1: Increased proficiency in projects skills (facility with DBMS) will contribute to improved virtual team effectiveness.

H2: Increased proficiency within the virtual environment will contribute to greater virtual team effectiveness.

Figure 1. Structural model used to measure technical proficiencies impact on virtual team effectiveness



STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted with sophomore students at the Maine Business School. Students worked, in randomly assigned teams, on the design and development of an MS Access DBMS within a virtual environment. The virtual environment utilized Google Apps including tools for virtual collaboration such as email, shared calendars, shared documents, and a content management system the teams developed themselves with Google Sites.

Study Sample

The sample for this study was young adult students, enrolled in an introductory management information systems class at the Maine Business School. These students are representative of the millennial generation. Millennials, also known as Generation Y are defined by Williams and Chinn (2009) as the “net Generation.” These are individuals who grew up immersed in technology. According to Bracy, Bevill, and Roach (2010), Generation Y includes people who were born anywhere between 1977 and 2003. Bracy et al. stated that a primary characteristic about the Generation Y population that distinguish them from other generations is that they are a very large segment of the population in the United States making up anywhere between 75 and 100 million people. Millennials also tend to be very “tech savvy” and are visual learners. Students were first given a description of the virtual team assignment. The assignment required teams to design and then develop a database management system within the assigned virtual environment. The virtual environment available provided to students was Google Sites combined with Google Apps which includes functions such as email, shared calendars, and video conferencing. Google Sites allowed students to work on the group / team project in a virtual environment. The virtual environment allowed students to communicate, asynchronously and synchronously; upload and download files such as word documents and database files; and collaborate on documents. Students were told at the beginning of the study they must conduct all communication within the Google Sites.

A total of 136 students were enrolled in the two sections of the BUA 235 Information Systems and Technology for Business class. The study included 26 teams made up of 5 or 6 students per team. The instructor randomly selected team leaders from the population. Team members were then randomly assigned to each team by generating a random number from 1 to 26 using MS Excel 2010's RAND function. The resulting number was used to assign every student to a team. For example, every student randomly assigned the number one was part of the team

labeled team 1, every student randomly assigned the number two was part of team 2, etc. If students dropped out during the semester, before the study was completed, team sizes were adjusted to balance team membership. In this study, however, there were no dropouts.

Why Sample Undergraduate Business Students?

Millennials are an important demographic to investigate as they are representative of the future workforce. Student performance in project based assignments has been an indicator of future work performance. For example, Cabrera, Colbeck, and Terenzini (2001) reported “collaborative learning, grounded in the assumption that the process of engaging in social conversation about a specific task or problem enhances participants’ reflectiveness and therefore, their acquisition of knowledge.” (p. 334). This collaborative learning is necessary in preparing the students for the demands of the workplace. Additionally, several instances in the research literature (Curtis and Shani, 2010, Javenpaa and Leider, 1998, Knoll and Jarvenpaa, 1998, and Johnson, Suriya, Yoon, Berrett, and LaFleur, 2002) show it is not unprecedented to use students in virtual teams’ research.

Final Sample

A total of 115 participants completed the project and data collection. Frequencies and percentages for participants’ demographic characteristics are summarized in Table 1 and 2. The average number of team members ranged from 5 to 6 with a mean of 5 ($SD = 0.57$). The majority (59.4%) of participants did not use group video conference. Twenty (35.7%) participants used Google Calendar less than once a month, and 45 participants (39.8%) checked their email a few times a week. The frequency with which the participants used Google Site tools is also summarized in Table 1 and 2.

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

At the end of the study period, team members and leaders were required to complete Lurey’s virtual teams’ survey (VTS) instrument through Qualtrics, a web-based survey tool. The VTS has been used in several research studies and has been found to be a reliable and valid instrument. In 2007 Sridhar, Paul, Nath and Kapur used principle components analysis to validate the instrument. They found the reliability of each construct to exceed .66. Lurey and Raisinghani (2001) found similar reliability coefficients for the constructs measured by the instrument.

Millennial Teamwork and Technical Proficiency's Impact on Virtual Team Effectiveness

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for participant demographic characteristics

Characteristic	N	%
Role		
Team member	93	81.0
Team leader	22	19.0
Total	115	100.0
Frequency with which Google Sites were used for exchanging...		
Group Video Conference		
Never/NA	19	59.4
Less than once a month	5	15.6
Once a month	2	6.3
Once a week	3	9.4
A few times a week	1	3.1
Daily	2	6.3
Total	32	100.0
Google Calendar		
Never/NA	8	14.3
Less than once a month	20	35.7
Once a month	13	23.2
Once a week	10	17.9
A few times a week	3	5.4
Daily	2	3.6
Total	56	100.0
Email		
Less than once a month	3	2.7
Once a month	5	4.4
Once a week	25	22.1
A few times a week	45	39.8
Daily	35	31.0
Total	113	100.0

Virtual Team Effectiveness on the VTS was measured by 29 indicators, which included measurements of Team Formation, Team Member Relations, Team Leader Processes & Attributes and Overall Performance & Satisfaction with Team Members. The items used to measure Virtual Team Effectiveness can be found in Table 3 of the Appendix. Because of the dimensionality of the dependent latent variable,

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for participant demographic characteristics (continued)

Characteristic	N	%
Instant Messaging		
Never/NA	9	20.9
Less than once a month	6	14.0
Once a month	6	14.0
Once a week	16	37.2
A few times a week	3	7.0
Daily	3	7.0
Total	43	100.0
Shared Database/Groupware		
Never/NA	2	1.9
Less than once a month	4	3.7
Once a month	26	24.1
Once a week	24	22.2
A few times a week	33	30.6
Daily	19	17.6
Total	108	100.0
Other		
Never/NA	26	43.3
Less than once a month	1	1.7
Once a month	9	15.0
Once a week	9	15.0
A few times a week	8	13.3
Daily	7	11.7
Total	60	100.0

this must be considered a formative measurement (Kock and Mayfield 2015). Our measurement is consistent with past measurements of virtual team effectiveness (Lurey and Raisinghani, 2001).

Three indicators from the VTS including training, individual reward for work efforts and team rewards for work efforts were used to measure the level of technical proficiency in the virtual environment. The items used to measure Proficiency in the Virtual Environment can be found in the Appendix. Since only two of the indicators seem redundant, we regard this as a formative measurement of the construct (Kock & Mayfield 2015). This measurement was consistent with past measurements of similar constructs (Lurey and Raisinghani, 2001).

Five indicators from the VTS were used to measure technical proficiency in DBMS. This included measurements of information sufficiency, personal challenge, opportunity for skills development, personal perception of the ability to add value to the team, and perceived confidence in the team's technical capabilities. The items used to measure Proficiency in DBMS can be found in the Appendix. Because of the breadth of dimensions of the construct, we also regard this as a formative measurement (Kock & Mayfield 2015). This measurement is consistent with past measurements of technological proficiency in the virtual environment (Prasad and Akhilesh, 2002).

Data Analysis

The resulting data was analyzed to understand whether or not technical proficiency in project-based skills and/or technical proficiency in the virtual environment contributed positively to greater virtual team effectiveness.

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics and Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modeling. Before data analysis began the data was cleaned, scored, and examined for outliers and excessive skew. The VTS scale was scored so that higher scores consistently indicated a better team experience. Before testing the hypotheses, descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, frequency and percentages, and skewness and kurtosis were calculated.

PLS-SEM (Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (WarpPLS 4.0) based on a PLS regression algorithm), was used to estimate the model. PLS-SEM offered advantages for analysis of data featuring relatively small samples as compared to Covariance Based SEM that are based on maximum likelihood algorithms. According to Kock (2011) WarpPLS is the best instrument to use due to the multivariate and complex phenomena of electronic collaboration (e-collaboration).

Limitations of the Data Analysis

Deletion of cases with missing values is a common strategy for addressing cases with missing values. It is so common that it is the default option on many statistical analysis software packages (Acock 2005). However, to avoid the loss of sample size, we instead adopted a strategy suggested by the WarpPLS 4.0 User Manual (p. 36) and substituted the mean of the respective variable¹ for addressing cases with missing values; this strategy is characterized by a long and somewhat controversial history. This treatment of missing values is known to reduce variance and increase standard error; therefore, it is thought to provide for conservative parameter estimates under the assumption that values are missing completely at random (MCAR). However,

like other methods of imputing missing values, the mean provides a placeholder in the affected cases, permitting the remaining data in the case to be retained and used in the analysis. This strategy permitted us to retain all 115 cases in the final analysis.

STUDY FINDINGS

Overall, the measurements employed to test our model demonstrate remarkable reliability and validity, with little evidence of collinearity and Simpson's Paradox.

Quality of the Measurements – Virtual Team Effectiveness

With a Cronbach's alpha of .933 and a full collinearity variance inflation factor of 2.072, which is well below the 3.3 threshold proposed by Kock (2015), we consider this to be a reliable measure of virtual team effectiveness. It features relatively low levels of vertical and lateral collinearity. Further, with strong positive loadings and positive path-correlation signs, there is no evidence of Simpson's Paradox (see the Appendix).

Quality of the Measurements – Proficiency in the Virtual Environment

With a Cronbach's alpha of .722 and a full collinearity variance inflation factor of 1.454, which is well below the 3.3 threshold proposed by Kock (2015), we consider this to be a reliable measure of technical proficiency in the virtual environment. It features relatively low levels of vertical and lateral collinearity. Again, with strong positive loadings and positive path-correlation signs, there is no evidence of Simpson's Paradox (see the Appendix).

Quality of the Measurements – Proficiency in DBMS

With a Cronbach's alpha of .695 and a full collinearity variance inflation factor of 1.608, which is well below the 3.3 threshold proposed by Kock (2015), we consider this to be a reliable measure of technical proficiency in database management software (DBMS). It also features relatively low levels of vertical and lateral collinearity. Once again, with strong positive loadings and positive path-correlation signs, there is no evidence of Simpson's Paradox (see the Appendix).

HYPOTHESES

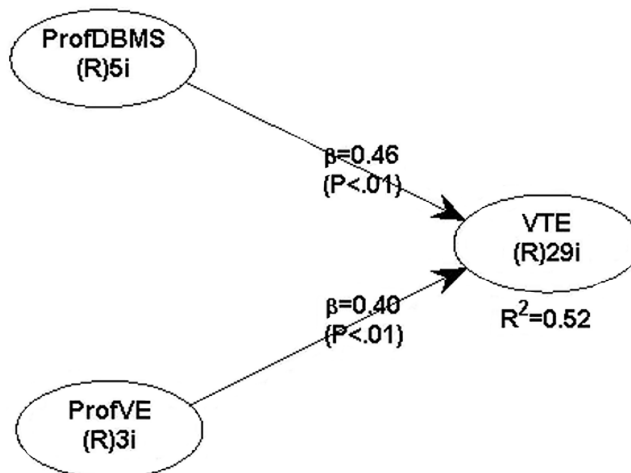
H1: Proposed that increased proficiency in project skills (DBMS skills) will contribute to improved virtual team effectiveness. The analysis of the data supports this hypothesis with a statistically significant ($p < .01$) positive path between Proficiency with DBMS skills and Virtual Team Effectiveness. A beta of .46 suggests a strong relationship among these latent variables.

H2: Proposed that increased proficiency within the virtual environment will contribute to greater virtual team effectiveness. The analysis of the data also supports this hypothesis with a statistically significant ($p < .01$) positive path between Proficiency within the Virtual Environment and Virtual Team Effectiveness. A beta of .40 suggests a strong relationship among these latent variables.

An R-square of .52 suggests that more than half of the variance in Virtual Team Effectiveness is explained by proficiency in project skills and proficiency with the environment. This is further supported by a Q-Squared measurement of .519. This is a substantial and important contribution to understanding performance in a virtual team environment.

Figure 2 below shows the findings of PLS-SEM Structural Model.

Figure 2. PLS-SEM structural model findings



DISCUSSION: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATORS AND PRACTITIONERS

These findings suggest there are implications for business education as well as business leaders and practitioners. The first implication is that business education should teach students how to work well within virtual environments. The research literature supports this statement. For example, according to Goltz, Hietapelto, Reinsch, and Tyrell (2008) business education has focused considerably on teaching problem-solving and co-located teamwork. However, these teaching areas have not been sufficient according to business leaders who have stated that while new employees are technically proficient with the skills required to complete projects, these same employees are not socially equipped to work in teams. As a result, the employees are not always able to solve everyday business problems. Goltz et al (2008) went on to say that there are other factors contributing to poor teamwork effectiveness. These include:

- College instructors emphasizing individual achievement over group achievement
- Assigning students to team projects without teaching interpersonal skills
- Using structured problems rather than the unstructured (messy) problems that are more characteristic of everyday business problems.

This is true even in computer science (CS) and information systems (IS) education, in which one might think these programs know that they need to prepare their students to work in virtual environments. Unfortunately, students are still often left wanting. Hillburn and Humphrey (2002) reported that these programs of education typically do not teach team processes and project management. This can result in a number of the information systems development failures we see coming out of businesses today such as the inability to complete projects on time, within budget, and that perform the way they were originally intended to.

These less than desirable outcomes of virtual team projects may be in part due to the fact that business education has been founded in a number of management theories that stem from the industrial age in the United States. One seminal theory is scientific management (Taylor, 1914) which advocated the careful specification and measurement of all organizational tasks and standardizing those tasks. Workers were disciplined for poor performance and rewarded for good performance. While it is still important for organizations to clearly understand their organizational tasks, in virtual teams where tasks are distributed across team members who do not work in the same time and space requires a new way of management thinking. Another seminal theory in business education, the Hawthorne study, investigated human

motivation, group dynamics, and leadership. However, at its root, the Hawthorne study demonstrated that when workers are being observed they are more productive than when they are not being observed. In virtual teams, it is not often possible observe employees as they work. In today's modern workforce that is increasingly growing more dispersed due to the use of virtual teams each of these management theories have diminished effectiveness for training students to work in teams virtually. Understanding the relationships among individuals, technology, and processes within virtual environments, whether that environment be email, video conferencing, or full-scale virtual collaboration systems, requires that researchers examine teams' degree of comfort and efficacy working with the technology. Future research on the management of virtual teams could enhance/add to new human-relation management theories. Additionally, Millennials are—and will be—working for organizations in virtual teams more so than previous generations. This is due to the simple fact that technology, in the form of computing, mobile networks, and social networks, are a relatively recent development and, while these innovative tools have become a regular attribute of how business is done today, they are still in relatively early stages of application with many older and younger employees learning how to effectively use them in a business context. So, we recommend that it is necessary for educators to train students to work in virtual environments.

Our recommendation is supported in the research literature and has implications for business leaders and practitioners as well. Rosen, Furst, and Blackburn (2006) in a survey they administered of 440 training and development professionals, found that there are sets of virtual training programs that promote high quality virtual team outcomes. Prashad and Akhilesh (2002) also reported that workers having greater technological proficiency contributed to greater virtual team effectiveness as well. We suggest from this study's findings that the combination of greater project-based skill proficiency and greater efficacy within virtual environments will improve virtual team effectiveness.

CONCLUSION

This study attempted to determine whether or not increased technical proficiency in project based skills (DBMS skills) and technical proficiency within the virtual environment would result in greater virtual team effectiveness. The study found that increased technical proficiency in both areas did increase virtual team effectiveness. These findings suggest that increasing virtual team effectiveness requires that 1) the way educators currently teach teamwork should be modified to include how to communicate, collaborate, exchange ideas, and share information better within virtual environments, and 2) scholars, academics, and practitioners should work

together to see if new management theories can be investigated and fleshed out for managing virtual teams. Incorporating one or both of these suggestions likely will result in greater virtual team effectiveness which ultimately should improve the quality of virtual team projects.

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ENDNOTE

- ¹ WarpPLS automatically substitutes the mean of the variable for missing values in the databases to which it is applied (WarpPLS 4.0 User Manual, p. 36).

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APPENDIX

Table 3. Normalized combined loadings and cross loadings

Statement	Proficiency DBMS	Prof Virtual Environment	Virtual Team Effectiveness
Level of Technical Proficiency in DBMS			
VQ4 - I received sufficient information to understand the teams purpose when I was notified about being a member of this team	0.659	-0.059	0.817
VQ 8 - I find that I am challenged by my work	0.892	0.135	-0.361
VQ 9 - my job gives me the opportunity to develop my knowledge and skills	0.902	-0.098	-0.206
VQ 10 - I am able to add value to the teams work	0.848	-0.037	-0.104
VQ 11 - when selected, team members were technically confident with the tools we use to perform our work and interact with one another	0.633	0.116	0.937
Level of Technical Proficiency in the Virtual Environment			
VQ34 - training is based on only technical skills such as using specific software applications or issues like product knowledge	0.217	0.861	-0.291
VQ35 - I am rewarded individually for my work efforts	-0.016	0.815	0.110
VQ36 - all team members are rewarded for the team reaches its goals.	-0.126	0.847	0.079
Virtual Team Effectiveness			
VQ2 - team members were asked for their suggestions for the team was originally formed	0.862	-0.101	0.671
VQ3 - careful consideration was given to the teams objectives during the design of this team	-0.001	0.081	0.774
VQ5 - my role in the team was clearly explained to me during this notification	0.348	-0.286	0.746
VQ6 - team members are quickly brought up to speed when they join the team	0.277	-0.361	0.756
VQ12 - during the teams first meeting, sometime was dedicated to discussing the team's purpose and goals	-0.042	-0.243	0.812
VQ13 - during the teams first meeting, sometime was dedicated to teambuilding exercises such as meeting individual team members creating effective team communication and/or discussing conflict resolution	0.147	-0.056	0.752
VQ14 - I rely upon other team members to complete my assigned work	-0.208	0.743	0.703
VQ15 - team members trust one another and will consult to each other if they need support	0.180	-0.133	0.752

continues on following page

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Table 3. Continued

Statement	Proficiency DBMS	Prof Virtual Environment	Virtual Team Effectiveness
VQ16 - team members experience a sense of shared goals and objectives	0.057	-0.080	0.753
VQ17 - knowledge and information sharing is understood to be a group norm within my team	0.205	-0.160	0.759
VQ21 - Time is dedicated to developing social relations as well as addressing business issues during these electronic conferences	0.403	0.151	0.696
VQ22 - the team established a trend of success early on	-0.232	-0.050	0.804
VQ23 - the team celebrates its successes	-0.322	0.417	0.732
VQ24 - team members were able to recognize our collective talents and utilize them from the beginning	-0.203	-0.257	0.846
VQ25 - team members have a shared understanding of what the team is supposed to do	-0.188	-0.102	0.810
VQ26 - team members are clear on how best to perform our work tasks	-0.062	-0.110	0.783
VQ27 - how are team has an established process for making decisions	0.222	-0.056	0.742
VQ28 - team members use their own judgment and solving problems	0.444	0.646	0.686
VQ29 - the teams leaders offer new ideas or approaches to do our jobs better	0.545	0.199	0.717
VQ30 - the teams leaders are friendly and can be easily approached	0.647	0.113	0.735
VQ31 - team members feel the teams leaders are helpful and supportive	-0.175	0.330	0.766
VQ32 - the teams leaders make sure team members have clear goals to achieve	-0.283	0.421	0.763
VQ33 - the teams leaders keep individuals working together as a team	-0.295	0.486	0.747
VQ43 - overall, the team has been effective in reaching its goals	-0.384	0.061	0.814
VQ44 - when the team completes its work, it is generally on time	-0.126	-0.029	0.777
VQ45 - there is respect for individuals in the team	0.172	-0.171	0.774
VQ46 - I feel my input is valued by the members of the team	0.397	-0.134	0.731
VQ47 - the team member morale is high in the team	-0.285	0.182	0.768
VQ48 - I enjoy being a member of this team	-0.392	0.095	0.811

Note: Loadings are unrotated and cross-loadings are oblique-rotated, both after separate Kaiser normalizations.

Section 5

Youth Employment

Chapter 14

Youth Employment

Şenol Öztürk
Kirkklareli University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Youth employment has been a challenge with gradual acceleration from beginning of 1990s. It also has been exacerbated by latest global crises. Besides, as a fact mutually having a fostering relation with it, increasing rate of inactive population among the youth has caused to soar worry about the matter. Although youth unemployment is a common problem for developed and developing countries, it differs in these countries in terms of formation, intensity and solution way. In two decades countries around the world have implemented particular policies against the matter accordance to action plans prescribed by international organizations such as ILO, OECD and EU. Even though, there has been some partial improvements as a result of economic and labour market policies, there is a long way to solve the problem significantly and to decrease the anxiety down to reasonable level. Therefore, the countries must continuously monitor and analyze their conditions and create integrated policies suited to socio-economic conjuncture.

INTRODUCTION

By the effect of the economic growth without employment, employment matter of those firstly entering market has been getting challenge in the context of high and structural unemployment. Unfortunately, the youth¹ labour markets in most countries were substantially affected during the recent global financial. ILO projections of youth unemployment rate show that in most regions, the youth unemployment rate keep its upward trend between 2007-2017 and today, employment matter is maybe most significant challenge for youth policy around the world.

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Along with the open unemployment, increasing inactivity rate among the youth is another source of unrest. Inactivity rate - the share of youth neither in employment nor in education and training – the so-called NEET rate has increased because of problems in labour markets and worse economic progress.

Youth employment problems have various dimensions and can be manifested in different ways such as difficulty in making the transition from education to the labour market, underemployment, or working in jobs with low earnings, losing job in a crisis. Skills mismatch on youth labour markets has become a persistent and growing trend. These challenges are related to mainly the quality and relevance of education, labour market regulations, transition school-to-work policies in general and with lack of cooperation and coordination among different stakeholders.

Unemployed youth has been called “a lost generation”: not only because of productivity loss but also because of the long-term impact of young people’s employment opportunities for future welfare consequences. Especially for countries which are in the stage of demographic window of opportunity, youth employment is uniquely important.

The economic and social costs of unemployment and widespread low-quality jobs for young people continue to rise and undermine economies’ growth potential. By virtue of importance of the matter, international organizations such as OECD, ILO and WB have prepared comprehensive reports on the matter. Accordingly, all over the world, remedying policies and practices towards youth unemployment has been carried out.

This chapter aims to explain; features and causes of youth employment in developing and developed regions, approaches of international and supranational organizations towards the matter, policies and programs for solutions which have been implemented.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Today generation of youth has been the largest size in human history, with 1.2 billion aged 15-24 years and with 1.8 billion including 25-29 ages, approximately 85-90% of them in developing countries (WB, 2015, 31; UN, 2015, 1; ILO, 2013, 1) and its nearly 500 million around the world were unemployed, underemployed, or engaged in insecure employment in 2014 (WB, 2015, 44).

After global youth unemployment rate steadily increased between 1992 and 2002 from 11,1% to 13,2%, it had a recovery term till onset of economic crises in 2007 by reaching rate of 11,6% (ILO, 2011, 2; ILO, 2013, 8). After the period of

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rapid increase between 2007 and 2010, the global youth unemployment rate settled at 13.0% for the period 2012 to 2014 and is expected to increase only to 13.1% in 2015, remaining still above its precrisis rate in 2007 (ILO, 2015b, 16).

Between 1991 and 2014, while the overall youth population grew by 185 million, the number of the youth labour force has declined by 29.9 million resulting youth labour force participation rate declined from 59.0 to 47.3% (ILO, 2015b, 3) due to some reasons such as increased school attendance, the tendency of remaining in the education system for a longer period, high overall unemployment rates, and giving up hope of finding work and dropping out of the labour market (DESA, 2005, 16).

However, decline in employment to population rates during this time is much stronger because of rising unemployment and numbers of youth not in employment, education or training (the NEETs) in many OECD countries. But during this process, increase occurred mainly in the share of *unemployed* NEETs, while shares of *inactive* NEET youth who are neither in employment, education or training nor registered as jobseeker, typically remained stable or even declined. The number of NEET youth aged between 16 and 29 years increased by 2.5 million (+7%), to 38.4 million (about 13% OECD average) in the OECD area between 2007 and 2012. But it has been decreased in most developed countries, for example in European Union (EU-28) started to decline from the peak of 13.1% in 2012 to 12.4% in 2014 (Carcillo, Fernández, Königs, & Minea, 2015, 8-16; ILO, 2015b, 12; OECD, 2014, 102).

It is really upsetting situation to gain limited achievement in youth employment as the number of unemployed and share in total the global unemployment, despite of decrease in labour force participation rates, and in accordance with share of youth in global population as one-sixth (DESA, 2005, 16; ILO, 2015b, 1-16).

In 2012 the number of youth in employment, with average 9% decline, dropped below the figure of 2007 in most OECD countries. This decline affected most severely individuals with low educational qualifications. On the contrary, increase of youth employment in some countries such as Australia, Luxembourg and Mexico was driven entirely by increases in medium- and high-educated employment. These developments indicate that the burden of the economic the crisis fell disproportionately on low-educated youth. (Carcillo, at all., 2015, 16-18).

Despite of the increase in the share of youth labour force having tertiary education since 2007 in 26 out of 30 countries for which data are available, projections show youth unemployment rate will increase up to 13,2% until 2018 with increasing regional disparities as some improvement in developed economies and increase in other regions (ILO, 2015, 21; ILO, 2015b, 17).

Globally, the ratio of youth to adult unemployment rates has hardly changed over time and stood at 2.9 in 2014 (ILO, 2015, 11; ILO, 2015b, 17). But there is heterogeneity across regions. While this ratio is around 2 in Sub-Saharan Africa, it exceeds 5 in South-East Asia and the Pacific regions (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 4).

In addition, during the period of economic crisis long term unemployment (12 months or longer) has also reached about 34,1% in EU28 region, 48,1% Sub-Saharan Africa, 60,1% in North Africa and Middle East in 2012-2013 term according to surveys by ILO and Eurostat (ILO, 2015b, 34).

Before the economic crisis some improvements has been observed on youth labour market conditions in most OECD countries for a decade, however there was still vulnerability of youth to unemployment with high incidence of temporary and part time works (Scarpetta, Sonnet&Manfredi, 2010, 10-11)

Route from formal education to the labour market has been also getting protracted, complicated and – in some cases – fractured, especially for those having social disadvantages due to class, gender and ethnicity (Evans, 2010, 7) and most of the youth in vicious circle that young people with little or no work experience have low chances of finding a job and this situation has been increasing the numbers of NEET youth (Carcillo, et. al, 2015, 14).

Earnings are also adversely affected by the crises and global competitive environment. In most countries; the youth population continues to suffer the effects of austerity measures against the crises, eventhough the outlook for youth entering the labour market now looks slightly more positive in comparison to five years ago (ILO, 2015b, 2).

Temporary contracts can often be seen a stepping stone to more stable employment for those with limited skills and experience. However, if employment protection regulations and social security coverage differ substantially between permanent and temporary contracts, this situation can create a segmented labour market (OECD, 2013, 4) so that many low-skilled youth get locked into such jobs or leave the labour market in practice, especially women (OECD & ILO, 2014, 7) and they has only short-term work and unemployment as alternative through working life (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 40).

As a result many young people should work in jobs many of which are subsistence, with low wages and a higher probability to be laid off without compensation (ITU, 2014, 4). According to some studies, new entrants graduating in a recession commence work with lower pays and only gradually can get rid of this negative wage effect and manage to increase their pays for more than a decade because of cost pressure on pay rates for less skilled youth and on traditional provisions of youth training schemes (Matsumoto, Hengge & Islam, 2012,1; SIOP, 2014, 24).

In addition to the economic crisis, a troubling trend of skills mismatch has been persistent and growing trend in youth labour markets and this situation has multiple implications for youth, especially renders the employment solutions more difficult to find. 2012 year survey of McKinsey Centre for Government exhibit situation of skill mismatch by pointing that only 43% of employers in analyzed countries could find employees with the right skills (ITU, 2014, 5; ILO, 2013, 1).

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According to OECD Survey of Adult Skills, a substantial proportion of young people in all of the countries surveyed are overqualified in their jobs or not working in jobs corresponding with their education. This skill mismatch is not just confined to advanced countries but is also a major challenge for emerging economies (OECD & ILO, 2014, 8-9).

Similar to above situation, some studies pointed out that today developed countries has been experienced polarization of labour markets by missing medium-skilled jobs so that in these countries proportion of jobs requiring medium-level qualifications has fallen while the demand for high-skilled jobs as well as for low-skilled has increased and young people have been forced to seek entry into low-skilled jobs (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 8).

In relation to skills mismatch, there is a worrisome development in youth employment after economic recession that advantage of education for employment is vanishing and today there may no difference between employment level of those with greater tertiary education than their less well educated counterparts (SIOP, 2014, 6).

DETERMINANTS OF YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT

In the literature, there are three main groups of determinants for youth unemployment, as economic variables, demographic variables and institutional factors.

Firstly, economic variables, such as GDP growth rate and aggregate demand level have an enormous effect on unemployment, alas these factors have an influence on youth unemployment to a much bigger extent (Scarpetta et al., 2010, 4; Lee, 2000, 352; Solow, 2000,12; Condratov, 2014, 125).

Although there is a strong correlation between youth unemployment and adult unemployment, the former is usually more sensitive to business cycles than the latter due to especially having disproportionately temporary jobs and their high concentration in certain cyclically-sensitive industries such as tourism (Scarpetta et al., 2010, 14). This major difference renders youth population more vulnerable to big crises such as the global financial crisis of 2008-09.

For example in EU while increase rate of youth unemployment was 2,9% between 2008 and 2010, this rate was only 1,2 for adults (Matsumoto et. al, 2012, 3). The rise in youth unemployment tends to be more than adult unemployment especially during times of recession and it has been estimated that 1% increase in adult unemployment will be matched by 2% rise in youth unemployment (DESA, 2004, 62).

In the face of an economic turmoil and shrinking aggregate demand, companies almost invariably try to decrease their costs by firing now-redundant employees and wages are likely to possess an adverse impact on youth employment because

higher wages make cost of youth labour force higher with respect to those of adults and promote more adult employment (O'Higgins, 1997, 28). More often than not, younger employees have fewer skills and experiences than older employees. So firing younger employees than older ones during a crisis is cheaper. In addition, companies decelerate or even stop recruitment process in a recession, which hits young people disproportionately, because almost invariably, most of the job-seekers in the economy are young people (O'Higgins, 2001: 41).

Secondly, demographic variables such as the size of youth labour force are another main factor allegedly affecting youth unemployment rates. Countries with a higher share of youth population and hence youth labour force should supply enough young people with jobs in order to accommodate them. On the other hand, younger people tend to have fewer skills and job experience relative to adult people and this renders them less favorable to the needs of the economy and hence of the employers.

In accordance with this, a study investigated 15 OECD countries found that there was a negative effect of cohort size on youth unemployment and also on wage levels. The study estimated that 10% increase in the youth population in a country will result in 5% points higher youth unemployment rate (Korenman and Neumark, 1997, 7).

Mismatches between education and skills for market are regarded as chief reason for the youth unemployment (WB, 2015, 34). Generally, the educational systems in developing countries cannot provide the appropriate labour qualifications needed by the formal market. This mismatch may generate a lengthy process to get a good job and limit the youth to informal market (Coenjaerts Ernst, Fortuny, Rei & Pilgrim, 2009, 125).

Also, the expansion of higher education has caused more graduates try to get into the labour market resulting the competition between graduates for appropriate jobs has become very intense (Koskinen, 2010, 21).

Thirdly, institutional factors such as employment protection legislations (EPLs), minimum wage, severance pay and unemployment benefits can have an effect on youth unemployment rates in excess of adult unemployment rates due to different characteristics of the youth employment.

For example, EPLs seems not to have an effect on total unemployment level (Bassanini & Duval, 2006: 46). On the other hand, there is robust evidence that EPLs does have an effect on youth unemployment rates. According to OECD (2006, chapter 7), EPLs influences the distribution of unemployment within labour force, rather than overall unemployment level. That is, while stronger EPLs mean lower unemployment rate for older people, they refer higher unemployment rate for younger people. In addition, factors such as high taxes and high unemployment benefits seem to affect both youth and adult unemployment levels.

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By using IMF database on labour market regulations across countries, some studies offers a thesis that labour market regulations such as minimum wages and severance pay constitute an impediment to job creation for young people. But another study by ILO represents that the impact of employment protection legislation on employment is rather weak and mixed and there is also not a linear relationship between labour market regulations and employment because both lax regulations and excessive regulations can lead to poor employment outcomes (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 9-10).

Although, recent evaluations do not provide a clear indication about the impact of labour law rules protecting against termination on young workers and some recent studies have even challenged this (Coenjaerts et al., 2009, p.125).

However, youth workers are more prone to institutional factors and labour market inefficiencies than adult workers in reality, and today there has been a great political and social consensus about this attribution so that, in many European countries labour market reforms have been implemented and even 40 ILO member countries have reduced their standard employment protection levels and 83% of anticrisis reforms in central and Southern European countries are aimed employment protection (Tiraboschi, 2014, 5-6).

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IN DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Youth employment is a global challenge for all countries but causes and solutions of the matter differ in developed and developing countries. Also, effect of crises has been different for these countries.

Developed Countries

Along with the financial crises, most developed countries have implemented the fiscal austerity programmes subsequent to stimulus packages to cope with the negative aggregate demand shock since 2009 and these austerity measures appear to caused significant slump in GDP growth and increased youth unemployment (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 3-5).

Although, in developed economies, the youth unemployment rate decreased from 18.0% to 16.6% over 2012 and 2014 period, it increased from 15.6% to 21.6% between 2007-2014 at the European level (ILO, 2015b, 1-7; Eurofound, 2015, 9). However, there is a wide variation in the youth unemployment rate among european states, ranging in April 2015 from 7.2% in Germany and 10.0% in Austria to 49.6% in Spain and 52.5% in Greece (Eurofound, 2015, 19-20).

But it should be noticed that low levels of youth unemployment in more developed countries can be regarded as a result of extended participation in education (DESA, 2004, 61) and falling participation rates among young people are related to discouragement due to longer job search periods by effect of the crisis (ILO, 2015, 19).

However, NEET youth is one of the main challenges in developed countries. The NEET population aged 15–24 has increased considerably from 10.9% in 2007 to 12.4% in 2014 across the EU, due to mainly an increase in youth unemployment (Eurofound, 2015, 17). While the OECD average was 12.8% in 2010, In Japan and the United States, NEET rates were 9.7 and 15.6% respectively (ITU, 2014, 7).

In many industrialized countries, today while more young people take up temporary work in combination with education, most young people, especially young women, are employed in the service sector and most young people work in the low-tier services characterized by poor working conditions and insecurity (DESA, 2004, 56). And evidence shows that a significant part of the increase is involuntary rather than by choice (ILO, 2013, 4). This situation indicates that quality of youth employment has declined in developed countries. Among OECD countries there has been a long-term trend toward more part-time employment among youth and rate of employed youth worked less than 30 hours per week increased from 20.7% in 2000 to 30.1% in 2013 (ILO, 2015b, 39-40).

In industrialized countries, more than 50% of young people obtain university degrees as a result of the growth in educational participation, and the demand for educated workers lags far behind the supply of professional and high-level technical jobs, so they are forced to accept inferior forms of employment (DESA, 2004, 56).

European Social Survey, 17 of 19 countries with data available in 2010 or 2012 showed an increasing trend in overeducation and decreasing trend of undereducation however it is more prevalent than overeducation (ILO, 2015b, 35).

Central and South-East Europe (non EU) and the Confederation of Independent States (CIS) indicated reduction in youth unemployment rates between 2012 and 2014 from %17.4 to 17.2% (ILO, 2015b, 21).

ILO estimate that youth unemployment rate for Central and South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) and the CIS region is 16,9% in 2015 year and will increase again up to 17,1% till 2019 (ILO, 2015, 39).

In Central and Eastern Europe working age population has been shrinking due to emigration and poor health conditions, but at same time, both there are not enough jobs for young university graduates and there is high and unmet demand for technicians and for skilled blue-collar workers (ITU, 2014, 9).

Also, in most emerging G20 countries, it has been the fundamental challenge to improve the quality of work for the bulk of young people who are underemployed or in poor quality and low-paid jobs in the informal economy (OECD & ILO, 2014, 3).

Developing Countries

Although the developing world in general did not suffer recession during 2008-2009 as far as developed countries and quickly recovered their growth deceleration, and this situation is regarded as a reason of fast decline in the youth unemployment rate in some developing regions (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 3). But, youth employment has been bigger challenge for these countries than developed ones because of huge young population.

While education enhances opportunities for decent job prospects, in a number of developing countries, many educated young people remain unemployed due to mostly two key factors. Firstly there is an inappropriate matching of university degrees with demand occupations. Because training in areas such as engineering and the physical sciences, which require more sophisticated equipment and technology, are too costly, there is short of labour in these fields, but contrary there is an overabundance of labour graduated from social sciences. The second factor is the lack of regular jobs in the formal economy (DESA, 2004, 59).

In these regions, labour market institutions, including social protection, are weak, so large numbers of young people face major challenges regarding the quality of available work such as irregular employment and informality (ILO, 2013, 1). Many of informal sector jobs are subsistence in Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, and Latin America. For example, sub-Saharan Africa has a youth unemployment rate close to 11%, but three out of four workers are in the informal sector which do little to contribute to an individual's well-being and a country's economic development (ITU, 2014, 4).

In Latin America and the Caribbean, youth unemployment declined between 2010 to 2014 from 15.4 to 13.4% (ITU, 2014, 8; ILO, 2015b, 21) and ILO estimates it as 14,2% in 2015 year and to be decreased only at 14,0% till 2019.

Youth are more likely to be employed informally with rate of 56% of young workers and suffer difficulties in transitions from school to work life which is caused by inadequacies in the educational system (ILO, 2015, 42).

While it is important for increasing the odds of obtaining a decent job to complete a high quality secondary education, about 89% of young people begin secondary education, but less than one-half complete it in the region (ITU, 2014, 8).

In Asia, the youth unemployment rate is lower than in other regions and the rate increased as sub-regions, between 2012 and 2014 in East Asia from 10.1% to 10.6%, South-East Asia and the Pacific from 12.7% to 13.6%. There was no change in rates in South Asia with 9.9% (ILO, 2015b, 7-21)

ILO estimate that youth unemployment rate for East Asia countries is 10,8% in 2015 year and to be increased up to 11,7% till 2009 and this rates are %13,6 and %13,5 for South-East Asia and the Pacific region; 10,1% and 11,3% for South Asia respectively (ILO, 2015, 44-46-50).

Young Asians are employed largely in informal sectors and face high poverty levels. About 24% of working youth are under poverty line, their 70% are engaged in agricultural sector (ITU, 2014, 10).

In South Asia, substantial part of employment is in agriculture sector but its rate has been declining. And over the next five years, already high youth unemployment will be aggravated by the effect of those coming from shrinking agriculture sector (ILO, 2015, 49).

The youth unemployment rate between 2012 and 2014 increased in the Middle East from 27.6% to 28.2% and in North Africa from 29.7% to 30.5% (ILO, 2015b, 21). North Africa and Middle West African countries have differences in their economic and employment figures in terms of being oil exporters or importers. Despite North African countries have potential for growth, unemployment rates and youth unemployment remain amongst the highest around the world due to instability problem as a result of the Arab Spring (SIOP, 2014, 8).

ILO estimate that overall youth unemployment rate for Middle East and North Africa is 29,8% in 2015 year and to be increased up to 29,9% till 2019 with relative stability in North Africa (ILO, 2015, 52; ILO, 2015b, 21).

The Middle East has the largest 15 to 24 year-old cohort with 21% in the world, but likewise has too high unemployment rate. Also informal employment is about 67% of the workforce in the region and higher than other middle income regions (ITU, 2014, 8).

Furthermore, flow of Syrian refugees affects local labour markets in Lebanon and Jordan by increasing informality and deteriorating wage levels and working conditions.

Skills mismatch is another key structural problem in labour markets of the region. According to ILO, undereducation in employment is more prevalent than overeducation in a number of countries and the public sector is often one of the largest employers of workers with higher educational attainment (ILO, 2015, 52).

Sub-Saharan Africa has comparatively lower youth unemployment rate decreasing between 2012 and 2014 from 12.1% to 11.6% and large variances such as South Africa, Namibia and Reunion with more than rate of 50% (ITU, 2014, 10; ILO, 2015b, 21).

ILO estimate that youth unemployment rate for Sub-Saharan Africa is 11,8% in 2015 year and to be stabilized at this rate till 2019 (ILO, 2015, 55).

Despite the low unemployment rate, Sub-Saharan Africa has chronically lowest educational attainment in the world and key challenges as the quality of work and the informal economy (SIOP, 2014, 8).

Accordingly, sub-Saharan Africa 61.4% of young workers is undereducated in terms of needed skills in labour market. Undereducation can have a severe impact not only on labour productivity but also on the wages of the young workers (ILO,

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2015b, 36). As a result, working poverty and vulnerable employment the highest across all regions and nearly eight out of ten employed persons is in vulnerable forms of employment. (ILO, 2015, 54) and the region has highest working poor rate with approximately 40.1% in 2012 (ITU, 2014, 10).

Comparison of Developed and Developing Countries

Despite most advanced and developing countries some quantitative similarities in youth employment and share same objectives concerning youth employment, whereas there are important differences in terms of the qualitative features of employment among them and challenges in labour markets of these countries are somewhat different due to several structural reasons such as demographic, educational and labour market conditions (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 9; SIOP, 2014,9).

Therefore, measuring performance of youth employment only by unemployment rates probably hides positive and negative differences between developed and developing countries. So, evaluation should be complemented by under-employment, informality, irregularity and inactivity indicators. For example in 2011 youth unemployment rates were similar around 10% or less in Germany, Mexico and India, but reasons behind low unemployment rates in these countries are rather different. While Germany achieved this rate with smooth school-to-work transitions through apprenticeship training and the limited impact of the recent crisis on usage of short-time work schemes, rates in Mexico and India are significantly result of under-employment and very poor income-support systems for the unemployed (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 11).

Developed countries with longer average years of schooling tend to have lower youth unemployment rates and higher employment-to-population ratio. But low and middle income countries with longer average years of schooling tend to have higher youth unemployment rates (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 8).

In more developed countries, education is often represented as the best way for young people to break out of deterministic inequality cycles across the generations in comparison to less developed countries where educated young people are more vulnerable to unemployment rather than uneducated ones, as there is insufficient demand for skilled labour (Evans, 2010, 7; DESA, 2004, 63). With some exceptions, duration of school to work transition in developing countries is generally longer than developed countries (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 17-19).

While developed countries are characterized by regular employment, developing countries described by irregular employment in informal jobs, with implications for vulnerability and salary high poverty levels for young people (SIOP, 2014,9; ILO, 2013, 4).

In most low-income countries, 72.5% of young workers in irregular employment as 66.3% were in vulnerable employment as either own-account workers or contributing unpaid family workers and 4.3% were in casual paid labour and 2.1% in temporary non-casual labour. And 37.8% of employed youth in the developing world were living on less than US\$2 per day as working poor in 2013, because of the irregularity of work and lack of formal employment and social protection (ILO, 2015b, 2-51).

However, low employment rates in advanced countries are result of high educational enrollment and temporary jobs are the main source of precariousness for youth in these countries (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 20-21).

Matter of skills mismatch is also valid for both developed and developing countries, but undereducation more serious for developing countries than developed ones. In low income countries 63,9% of young workers are undereducated and only 4,8% overeducated in 2012-13 years, while in upper middle income countries 22,5% of young workers are undereducated and 19,6% overeducated. These rates are 22,8% and 12,8% for 19 European countries (ILO, 2015b, 36).

POLICIES OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS FOR YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

European Union

For nearly three decades, general and youth employment issues have been most important agenda of EU social policy since EU employment strategy.

As the youth employment is important element of the European employment strategy, member states must develop preventive and employability-oriented strategies including employment options for every unemployed young person in the form of training, retraining, work experience, a job or some other employability measure such as developing entrepreneurship in accordance with call of the European Council since 1999. (Nowaczek, 2010, 161).

For youth employment challenge, The White Paper – A New Impetus for European Youth (2001) and the European Youth Pact (2005) are key documents of the European Union. Also, young people are an integral part of the Lisbon Strategy (2000), which proposed to give young people a first chance in life and equip them with the skills needed throughout their lives according to The European Commission (Evans, 2010, 7).

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In 2005, the spring European Council adopted the European Youth Pact calling upon the European Union and member states to envisage several actions for promoting youth employment. Following the adoption of the European Youth Pact, the European Commission has established mechanism of structured dialogue and the European Youth Forum for governance of youth related issues since 2006.

The spring 2007 European Council declared that member states should use the European Pact for Youth to achieve the aim of young people's better integration and incorporation of the youth dimension into national implementation of the Lisbon Strategy at all levels was crucial in order to achieve the aims of the Lisbon Strategy for growth and jobs (Nowaczek, 2010, 159-165-166)

To prevent the lifelong exclusion of youth, EU planned the European Youth Strategy 2010–2018. One of the eight goals of the Youth Strategy is to provide educational and labour market opportunities for young people as the key pathway to achieve employability and social inclusion for young people. with emphasis on promoting youth employment, EU have also initiated similar initiatives such as the Youth Opportunities Initiative 2011, Youth Employment Package 2012 and Youth Employment Initiative 2013 (Eurofound, 2015, 6).

In 2010, the Commission launched the Youth on the Move flagship initiative (2010–2014) under the Europe 2020 strategy. This policy initiative contained four main lines of action as lifelong learning; promoting higher education; promoting mobility; and improving the employment situation of young people. In 2012 'Your first EURES job' initiative (an online job portal) and in 2011 the Youth Opportunities Initiative (YOI) were launched. YOI initiative focused a set of measures towards preventing early school-leaving, developing skills relevant for the labour market, fostering first work experiences and promoting on-the-job training.

Same year, as subtitle of EU Employment Package, The European Commission announced the Youth Employment Package 2014–2020 containing several measures such as The Youth Guarantee, Quality Framework for Traineeships, European Alliance for Apprenticeships and Integrated Mobility Plan for Young People (EURES) (Eurofound, 2015, 29-30).

As central program of Youth Employment package - European Youth Strategy, The Youth Guarantee was endorsed in April 2013 and each country commenced its implementation in early 2014. The Youth Guarantee is an initiative which seeks to ensure that all young people under 25 receive a good quality offer of employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship within four months of leaving formal education or becoming unemployed (OECD & ILO, 2014, 10; Eurofound, 2015, 6-37).

Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development

OECD developed its Skills Strategy report in 2012 providing a systematic and comprehensive approach to skills policies to help countries understand more about how to invest in education and training to equip all young people with relevant skills. It tends to help countries to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their existing national skills systems and develop policies that can transform better skills into better jobs, economic growth and social inclusion (OECD, 2013, 7; OECD, 2012, 13).

OECD prescribed OECD Action Plan for Youth towards strengthening effective measures to improve youth employment for short and long terms in 2013.

The OECD Action Plan for Youth consists of following key elements such as inflating aggregate demand and boosting job creation, providing adequate income support to unemployed youth, expanding cost-effective active labour market measures, removing demand-side barriers to the employment of low-skilled youth, promoting quality apprenticeship and internship programmes, developing quality of education system and providing relevant skills, strengthening vocational education and training, facilitating the transition from school to work and reshaping labour market policy and institutions to facilitate access to employment (OECD, 2013, 1-3).

International Labour Organization

Following the global economic and financial crisis a “Call for action” on youth employment was adopted at Conference of 2012, in order to intensify on the need to assist youth at risk and on the costs of inaction (ILO, 2015b, 4-6).

The “Call for Action” contains guiding principles and a comprehensive set of conclusions describing policy measures that can guide constituents in shaping national strategies on youth employment. The five policy areas to shape action on youth employment are: (1) employment and economic policies; (2) education and training; (3) labour market policies for disadvantaged youth; (4) entrepreneurship and self-employment; and (5) labour rights (ILO, 2015b, 63).

United Nations

According to United Nations, if today’s youth do not have a means of employment, they will not be able to get rid of poverty by 2030 or reach their full potential, therefore it gave priority youth employment in its Sustainable Development Goals with two goal clauses as firstly, ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all and secondly promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all (WB, 2015, 4-5).

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In September 2014, the High-level Committee on Programmes of the UN set the groundwork for an umbrella initiative, “The Global Initiative on Decent Jobs for Youth”, that aims to enhance policy coherence, including through stronger coordination and multi-stakeholder partnerships, with a view to supporting member states in achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. More specifically, the Initiative, led by the ILO and involving another 18 UN entities in its initial phase, envisages to: (i) engage stakeholders and world leaders in high-level policy action; (ii) expand and scale up context-specific interventions at the national and regional levels; (iii) pool existing expertise and enhance knowledge development and dissemination on what works for youth employment; and (iv) leverage resources from existing facilities and mobilizing additional resources (ILO, 2015b, 76).

In 2014, Solutions for Youth Employment (S4YE) as a multistakeholder coalition-partnership was launched by leadership of the World Bank Group. In order to significantly increase the number of young people in productive work by 2030, it seeks to develop innovative solutions through practical research and active engagement with public, private, and government stakeholders to enable solutions with an evidence-based advocacy platform (WB, 2015, 37; ILO, 2015b, 76).

SOLUTION POLICIES FOR INCREASING YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

Unemployment and inactivity among youth several effects with economic, social and individual dimensions.

One of these effects is waste of human resources in short term and increase burden of social security in long term. Underutilized young people cause significant cost on economic efficiency because both the national workforce is not being used fully in short term and this situation can induce a vicious circle of intergenerational poverty and social exclusion in long term. Also lack of employment opportunities may result in social conflicts and high social costs (Coenjaerts, Ernst, Fortuny, Rei & Pilgrim, 2009, p.120) such as street crime, gangsterism, prostitution and armed conflict (DESA, 2004, 67).

Unemployment in early working life can create long-lasting unfavorable outcomes for labour market (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 7) and long term implications for well-being and increases the risk of unemployment later in life by negatively effecting human capital accumulation (SIOP, 2014,15).

Also, young people can rapidly display reaction against economic and social situation and problems such as inequality, low wages and high joblessness and so, social unrest becomes particularly high in countries where male youth unemployment is widespread (ILO, 2015, 30) and it has been argued that the large numbers of unemployed and idle youth may challenge order and stability in society (DESA, 2005, 17).

Nevertheless, it is predicted that growth rate of the world economy will be below the trends that preceded the global crisis in 2008 and it will be a great challenge to lower unemployment to pre-crisis levels. Accordingly, global unemployment is expected to increase by 3 million in 2015 and by a further 8 million in the following four years. It is estimated that if new entrants during the next five years are considered, an additional 280 million jobs need to be created by 2019 to close the global employment gap (ILO, 2015, 11).

Therefore, it is most crucial to combat this challenge for governments. They have taken serious policy measures to improve employment prospects for youth consisting of different policy areas such as income support, covering aggregate demand, skill development, active labour market programmes² (ALMPs) and the promotion of job creation and social inclusion, strengthening vocational education, and expanding quality apprenticeship programmes (OECD & ILO, 2014, 9).

First measure taken by the governments against unemployment becomes passive financial support programs. Although social protection systems are complex and benefit eligibility rules vary widely across countries³, income-support programmes, in the form of unemployment benefits, social assistance, family benefits or housing allowances, have played a crucial role for reducing poverty, particularly among low-skilled youth in many OECD countries. While one year of work experience generally entitles to unemployment insurance with different benefit durations, in most countries, young people are not eligible to unemployment benefit because they have recently entered the labour market and not made any contribution to the unemployment insurance and some of these countries offer unemployment assistance to those who cannot benefit from unemployment insurance and are without family support (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 13 ; Carcillo, et al., 2015 37-39).

Statistics from OECD countries over the period from 2000 to 2007 and also 2007-2009 crisis period reveals a noticeable correlation between labour market expenditures and youth employment. Accordingly, while higher expenditure on ALMPs such as training and apprenticeship and passive expenditures on unemployment benefits are associated with substantially higher employment rates for young people, there is also negative correlation between both active and passive measures and duration of youth unemployment, even during the global economic and financial crisis of 2007-2009 (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 20-21).

The youth employment crisis will not be overcome without stronger employment growth, so boosting demand and GDP growth is a common target both developed and developing countries by building markets, removing infrastructural bottlenecks to growth, supporting enterprises, encouraging technological upgrading, modernizing agriculture and facilitating access to finance and provide greater support to young people to find work; and finally supply youth with skills needed by labour markets (OECD & ILO, 2014, 8-10; ILO, 2015b, 65), in addition to the financial supports.

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Along with growing concerns about the political and social sustainability of fiscal austerity programmes, governments of developed countries are called to tend a gradual approach to fiscal consolidation and offset shrinking demand and growth by expansionary monetary policy and exchange rate devaluations in order to promote growth and to create jobs for young people (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 5-6).

Also, private sectors, especially in developing economies have generally some constraints such as access to finance and infrastructure investments impeding of expansion business operations. Therefore, macroeconomic policies such as public investment into infrastructure, reforms on monetary and financial policies, can alleviate these constraints on the capacity of the private sector and promote employment generation for young people (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 17-18).

According to a judgment in literature, while an inappropriate exchange rate regime hurts growth and employment prospects, a competitive and stable real exchange rate consistent with inflation and employment targets, can incentivize firms to expand their export activities and to invest in different sectors and thereby positively influence resource allocation between the traded and non-traded sectors. As a result it leads to both higher employment generation and diversification and modernization in economy (Matsumoto et al., 2012, 23-24). A recent ILO analysis also argues that counter-cyclical fiscal policy, a relatively conservative fiscal policy in non-recessionary periods and expansionary fiscal policy during recessions, can help to decrease youth unemployment (ILO, 2015b, 65).

Nevertheless, promoting job creation through appropriate macroeconomic policies must be accompanied by actions such as providing adequate income support, effective employment services, and active labour market measures (OECD, 2013, 7) and above all, by strategies towards creation of human capital that is a key component of employability and refers to the skill set including abilities, knowledge, experience and education (SIOP, 2014, 9).

Regarding the human capital, there is robust evidence that higher educational attainment increases productivity and GDP. Empirical results show that a one % increase in school enrolment rates yields an increase in GDP from between one to three % (ILO, 2015b, 76).

Youth who don't complete the formal education levels and have adequate literacy and numeracy skills encounter difficulties in the labour market (OECD & ILO, 2014, 12). According to recent ILO survey, while it takes period takes an average of 19.3 months for youth to complete school-to work transition, it takes only 9.7 months for a young person who has s tertiary level education and 29,1 months for one having only primary education (ILO, 2015b, 4) and similarly high-educated youth make up only 15% as OECD wide, while the low skilled youth accounts for 36% of all NEETs (Carcillo, at all., 2015, 20).

Although, qualified education is most important in terms of employability and low education is strongly interrelated being at NEET status in nearly all OECD countries, PISA results indicate that almost one in five students do not reach a basic level of skills to function in today's societies and across the OECD, one in five young adults on average drops out before completing upper secondary education level (OECD, 2013, 8).

Therefore, good education can be said as the best safeguard against becoming NEET, even though the share of well-educated youth among NEETs has been rising since the economic crisis (Carcillo, at all., 2015, 20). And many countries introduced some measures in order to make the education system effective for labour market such as, reducing school dropouts and providing education opportunities for those who don't complete the formal education; ensuring that all youth have adequate skills that are relevant for the labour market (OECD & ILO, 2014, 12).

As to the education dimension of human capital, in many countries, levels of formal education and number of people participating in education have increased in the past decades. Thus, the overall rate of university level education across 36 OECD countries has increased by almost 10% since 2000 and now a similarly more than 80% of young workers have upper secondary education in the OECD countries (SIOP, 2014,9).

Though development in education part of human capital, higher education has no longer guaranteed a clear path to successful employment opportunities with permanent contracts and high salaries for all graduates (Koskinen, 2010, 21) due to the loose connection between vocational education and industry in many countries around the world.

Besides, young jobseekers have often been limited to get work experience before entering labour market and this situation challenges to their employability. In fact, abstaining from work experience during formal education is fairly common in many countries around the world and the youth can only realize importance of experience to acquire high quality employment after education. Unfortunately, governments also tend to reduce youth unemployment by addressing only the lack of skills, whereas it may be more effective to provide opportunities to learn through work than attempting to upgrade skills before entering the labour force (DESA, 2004, 68), like in countries where educational institutions can provide alumnus right skills and abilities by using internships and work-based learning, youth unemployment rates are lower like in Austria and Germany (SIOP, 2014, 10-11).

In order to prepare youth for the labour market and to assist their transition from education to the work life, some countries implement training and skill acquiring programs. For example, Australia implemented the Community Youth Hubs programme in 2014 which aims to create appropriate pathways to employment and training for young people. and it involves expanding job and training opportunities

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through strengthening opportunities for training and education collaborations across local, state and federal government services. As another example, Canada introduced the Youth Employment Strategy (YES) which aims to help reducing skills mismatches and to smooth their school-to-work transitions. The program targets youth between ages of 15 and 30 and includes orientation and counselling services with regards to the competences and job experience needed by the labour market.

Well-designed apprenticeship systems can promote skills acquisition, facilitate the transition from school to work. Quality technical and vocational education and training has been recognized as a key pathway to a successful transition to the employment by the G20 Training Strategy dated 2010. Therefore, G20 countries have concentrated on programs to promote and strengthen quality apprenticeship systems since 2012.

Many countries cannot succeed these technical and vocational training because implementations generally are a second-best, low-status option providing classroom-based programmes for academically weak students, unconnected to employer needs and mainly confined to traditional subjects. but some countries have successful experiences because they give the programs a higher status and has extended them to providing advance level skills in ICT, logistics, creative arts and fashion, or social and personal services (OECD & ILO, 2014, 11-14).

In some cases, especially youth from disadvantaged backgrounds make unwise educational decisions and their study fields may not be requested by current employers. This situation is also a major source of over-qualification or skill mismatch in both developed and developing countries. In order to prevent this problem, high-quality career guidance has been used make youth better informed about education and job relation. But this guidance must be materialized early in lower secondary education by using highly qualified guidance personnel and timely and high-quality data on local labour market needs and employment prospects by occupation. However, even in advanced economies, career guidance programmes have some severe deficiencies such as under-funding, untrained teachers and not relying on accurate labour market statistics and projections by region and occupation (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 33). It needs labour market information system to supply requested knowledge for education and decision process.

A recent ILO study showed that the provision of individualized and intensive services such as job counseling and guidance, job search assistance and individual employment planning, can have positive net effects on job entry probabilities of young unemployed (ILO, 2015b, 71).

In recent years, developed countries have made the access to safety nets conditional on active job-search programs by which income support for the unemployed is combined with strict job-search requirements and compulsory participation in effective re-employment programmes under the threat of moderate benefit sanctions

in the event of non-compliance (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 36). When sanctions are used as one of the tools of activation policies, they generally have a positive impact on the transition rates to employment for the unemployed. However, this may come at the cost of a lower job-match quality and their effectiveness might be lower for youth (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 35).

Young people are regarded as having values and ambitions for entrepreneurship so that entrepreneurship can be another way of utilizing potential of youth and an important employment option for many young people. But young people face particular challenges to establish their own business because they lack appropriate skills and experience, accession to business networks. Therefore, they might either avoid to be a business career or fail (SIOP, 2014, 25; Coenjaerts et al., 2009, 123).

Although, activation policies can play an important role in facilitating transition of young people to jobs, effectiveness of activation policies depends on the general functioning of the labour market and these policies and strategies cannot solve massive youth unemployment alone, especially under inadequate weak labour demand and structural obstacles. However, activation strategies should not be suspended in a situation of crisis and high unemployment. (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 33).

Institutional regulations are also another tool used for improving youth employment. In countries where strictly-regulated permanent contracts are combined with temporary (or other atypical) contracts, inexperienced young people tend to be hired on short-term contractual arrangements and are considerably more vulnerable to economic turbulences.

On the other hand, in some developing countries, strict regulations are valid for both permanent contracts and temporary forms of employment and this may induce high and persistent youth unemployment or high incidence of informal employment among youth (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 40). However, reforms liberalizing temporary contracts generate a secondary segment of jobs characterized by excess labour turnover and very limited possibilities of a successful transition from fixed-term to permanent positions as a result of fragmented labour market (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 8).

In order to avoid risks of above situations, protection offered by different types of contracts should be re-balanced so as to create positive effects for many low-skilled workers by using some new ways such as a system of individual unemployment savings accounts that substitute severance pay schemes or more moderate length of trial periods (OECD, 2013, 12). Besides, in segmented labour market and without proficient training, subsidized forms of employment should be combined with substantial training programs by employers to increase the employability and productivity of young people (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 34).

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Finally, total labour costs can significantly affect labour demand and if non-wage labour costs, especially social security contribution, are too high, they hinder labour demand, particularly for the low-skilled and for new labour market entrants. Besides, high wage floor and high non-wage labour costs create incentives for informal employment, like in most developing countries. For this reason, several countries have attempted to lower social security contribution rates in order to encourage employers to hire youth (Quintini & Martin, 2014, 42-6).

Regarding the effectiveness of above policies, 2015 report of Solution For Youth Employment indicate that youth employment interventions such as skills training, promoting entrepreneurship, subsidized employment, or supporting job seekers through employment services yield a positive (and statistically significant) impact (WB, 2015, 75). However, despite increasing investments in policy and program initiatives and a strengthened call to action, youth employment has not been improved enough yet, and it will keep on same way, if there is not more dedicated and strategic focus (WB, 2015, 4).

CONCLUSION

Recent economic and population trends and their future projections have exposed the persistent feature of youth unemployment. Also, when they are taken into consideration, it is realized that achievement against it needs huge commitment and constant strategic approach.

Another big matter is increase in rate of those not in employment, education or training (NEET) because increase in this inactive population negatively affects the youth unemployment in long term by causing skill loss.

Skill mismatch, especially stemming from low skill, is one of the most important determinants of the youth unemployment. This fact is not an obstacle only to find a job individually, but also for transformation and development of economy. Thus, particularly developing countries must improve their education systems so that they can cater abilities and qualifications requested by labour markets.

Studies exhibit that youth having disadvantageous background are mostly affected by unemployment and are particularly vulnerable to its scarring effects. Therefore, governments should ensure equality of opportunities in reaching quality education, by beginning pre-school term. Also, public expenditures promoting youth employment should be increased and sustained by the virtue of affirmative effects of active and passive labour market spending.

When above facts are taken into account, it is most crucially important to design processes of formal schooling and vocational education in such way they complete each other. Also, governments should adopt a dynamic approach in developing

and performing labour market policies and modernize them according to social and economic conjuncture by using an effective labour market information system.

Youth employment is a global challenge for all countries but causes and solutions of the matter may be different in developed and developing countries. Especially developing regions face major challenges regarding the quality of available work for young people while they are related to non-standard employments in developed countries. Therefore, improving youth labour market outcomes -transitions to decent work- requires determining country-specific needs and for shaping policies and programmatic interventions.

In accordance with reasons of unemployment in country, practices and policies for prohibiting youth unemployment can be indicated as:

- To design macro-economic policies and growth as providing youth employment
- To put into practice the active employment policies
- To provide adaptation of labour market's conditions to youths and increase the social protection
- To constitute social dialogue and cooperation methods with youth
- To establish labour market information system
- To do labour market analysis regularly.

But as stated above, all of these practices must be planned and implemented as a part of comprehensive strategy formed in accordance with actual conditions of economic and demographic structure. And under conditions of inadequate job opportunities, of course, employment strategies should prioritize those who are in the low end of the skill spectrum or in low productive jobs in the informal economy.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Human Capital: An individual's skill set that consists of intellectual and crafting abilities creating economic value added.

Non-Standard Employment: Working with temporary contracts or part time schedule instead of full-time and permanent contracts.

Labour Market Information System: An information mechanism that collects and evaluates any information about facts of demand and supply sides, opportunities and functioning problems in labour markets.

Labour Market Transition: Duration or process of that a young person (aged 15–29) passes from the end of schooling (or entry to first economic activity) to the first decent job.

Neet Rate: Rate of those not in employment, education or training and not seeking a job among the working age population.

Scarring Effect: Effects of youth unemployment over working life as more spells of unemployment, lower earnings prospects and lower chances of obtaining a decent job in the longer term.

Skills Mismatch: A labour market fact in which skills of existing labour supply are not well-matched with available jobs or demanded skills by employee due to being under-skilled or over-skilled.

Underemployment: An employment situation which is below capacity of worker in terms of skill, working time and wage.

Vulnerable Employment: Type of working that is mostly insecure and vulnerable to fluctuations in the business cycles as own-account worker without employees and unpaid family workers.

ENDNOTES

- ¹ United Nations defines youth as the 15 to 24 age group as this is a widely accepted statistical convention (UN, 1981, 1). Discrepancies maintain to exist, but, a great deal of national and international statistics programmes identify and measure youth in this way. However, “youth” descriptions can be changed depending on aim of the measurement. All around the world, education period has extended up over 25, therefore 25-29 age group has been discussed in the younger age group in many international studies and statistics). If one purposes to measure, for instance, the age span at which one is anticipated to enter the employment market then the statistical description of 15 to 24 years might no longer be passable, given that the present more and more young people put their entry off into employment markets to well beyond the age of 25 (ILO, 2006, 2). For example, Solution for Youth Employment program of WB defines youth as ages 15–29 (WB, 2015, 37).
- ² Active labour market policies generally include job-search assistance, job-related training programmes, subsidized employment with private enterprises (based on temporary contracts usually), direct job creation, public employment programmes, start-up subsidies and self-employment assistance-support (Eichhorst & Rinne, 2014, 8-9).
- ³ Implementation of unemployment insurance and unemployment assistance programmes varies in each country. In order to be informed about these practices, even in relation to activation programs, you can refer to Eichhorst, & Rinne, 2014.

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Chapter 15

Technology Adoption for Addressing Precarious Youth Employment Issue

Azizul Hassan

Cardiff Metropolitan University, Bangladesh

ABSTRACT

This study critically analyzes precarious youth employment in Bangladesh having a specific focus on her tourism industry. Traditionally, the tourism economy of Bangladesh is considered as promising. This research arguably identifies the tourism industry of Bangladesh encouraging conceptual precarious youth employment. From theoretical perspective, this chapter addresses the Theory of Scientific Management of Frederick Taylor (1911) and the Systems Theory of Dunlop (1958) in this context. This conceptual study understands precarious youth employment in the Bangladesh tourism and relates relevance of the two theories mentioned. Based on arguments, this study outlines the role of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) as a latent option to minimize issues generated from precarious youth employment. An in-depth analysis offers policy suggestions for the betterment of youth employment in the Bangladesh tourism industry.

INTRODUCTION

Employment in any area or any economic sector can be granted as rewarding as long as this can produce a positive outcome and can meet the demand of many beneficiary types. However, employment can be precarious and can take diverse shapes and patterns. Youths are a very important part of the national economy of

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any country, and this is why they deserve regular employment in diverse economic areas. Precarious youth employment is a regular fact and remains present in almost every country of the world including Bangladesh, a South Asian country. Precarious youth employment gets wider attention due to the recent global economic meltdown involving the 'zero hour contract'. Tourism is a rapidly expanding industry and in many cases, acts as the leading economic sector in many countries across the world. In Bangladesh, youth unemployment rate is quite high when the youths occupy a considerable part of the national workforce. Over the last decade, tourism in Bangladesh has flourished due to elevated spending capacities of the peoples, supportive policy implantation and both private and public investments (Hassan & Burns, 2014). This conceptual study aims to explore diverse factors of precarious youth employment in the tourism sector with particular focus on Bangladesh. From a more generic perspective, the country is helping entrepreneurs to come forward and get supported. Literacy rate and the quality of education are massive favors for the development of ICT in a country like Bangladesh. The 'Digital Bangladesh' campaign is an officially supporting this sector to flourish and get expanded to many areas including Small and Medium Enterprises development. The Cabinet of Bangladesh approved a citizen-centric ICT Policy 2009 with 306 action items for all agencies of the government (Government of Bangladesh, 2002). Also, the study seeks to justify information and communication technology (ICT) as a possible solution to the persistent precarious youth employment situation in Bangladesh. This study identifies a knowledge gap in this regard. Thus, the contribution of this study is significant through filling to narrow down this knowledge gap.

METHODOLOGY

The study follows general desk research to collect information and data from internet and library sources. An extensive literature review was performed on the thematic areas including but not limited to areas of precarious job situations, youth unemployment, ethics in workplace, the Theory of Scientific Management of Frederick Taylor (1911), the Systems Theory Dunlop (1958) as relevant theories of this study, information and communication technology (ICT) and policy suggestions. An exercise of scoping with the exploration of key issues and aspects of the research was made to get tourism sector based data on the economic situation and precarious youth employment situation in the identified country of Bangladesh. The research was conducted to collect official data and statistics from the governmental and non-governmental agencies responsible for the tourism sector of Bangladesh. There was a combination of intensive literature reviews followed by personal available

information collection on targeted governmental agencies, travel and tourism business owners, current employees, stakeholders and general youth job seekers. Literature based information was also accessed through the use of libraries. In addition, a thorough search on the internet was also carried out. The attempt was clear to avoid complexities of data reliability and duplication carefully.

BACKGROUND

Precarious Employment

Precarious employment is seen as work that is arranged and conditioned with the association of temporary contracts, poor wages or uneven hours (Quinlan, 2012). This is a typical issue that has managed to get more attention in recent times during economic meltdown across the world. The realization is obvious that precarious youth employment needs to be replaced by well-paid and well-deserved employment.

Labour market trends over the last decade, characterized by crises and traditions, mean that young people are more at risk unemployment and insecure employment; facing futures which are more uncertain and precarious than those of recent earlier cohorts' (Fagan, Kanjuo-Mrcela, & Norman, 2012, p. 153). 'Yet, clearly, this is just not an individual struggle: this is an entire cohort of young workers whose access to stable, well-paid and meaningful work is increasingly under threat. However, it is in recognizing the social and structural character of unemployment and underemployment that we can find and advocate for collective, progressive ways to better the lives of young workers. (Foster, 2012, p. 6)

On the critical theoretical ground, the Theory of Scientific Management of Frederick Taylor (1911) and the Systems Theory of Dunlop (1958) as viewed as suitable for this research. The theory of Scientific Management by Frederick Taylor (1911) outlines that, in an organization, employee with specialization and well trained for a particular job has to be selected following proper supervision and organizational hierarchy. On the other side, following the Systems Theory of Dunlop (1958), industrial employment relations are a category of the wider social system and are governed by a set of both formal and informal rules. These rules range from holidays, recruitment, hours, wages, performances and diversified forms of employment. This theory highlights that industrial relations are mostly influenced by numerous factors of environmental contexts for maintaining the process of negotiation and resolving conflicts (Abbott, 2006).

Precarious youth employment is generic by its nature where, the most common features are the unexpected working environment, job insecurity, and low payment. This type employment can mostly be termed as sensitive, and outcomes can appear in forms as something that an individual does not necessarily expect. This type employment is largely undesired that certifies that precarious employment is non-guaranteed, unsafe and ill-paid job type. This is also common that precarious youth employment is a subject of further experimentation to resemble that youth population deserves better employment. These peoples also demand job security and safety at the workplace. However, precarious employment can hardly offer any of these. Employment can be several types where both paid and unpaid works are involved. Employment is a basic human need and is crucial for human existence on earth. This is also important to help continue their survival at the same time. Precarious employment is mostly dominant among youth working class. This is relevant to understand that these peoples form the most important base of a society accelerate socio-economic activities of that identified society. This class is also responsible to shape a society further towards development and remain as an indicator of progression. Employment among youth and young generation can involve diverse factors and based on numerous aspects as related to each other. This is where employment among youths is important to help facilitate socio-economic activities. This is most natural that peoples including youth will take employment mostly in paid form. However, in certain cases, these peoples are forced to take unpaid employment as well. Thus, the common understanding remains dominant that youth peoples are subject to get either paid or unpaid employment.

Precarious Youth Employment and the Recent Tourism Employment Market

After the 1980s, countries with a higher rate of socio-economic development accompanied by formal labor have driven towards casual, precarious or non-standard types of work (Vosko, 2011). Evidently, the scenario in the developing country context is far more depressing with insecure, unpaid or low wage structure followed by exploitation in diverse forms (Bernstein, 2007; Burawoy, 2010). Precarious employment in the tourism and hospitality industry also renders significance. In a recent study, McNamara, Bohle, and Quinlan (2011) have shown that temporary workers have less control over their working patterns accompanied by lower work intensity, excessive working hours with a lower payment and factional relationship in the workplace. Post-war experiences in Asia clearly resemble this pattern. Precarious employment can be identified by having global challenges and is important to understand the arrangements in workplace and insecurity (Pocock, 2003). The general types of precarious work vary from self, part-time, temporary or

even home based employment. International Labour Organization (2013) identifies the precarious employment as ‘casual work’, ‘seasonal work’, ‘short term work’ or types of contract that can be terminated with short notice. However, typically precarious works are characterized by a lower rate of benefits, wages, and security at the workplace. Precarious employment is the outcome of competitive pressure from the capital flow in the industrial nations of the decades of 1960 to 1970 (Harvey, 2005; Harvey, 2010; Hardt & Negri, 2001). Hospitality as a sector is reinforced by the present capitalistic framework to look for lower waged workforce in the typical form of precarious employment (Brown, 2000).

One of the most important trends over the past decades is undeniably the growth of insecurity in the world of work. Worldwide, unimaginable numbers of workers suffer from precarious, insecure, uncertain, and unpredictable working conditions. Unemployment figures alone are cause for concern, but even these fail to capture the larger majority of people who work, but who do not have a decent job, with a decent wage, a secure future, social protection, and access to rights. The universality and dimension of the problem call for coordinated and comprehensive action at the international level. (International Labour Organization, 2011)

In recent years, instability in the employment market has mounted partially due to the economic meltdown in almost all over the world. The situation forced the general workforce specifically the youths to undertake jobs those are most likely can be identified as insecure and precarious. Traditionally, the youths are always considered to be affected by the social unrest and economic upheavals that can have influence in almost all areas of the youth life pattern and on the community (Kalleberg, 2009). Following the neoliberalism, growth in the economic sector directs to transition in the labor market connected with shared wealth, social protections and the formal employment (Bacchetta, Ekkehard, & Bustamante, 2009). Offering an agreeable definition of precarious youth employment is difficult and as argued that

... however one defines it, the precariat is far from being homogeneous. The teenager who flits in and out of the internet café while surviving on fleeting jobs is not the same as the migrant who uses his wits to survive, networking feverishly while worrying about the police. Neither is similar to the single mother fretting where the money for next week's food bill is coming from or the man in his 60's who takes casual jobs to help pay medical bills. But they all share a sense that their labour is instrumental (to live), opportunistic (taking what comes) and precarious (insecure). (Standing, 2011, pp. 13-14)

According to International Labour Organization (2014c), the Global Youth Economic Conference – 2012 has urged to invest more to create work opportunities for the youth. Unemployment problem among youths has adverse effects on developed country's economy as well. Recent experiences of riots with the huge involvement of the youths in the United Kingdom have initiated this urge, where the British youths are identified as *'the most unpleasant and violent in the world'* (British Broadcasting Corporation, 2014; The Daily Mail, 2014). According to United Nations Development Programme (2014), in the world, the population of 15 to 24 years group has reached to 1.2 billion. A major part of more than 90 percent of them lives in developing countries and in Asia particularly, the number is 55%. 75 million of the youth workforce will remain unemployed in 2012 that is 12.7% of the total global workforce. From 2008 to 2011, the frequency of temporary employment contract has doubled by 0.9% from the previous year, as a consequence of the global economic crisis. Bangladesh is world's one of the poorest country with a huge number of her workforce remaining unemployed. Youth unemployment in this country has risen to over 47% between the timeframe of 2001 to 2010. The tourism sector accounted for 2.2% of the Bangladesh GDP in 2011 and expected to rise by 7.3% and 6.1%, respectively by 2012 and 2022 even with the serious shortage of skilled workforce (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014). Tourism is appearing as the single biggest employment generating sector in Bangladesh economy (The Daily Star, 2014).

Precarious Youth Employment and the Bangladesh Tourism Industry Evidence

In a country like Bangladesh with developing economy, precarious youth employment is a known issue in the tourism industry of this country.

Although many young people were aware that many of the jobs they were undertaking were fraught with precarious conditions and pay, these conditions were accepted, because of a realization of the overall lack of jobs and poor employment prospects. Others believed the jobs they were seeking matched their skills, experiences and abilities. Despite the precariousness of the labour market, young people tended to be quite deliberately selective of the sorts of jobs they wanted. (Burrows, 2013)

Precarious employment remains as an unexpected type employment that is commonly taken by peoples in compelling circumstances.

In recent times, jobs in the tourism sector like a brand ambassador, commissioned marketing executive, attendants, receptionists and similar are attracting and employing a huge number of youths, mainly students. Both male and females are involved

with these types of work, and such types of works are often insecure, exploitative, discriminative and vulnerable to sexual harassment and do not necessarily follow ethics in the workplace that offer trigger early negative job experiences. Youths those are employed are vulnerable and are forced to undertake low or no paid roles to retain their jobs. Loopholes of the government policies are also supporting to create precarious employment for youths in these identified sectors (Freitag, 1994). One of the very basic reasons is that employing youths with low payment and flexibility offer a better return and profitability for the business organization. The lower literacy rate, poverty, staggering unemployment situation and political instability are forcing the youths to undertake precarious jobs. Clarity in the process of governmental policy formulation and their effectiveness have always remained under questions. In the developing countries, arguably there has never been any specific and highly effective set of policies for helping youths to avoid precarious employment in the particular sector of tourism (Clancy, 1999). Whatever, the jobs are created for the youths in these three countries representing the South Asia in general, are mostly precarious and temporary based.

This is evident that precarious youth employment is gradually shaping as an important issue both inside and outside of Europe,

Further when they do secure employment, young people are more likely to be engaged in positions that are associated with precariousness and the risk of social exclusion. Even the EU admitted recently that fractured transitions between education and employment – with periods of paid work interspersed by unemployment, or withdrawal from the labour market, have been common for young workers, or at least substantial numbers among them. This situation is likely to be exacerbated as the consequences of the financial and economic shock of 2008-9 works its way through economies and labour markets. (Kretsos, 2011, p. 454)

Information and Communication Technology (ICT): A Prospect

The creation of ICT-related jobs and implementing policy frameworks, some sort of prospects remain to be exploited by the identified groups of peoples of society. This helps to progress the socio-economic activities of a society and a nation at the same time. However, this necessarily has to maintain a certain level of standard. The adoption of ICT thus can appear as a way to overcome economic hardship and thus to get out of it. The diversification of employment is beneficial and rewarding in a sense that can produce regular and more accepted job patterns. Information and communication technology can offer benefits to young working class peoples of a country. The role and relevance of information technology in supporting

employment generation is actually varied. This finds attachment with the mainstream socio-economic developmental process of a given society that is mainly believed as underdeveloped, in terms of its capacities and potentials.

Information technology can bring positive benefits to young peoples where general interests of this social class largely concentrate on computational activities. The adoption of information and communication technological applications is lucrative for the relatively better return on investment. This also shows possibilities to reveal of certain technological aspects that would otherwise mostly remain inconsistent. ICT and its application are involved with interest generation of specified groups of peoples that are mostly young, active and seek paid employment more than any other class of a particular society. ICT is important in helping to advance a given social system supported by certain features. This is also crucial to believe that the application of ICT would remain as rewarding. There are many scopes and opportunities that need to be exploited and fully utilized. These also can be beneficial to promote and advance a given socio-economic system as per the requirement of its peoples.

This is mostly certain that tourism is a promising industry with capacities to generate opportunities and immense potentials. Thus, this industry in general, can accommodate and create employment to a large section of unemployed youth workers. Youth working class is characteristically hard-working, energetic and reliable. All these features, on a common platform, can offer a huge return on both the individual and the national level investments. This is evident that both tourism and ICT are promising sectors and a possible merger can eventually lead to activate underlying chances. Thus, this helps enhancing potentials and utilizes capacities to create further opportunities for employment generation. Tourism as an industry is offering both direct and indirect benefits to a country like Bangladesh. This is also playing substantial roles to promote a specific destination by bringing development initiatives and creating more opportunities as per requirements of individuals of that area.

Information and communication technology can certainly offer opportunities to those youths remaining as unemployed. There should be a concern that tourism industry needs to be benefitted from the most recent technology adoption. Also, there are scopes and opportunities to overcome specific barriers and to prove that ICT can be a solution for precarious youth employment as an issue. The reason that, youths are more eager to get involved in regular employment, rely on solid earning sources and income generating activities. ICT can also support them moving beyond unexpected job conditions. Relevant data and information are always useful, while understanding the trends of technology adoption in given circumstances also remain crucial. This is encouraging that tourism industry has helped to cater demands of increasing populations that would mostly remain as unemployed.

Again, ICT creates employment and proves that this industry can help reducing unemployment problem. Examples are available in Bangladesh where, rural youths are connected with internet facilities that are helping to get them involved in income generation activities (Kabeer, 2003). Not necessarily these activities are totally tourism-centric but, diverse areas of tourism are actually supported by these. Social media websites as Facebook is supporting youths to stay connected and doing business on this. These types marketing mostly come as social media marketing type. These have differentiated and hardly can be defined as mainstream marketing activities. There are scopes as available for doing business on social media websites on Facebook. Package holiday, tourism destinations, tourism product or services are some examples. Thus this is crucial that opportunities need to be exploited by rural youth populations either to move from precarious to non-precarious employment or to get regular jobs.

Information and communication technology is beneficial for any identified society that mostly remains as underdeveloped, in terms of employment and income generation (Schilderman, 2002). This also becomes a general platform to render the improved capacities aiming to bring out the maximum possible benefits from a given social system. Information and communication technology sector deserve considerable attentions. The service and product of this sector are mostly consumed by general populations by creating chances for more consumption. The benefits of information technology consumption are critical because of its nature to remain active in a competitive market setting. The use and application of information and communication technology vary on certain perspectives. The differences between technology application and their use rely on many factors including capacities and accessibility. That is, a youth worker needs to have certain capacities to purchase or avail technological gadgets. This also needs to remain as acceptable by the relevant industry. On the other side, accessibilities vary on availability and offer of certain technology led products or services.

ICT for Precarious Youth Employment in the Bangladesh Tourism Sector: A Probable Solution

In Bangladesh, youth unemployment rate is relatively higher than any other countries in the world. While the population is growing, this also turns into a perennial situation in employment market with increased number of job seekers. The country with huge population should be the subject of interest generation by individuals and interest groups engaged in business. There are also many other related industries either directly or indirectly benefitted from ICT, tourism, and relevant industries. In tourism industry of Bangladesh, precarious employment is relatively common among almost all age groups including youths. This sector is also important to offer

economic benefits to underprivileged populations that are mostly left unattended far below the poverty line. The nature of youth employment in Bangladesh remains largely bleak with almost no progress over decades. In tourism industry particular, the relevance of youth working class denotes massive importance. A satisfied and well-trained group of employees almost always remain as a boon for any economy where Bangladesh can be an answer. The promotion of well-paid employment and to create interests among the youths is crucial for any industry including tourism. This is why tourism as an industry also needs young workers to remain profitable and economically viable.

Development is a massive area that needs proper attention from all of the parties concerned. As well as, this needs to be involved with the input of man, money, management and marketing. This study suggests this ICT as the core of employment market development in the tourism sector of Bangladesh. This is also attached with other relevant aspects as policy support of a country. The public policies of Bangladesh are favoring the development of ICT with huge interests, initiatives, and supports. The government is also offering considerable incentives to help to promote the sector. Logistical and infrastructural supports are also offered by the government to advance the sector. This is also an area to accommodate a huge number of unemployed populations and mainly young populations as they are more likely to be interested computer and its usage. The basic challenge for ICT development and possible job prospects is the language barrier. English has to be an ultimate solution, and this actually takes the time to reach a standard level to become fluent in the English language.

Precarious youth employment is common in the case of Bangladesh. Still, this is widely neglected in the academic with very little attention. This conceptual study aimed to outlines precarious employment status in Bangladesh. There are huge lacks of numeric data and information that can highlight precarious youth employment situation in the country. The study determines that precarious employment among youths in Bangladesh is typical. Thus a strong attention from both academics and researchers are widely deserved. This study should help to attract the attention to place focus on precarious youth employment. Basic expected contribution of this study is to offer a more accepted definition of precarious youth employment that should have relevance in developing economy perspective. Also, this study supports to draw a theoretical platform that is more parallel to the identified research areas. In addition, this study contributes to offering practical implications to bring improvement in the situation that is more likely viewed as discouraging. Recent global experience shows that youth employment can sometimes turn into a serious concern for the society itself. In the country like Bangladesh, the tourism sector is offering huge potentials for economic development. This instigating precarious jobs among youths with reduced ethics in the workplace is always a big question.

However, this is a concern to identify the extent to which tourism sector can become able to create substantial employment for youths. Public policies and programs in Bangladesh are supporting to popularize the adoption of technology and to create regular employment for youths. The study validates the application of the Theory of Scientific Management of Frederick Taylor (1911), and the Systems Theory of Dunlop (1958) in ICT led business and employments. Serious lack of data and information on precarious youth employment in Bangladesh was an issue to turn this study as comprehensive and more acceptable. Future research should be directed towards exploring empirical facts on precarious youth employments in developing market contexts.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Empirical evidenced as generated through primary data is the basic limitation of this study that possibly could expand research validity and reliability. Future research should focus on combining both primary and secondary data while conducting research in precarious youth employment in the Bangladesh tourism sector.

CONCLUSION

This conceptual study aims to outline precarious youth employment in the Bangladesh tourism sector. ICT is viewed as a possible option to accommodate youth working force and to bring betterment in the employment market in the country. Findings show the presence of precarious youth employment in Bangladesh as in many other countries of the world. After having analysis, this study suggests that ICT can be a possible solution to overcome precarious youth employment issues in the identified ground of Bangladesh. In reality, the country welcomes investments in ICT and tourism sector with increased attention from both public and private investors. There are already examples of medium to small ICT firms across the country helping to develop this sector and thus to create employments for the purpose. This is certain that tourism sector in Bangladesh is offering opportunities and economic benefits that are widely beneficial for the local population. This sector is also helping to create employment and thus to promote the development of information and communication technology sector. There are massive opportunities to raise potentials of these sectors that can offer benefits to local populations, in terms of both employment generation and socio-economic development. ICT sector depends on technological expertise, and its development supports the Theory of Scientific Management by Frederick Taylor (1911) that outlines that in an organization, employee with specialization

and well trained for a particular job has to be selected following proper supervision and organizational hierarchy. On the other side, following the Systems Theory of Dunlop (1958), industrial employment relations are a category of the wider social system and are governed by a set of both formal and informal rules. These rules range from holidays, recruitment, hours, wages, performances and diversified forms of employment. This theory highlights that industrial relations are mostly influenced by numerous factors of environmental contexts for maintaining the process of negotiation and resolving conflicts. In acceptable employment and working environments as ICT and tourism, the possibilities are higher to support the Systems Theory. Examples from Bangladesh show that information and communication technology adoption in a country like this can represent huge potentials. In almost each sector, ICT has immense potentials, and this is where the importance of its adoption really lies. This study suggests that precarious youth employment in Bangladesh can be replaced by ICT-related jobs where emerging market examples as India can appear as an example. Tourism is an industry where the social media marketing can create a new concept. English language adoption needs to be given priority. The very basic advantage of ICT is that it is technology oriented rather than labor. A generic assumption that technology will gradually replace labor-oriented industries and where employees will be more eager to adopt technologies. The tourism sector is also expanding in many other areas and adding more opportunities to serve interests of increased populations who otherwise would be left away from the actual development process. Thus, ICT and its application in the tourism sector can evidently bring prospects of employment generation among the youths in Bangladesh.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

ICT: Information and communication technology that is literally related to computer technology.

Precarious Employment: The type of employment for the youth that is unsecured, uncertain, unguaranteed and dangerous.

Precarious: Precarious is something that is dangerous for collapsing or falling and insecurely positioned.

Technology Adoption for Addressing Precarious Youth Employment Issue

Technology: Scientific knowledge application to meet practical purposes of both of the humans and the industry.

The System Theory: The theory is proposed by Dunlop (1958) that studies phenomena's abstract organization, their substance type, temporal or spatial scale of existence or independence.

The Theory of Scientific Management: The theory is also known as Taylorism that is proposed by Frederick Taylor (1911). This management theory is concerned with both analyzing and synthesizing workflows.

Tourism: The voluntary and temporary movement of people from one place to another for leisure or recreational purpose.

Youth: The time span of human life between childhood and adult age.

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Related Readings

To continue IGI Global's long-standing tradition of advancing innovation through emerging research, please find below a compiled list of recommended IGI Global book chapters and journal articles in the areas of multigenerational workforce, workforce diversity, and millennial workers. These related readings will provide additional information and guidance to further enrich your knowledge and assist you with your own research.

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