Colombian millennials at the workplace

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to present a study on the antecedents of turnover intentions (TOI) of millennial Colombian employees. A theoretical model in which positive work-family interaction, professional respect (PR) and meaning predicted TOI is simultaneously tested in Millennials and Xers.

Design/methodology/approach – The authors used a multigroup structural equation approach to analyze the data provided by 2,157 Millennials and 279 Xers. Participants work in 11 companies from five Colombian cities. City, age, sex, tenure and wage are included as control variables to respond to some limitations of previous research and isolate the effects of age cohorts.

Findings – The results show differences in terms of some of the variables under study. Further, the effects of positive work-family interaction and PR on TOI were different from one age cohort to the other. The influence of meaning on the outcome variable was equal in Millennials and Xers but resulted positive.

Research limitations/implications – The authors studied an under-researched population, used rigorous analytical procedures to simultaneously test the hypotheses across generations, analyzed data from a large sample size and control for confounding variables identified by researchers inquiring generational differences at the workplace. By these means, the study contributes to literature on millennial employees and age diversity.

Originality/value – By studying an under-reseach population and using suitable analytical techniques, the study contributes to literature on millennial employees and age diversity.

Keywords Work life studies, Millennials, Colombia, Work engagement and commitment, Employee turnover, Age diversity, Multigroup analysis, Professional respect

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

For more than a decade, practitioners and scholars have been warning about talent shortage and its negative consequences for companies (Frank *et al.*, 2004; ManpowerGroup, 2015). New generations are entering the labor market or reaching higher positions, and experienced employees are leaving. In this context, "employee retention is the king" (Frank *et al.*, 2004, p. 12). Talent shortage becomes worrisome when one continuously reads that millennial employees have greater intentions to leave the organization than those of other generations. According to an international survey conducted by Deloitte (2016), millennials in emerging markets have less loyalty to organizations when compared to members of this generation from other countries. More specific results of this survey suggest that 75 percent of Colombian millennials would have intentions to abandon their organizations (Deloitte, 2016). Deloitte's (2016) general results shed light on turnover intentions (TOI) of Colombian employees of private organizations holding a college or university degree. However, results of studies on generational differences in workplace related variables are controversial. Several scholars have noted that they are inconclusive (Teclaw *et al.*, 2014; Hoole and Bonnema, 2015; De Meulenaere *et al.*, 2016). To some extent, this is due to theoretical and methodological issues. Given that most studies exclusively use age to define cohorts, little

research has considered the fact that generations vary according to historical and cultural experiences. Yet, age cohorts have been labeled boomers, Xers or millennials using historical and cultural events in the USA (Costanza *et al.*, 2012).

If age cohorts are by definition dependent on historical and cultural experiences, then even the use of country of origin to identify these differences would imply a risky generalization. It is noteworthy that research on millennial employees from developing countries is scarce. This warns researchers and practitioners from these countries when considering research results that are not only inconclusive but are obtained using samples with diverse social and cultural backgrounds. Take for example Colombia, where rate and depth of poverty is more dramatic in small and medium size cities (Berdegué *et al.*, 2015). Since differences in poverty between main Colombian cities have been reported (DANE, 2016), one could expect that differences in workplace attitudes and behaviors between millennials from each city could appear. Culturally speaking, it would be also risky to claim the existence of a global profile of the worker. There is the evidence of differences in reactions to cultural, social, political and economic aspects of globalization at the local level (Gwynne and Kay, 2014). Not only the globalization has arrived at different speeds depending on the locality, but also cultural differences have traditionally existed between regions of Colombia. Colombian subnational cultures differ not only in their economy, history, among other things (Zuleta, 2010). For instance, the Caribbean region with Barranquilla being one of its main cities and where a particular subculture has been identified (Zuleta, 2010) has suffered from a huge educational lag.

Colombia has been described as a fragmented country, and specifically, a country of cities (Palacios and Safford, 2011). Big cities exert an important socio-cultural influence on the Caribbean and Andean regions. Consequently, when studying generational differences at the workplace in developing countries, such as Colombia, researchers have to foresee that not only that national traits may blur differences found in developed countries, but also test if national profiles of generations are not affected by internal cultural differences.

Differentiating membership to a generation from the effects of variables, such as age and tenure, is also a challenge for scholars studying generational differences at work. According to Costanza *et al.* (2012, 2017), these variables may act as confounding variables when establishing intergenerational differences at the workplace. This of course, includes previous research inquiring employee TOI.

In this study, the authors addressed some limitations of prior research on intergenerational differences at the workplace listed up to here. They surveyed a large sample of Colombian employees. The participants worked at 11 companies operating in different sectors at five different Colombian cities. Colombian cities have high population densities, concentrate jobs and are considered centers of economic growth (Lall *et al.*, 2012). Four out of the five cities included in this study are also deemed to have an important influence in a vast portion of the Colombian territory (i.e. Bogotá, Medellín, Cali, Barranquilla; Palacios and Safford, 2011); from the Caribbean region situated at the north end, to Andean region that ends in the south western side of the country. The other city, Bucaramanga, is another important city of the Andean region. Noteworthy, the industrial activity is also concentrated in these two regions (Balat and Casas, 2017). This study investigated intergenerational differences in terms of the antecedents of TOI of employees of these industrial centers. When comparing members of Generation X (Xers) and millennials the authors controlled for city and other variables which omission could affect the validation of the hypotheses (i.e. age, sex, tenure). The goal was to test if those variables implied a significant change in terms of the differences in antecedents of worker TOI between generations. Additionally, the study considered the responses of employees of all levels of the organizations and from a broad background in terms of educational level and social strata.

Antecedents of TOI and generations

The theory of planned behavior suggests that human behavior is to some extent goal oriented. According to Ajzen (1985), "actions, then, control behavior, but not all intentions are carried out" (p. 11). Some circumstances can prevent intentions to become behavior. Still, intentions can be considered a good predictor of behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). In fact, previous research found that TOI are positively correlated with actual employee turnover (Steel and Ovalle, 1984). In a meta-analysis directed to draw implications for the new millennium, Griffeth *et al.* (2000) found that along with other proximal predictors, TOI predicted withdrawal. Scholars have studied intentions instead of withdrawal behavior as a result of the difficulties of conducting follow ups of employees during their careers.

Considering generational cohorts as an aspect of diversity can help to understand extant research results on generational differences in terms of work-related variables, such as employee turnover (Ng and McGinnis Johnson, 2015). Diversity includes several characteristics. These characteristics, including age, may affect an employee attitude and behaviors (Mary and Nilda, 2001), such as TOI and withdrawal. Using other literatures, previous inquiring generational differences at the workplace support the proposition that age diversity affects employee withdrawal. Some of these studies still suggest that there are significant differences in TOI between generations (Ertas, 2015; Rani and Samuel, 2016), while other authors previously reported similar levels across different generations (Kowske *et al.*, 2010). Other studies suggest that generations seem to moderate the effect of other variables on TOI. Park and Gursoy's (2012) results show that generations moderate the effect of work engagement on this variable. Similarly, Lu and Gursoy (2016) found that generations moderate the effect of emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction on withdrawal intentions. Another study showed that generations moderate the effect of psychological contract fulfilment on TOI (Lub *et al.*, 2016). Noteworthy, only Lub *et al.* (2016) used suitable techniques to analyze the relationships between generations and latent variables. According to Costanza *et al.* (2012), findings of differences in the workplace across generations can be due to lack of methodological rigor. As in the case of research in work organizational psychology in general, one of these methodological issues is the lack of inclusion of construct validity in the studies (MacCallum, 1998). By using traditional regression and analysis of variance techniques researchers regularly use composite scores leaving aside measurement errors in hypothesis testing (Marsh *et al.*, 2014). For instance, in the case of standard regression analyses, measurement error affecting the independent variables affects the power of the test (Hair *et al.*, 2008). This in turn can lead to biased results and, as mentioned above, to accept differences in workplace aspects across generations. This limitation has been noticed in research on generational differences at the workplace (Costanza *et al.*, 2017).

Another work-related aspects in which of millennials would differ with respect to other generations include their valuation of free time and their relationship with authority (Bannon *et al.*, 2011; DeVaney, 2015). Similar variables have been studied as antecedents of other workplace factors different from TOI. For instance, Kultalahti and Viitala (2014) found that free time and relationships had an effect on millennials' motivation at work.

Researchers have studied other antecedents of millennial employees' TOI. Lub *et al.* (2016) research results indicate that generational differences moderate the effect of affective commitment and psychological contract fulfillment on TOI. Park and Gursoy's (2012) study found that generational differences are a moderator of the impact of work engagement on turnover. However, virtually no study has inquired how intergenerational differences intervene the effect of free time, relationship with the supervisor and empowerment on employee TOI.

Griffeth *et al.* (2000) suggest that family responsibilities would have a say in predicting TOI. The research on work-family interface has significantly grown and aims at studying the interdependence between family- and work-related roles (Greenhaus and Allen, 2011). The literature encompasses concepts such as work-family conflict, enrichment and balance.

Recently, Nohe and Sonntag (2014) found that work/family conflict increases German employees TOI. In an Italian sample, Buonocore *et al.* (2015) found no significant differences in work-family conflict predicting job satisfaction and organizational commitment among baby boomers Xers and Millennials. Similarly, Pyöriä *et al.*'s (2017) results suggest that millennials do not differ from other generations in the importance given to family life. Most studies on the work-family balance have inquired conflict. Few have operationalized and studied positive work-family interactions (PWFI). The Survey Work-Home Interaction-NijmeGen (SWING) accounts for this positive aspect of the work life balance (Geurts *et al.*, 2005). In a study, including Colombian participants, Romeo *et al.* (2013) found that PWFI were high compared to other dimensions of the SWING. Demographical data confirm the fact that independent from the generation, Colombians are family oriented. By 2013, 77.7 percent of Colombians lived in traditional households with children. Taking into account the evidence summarized up to here, the authors posit the following hypothesis:

H1. PWFI exerts a negative effect on TOI in both generations.

In addition to a high score in PWFI in Latin America, Colombia included, Romeo *et al.* (2013) reported a positive correlation between TOI and supervisor support. Thus, the relationship with the supervisor may act as a covariate of PWFI in the case of Colombian employees, including millennial employees. According to Kultalahti and Viitala (2014), a good relationship with the supervisor motivates millennial employees. Bresman (2015) reported that Latin American millennials prefer a manager that is a role model for them. Leader member exchange is a suitable operationalization of this relational aspect. The construct refers to the relation that leaders develop with each subordinate (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). This exchange embeds a series of facets. Between these dimensions, professional respect (PR) seems to better grasp what millennials in Latin America seem to look at in their leaders. PR has been defined as a perception of the reputation of each member of the leader-subordinate dyad (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). In their 1998 validation of the leader member exchange scale, Liden and Maslyn (1998) found that PR did not influenced TOI. The participants of the study were students and employees. Mean age of the students and employees were 26 years and 33, respectively. Yet, as already suggested before, millennials attitudes in face of their relationship with their leaders seem to be quite different. Consequently, the authors of this study propose the following hypotheses:

H2a. PR toward the supervisor negatively influences TOI in millennials.

H2b. PR toward the supervisor does not influence TOI in Xers.

Research results on generational differences in terms of empowerment and meaningful work is inconclusive (Hoole and Bonnema, 2015). Psychological empowerment is a multifaceted motivational concept. It also refers to cognitions about job characteristics (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Among the different factors included in the construct, the meaning dimension is of special interest when inquiring about millennials at the workplace. Meaning (MEA) refers to the employee's judgment about the work goal. It implies a match between the job and the beliefs, values and behaviors of the employee (Spreitzer, 1995). Research has shown that millennials hold high expectations with regard to the job content (de Hauw and de Vos, 2010). They want to do jobs that are meaningful (Coates, 2017). There is evidence of the negative effect of empowerment on TOI in western countries (Spreitzer, 2008). For empowerment to have this type of effect there should be willingness to accept it. In countries where power is distributed unequally and people prefer hierarchies rather than opportunities of participation in their jobs (high-power distance countries), the effects of empowerment can be different (Robert *et al.*, 2000). Wong Humborstad and Perry (2011) did not find a significant direct effect of empowerment on TOI in a sample of Chinese employees.

Other researchers have found negative attitudinal responses toward empowerment in high-power distance countries (Robert *et al.*, 2000). Being Colombia a high-power distance country (Hofstede, 2001), results should be similar. National culture would hamper the relationship between MEA and TOI in more traditionalist older generations. Consequently, the authors of this study propose the following hypotheses:

H3a. MEA does not exert the influence on TOI in Xers.

H3b. MEA positively influences TOI in millennials.

Method
Participants and procedure
The authors used a non-probabilistic sampling method. They surveyed 11 companies that were at hand. The companies operate in different sectors: food, construction, transport and energy industries. Many research works use convenience samples to study variables related to behavior at the workplace (Landers and Behrend, 2015). Given the excessive costs of using probability samples when inquiring differences in subpopulations in terms of human behavior, convenience samples are often used (Jager *et al.*, 2017). Now, the researchers invited respondents from Bogotá, Medellín, Cali Barranquilla and Bucaramanga. The reasons are suggested above in the introduction section. Summarizing, Colombia is defined as a country of cities and these five cities are referents in the Caribbean and Andean zones. In turn, these zones have different sub-cultures and Colombian jobs and industrial activities are concentrated in them. An on-line survey was sent to the 3,113 employees. Overall, 2,516 participants voluntarily responded to the survey (a response rate of around 81 percent). The survey resulted in 2,436 usable observations. Groups were divided using as a date of birth, January 1980. This year is the more commonly used date when defining generations in studies related to workplace attitudes (Costanza *et al.*, 2012). Data provided by 2,157 Millennials and 279 Genx participants were analyzed. Millennials and Genx mean ages were 28 (SD = 5.76) and 35 (SD = 5.98) years, respectively. In total, 55 percent of the respondents were millennials, and 48 percent of GenX were females. Millennials mean tenure was 3.48 (SD = 3.34), whereas in average Genx respondents had worked 11.77 (SD = 7.78) years in the companies.

The researchers wanted to include in their study employees from all organizational levels. Hence, they asked the companies to classify each employee according to the level in the organization at which the person worked. Since the structure of the organizations differed, the researchers proposed the organizations to classify their employees according to three scores: 1 = high level, 2 = medium level and 3 = low organizational level. The organizations delivered the information for 1,720 of the 2,436 employees who delivered usable questionnaires. These employees were situated at the three levels (high level = 5 percent, medium level = 29 percent and low level = 66 percent). The fact that the sample included employees from all organizational levels and that most of them had baseline jobs is important since averse working conditions may act as a confounding variable when studying TOI. In fact, previous research has shown positively impact quit intentions (Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2009).

Given that all measures were self-reported, the authors applied a series of procedural methods to control for common method bias (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). In this context, method refers to individual aspects affecting responses, such as social desirability, leniency, halo effects, acquiescence, etc. Three procedural remedies were implemented: the survey disclaimer indicated that the participation in the survey was voluntary, responses could be withdrawn at any time of the study and their anonymity was protected by law. The research team also declared at the beginning of the questionnaire that there were no right or wrong answers. Additionally, the anonymity of the respondents was protected using codes created by the researchers and unknown by the management of the enterprises. Further, the order of the predictors and criterion variables in the questionnaire was counterbalanced.

Measures

PWFI was measured through the subscale of the Spanish version of the Survey Work-Home Interaction (Jiménez *et al.*, 2009) (e.g. after a pleasant working day/working week, you feel more in the mood to engage in activities with your spouse/family/friends). Participants indicated their level of agreement using a five-point Likert scale.

MEA was assessed using a subscale of Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment measure developed (e.g. the work I do is meaningful to me). Participants used a five-point Likert scale to tap their degree of agreement with three items.

PR was measured with Liden and Maslyn's (1998) LMX three items scale (e.g. I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job). Respondents manifested their level of agreement with three items using a five-point Likert scale.

TOI were measured using the scale developed by Bentein *et al.*'s (2005) scale. Participants used a five-point Likert scale to tap their degree of agreement with three items. The items of the scale are: "I often think about quitting this organization" and "I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year."

Analysis

Mplus (v.8; Muthén and Muthén, 2017) statistical package was used to analyze the data. The authors used the common factor technique recommended by Podsakoff *et al.* (2003), as a statistical remedy to control for common method bias. The Multi-Group Exploratory Factor Analysis (MG-EFA) approach was selected to test the hypotheses of the study (Asparouhov *et al.*, 2009). This approach allows simultaneously testing in both age groups: the psychometric properties of the scales, the research hypothesis and the role of confounding variables. Comparison between groups in terms of latent variables implies previous analyses directed to establish the degree to which a given scale functions equally in those groups. Ignoring this step, group comparisons can lead to type I errors. There are several degrees of invariance, which suggest the extent to which a measure assesses the same factor in different groups (Kline, 2011). The first degree of invariance to be tested is named configural invariance, where the factor structure is specified equally for the groups under study. If the results of this Multigroup Exploratory Configural Invariance model (MG-EFACI) test are satisfactory, the model is compared with a model with a higher of invariance. In this case, a Multigroup Exploratory Low Invariance model (MG-EFALI), all factors loadings are constrained to equality in all groups. Finally, the researcher can compare the MG-EFALI with a Multigroup Exploratory Strong Invariance model (MG-EFASI). MG-EFASIs allow comparisons at the latent variable level and may have different levels of constriction. In the case of this study, in addition to equality of factor loadings, the researchers constrained the intercepts to equality.

Hu and Bentler (1999) critical values on RMSEA and CFI coefficients were adopted to evaluate the goodness of fit of the MG-EFA models. The χ^2 coefficient was not considered given its high sensitivity to sample size. Critical values in ΔRMSEA and ΔCFI as suggested by Cheung and Rensvold (2002) were used to compare the MF-EFA models. Values > 0.01 indicate that the general fit of the model has worsen and indicate that the hypothesis of a higher degree of invariance should be rejected. Factor loadings were assessed considering Hair *et al.* (2008) > 0.04 rule of thumb.

The authors controlled for age and tenure as they are deemed to be main confounding variables in cohorts studies (Costanza *et al.*, 2012). Specifically, they extracted component variance fort each group using the MG-EFA and controlled for age to isolate the effects of age cohorts (Costanza *et al.*, 2012). Gender was also included as control as previous research has shown that it exerts an effect on job search (Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2009). The city of the facility was used as proxy variable of historical and cultural experiences, which in turn could affect the differences between millennials and Generation X. This variable was also included as a control in the retained MG-EFA model.

Results

All the MG-EFA models satisfactorily fitted the data (see Table I). The MG-EFASI model was selected since the goodness of fit did not worsen when comparing MG-EFACI vs the MG-EFALI, and the latter with the MG-EFASI. The results of the common factor technique indicated that only 1 percent of the variance of the items was explained by the common method variance factor. Additionally, all the effects remained statistically significant despite the addition of the common method variance in the MG-EFASI.

Since the strong variance model was selected, latent variables mean comparisons were indicated. In the MEFA approach, the means of all latent variables are fixed to zero by default in the reference group. Xers were selected as reference group since the authors wanted to inquire how millennials scored with respect to the other generation of employees. Results indicate that millennials scores were higher in PWFI ($M = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$), and lower in MEA and TOI ($M = -0.15$, $p < 0.05$; $M = -0.28$, $p < 0.05$). No significant difference between both generations was found in terms of PR with regard to the supervisor.

Figures 1 and 2 show the specific results of the MG-EFASI model. Across groups, all items equally loaded on their correspondent constructs without cross-loadings reaching the critical value.

The results of the MG-EFASI model partially support the hypotheses of the study. The negative effect of PWFI on TOI was slightly higher in the millennials group (*H1*; partially supported). In the group of millennial Colombian employees, PR negatively influenced TOI, whereas this effect was null in the Xers group (*H2*; fully supported). Further, no difference was found in the positive influence of MEA on TOI across groups (*H3*; partially supported)

The authors controlled for age, tenure and city. Only age and one city had a significant influence on the outcome in the Generation X group ($b = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$; $b = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$), while two cities, age, gender and tenure exerted a significant effect in the millennials group ($b = -0.01$, $p < 0.01$; $b = -0.06$, $p < 0.01$; $b = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$; $b = -0.06$, $p < 0.01$; $b = 0.05$, $p < 0.05$). Including the control variables annulled the effect of MEA on TOI in the Generation X group ($b = 0.12$, $p = 0.05$) and did not produced any change in the significance of the effects in the millennials group. Noteworthy, other control variables such as social strata and wage did not affect the MG-EFASI model.

Discussion

The results of this paper contribute to literature on age diversity and generational differences at the workplace by presenting a study conducted in an under-researched population and using rigorous analytical procedures. Specifically, some of the results of the study controvert stereotypes regarding older workers at the workplace. Stereotypes is an important issue in age diversity literature (Shore *et al.*, 2009). According to the findings of the study, Colombian millennials manifested less intentions to leave the organizations than Xers participants. Research conducted in other countries suggests that younger workers millennials have higher intentions to leave the organizations (Ertas, 2015; Rani and Samuel, 2016). A plausible explanation for this relates to social/economic differences accounted for in this research. In fact, 90 percent of the millennials sample is from medium (45 percent) and low social strata (45 percent). In total, 10 percent of the millennials are

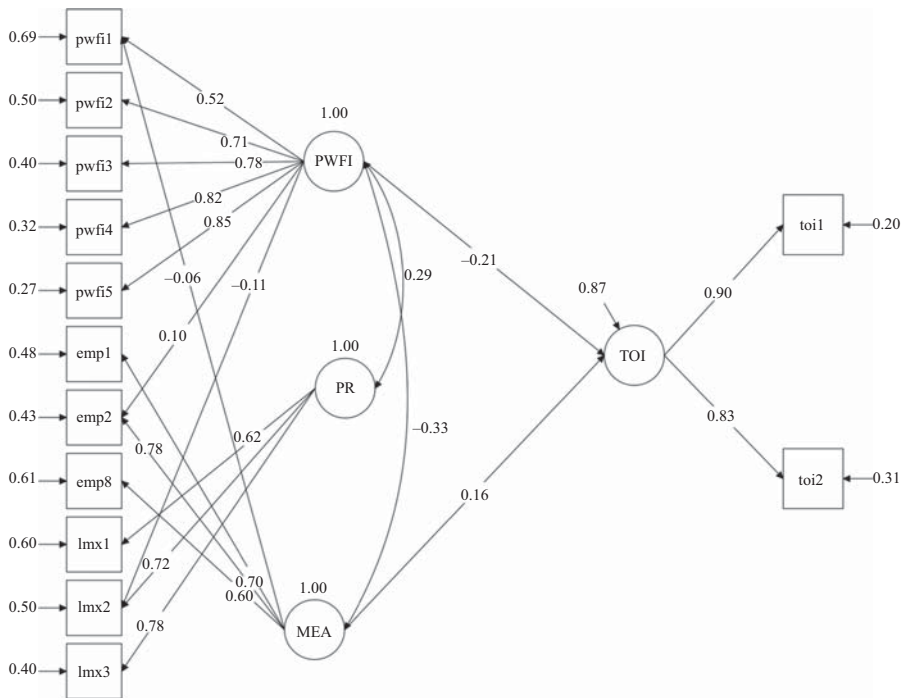| Model	RMSEA	CFI	ΔRMSEA	ΔCFI	
1. MG-EFACI	0.037	0.973			
2. MG-EFALI	0.042	0.972	0.005	0.001	
3. MG-EFASI	0.036	0.972	−0.006	0.000	**Table I.**
Notes: Ns: Millennials = 2,157; Genx = 279. Estimator MLR; Rotation = Geomin (Oblique)					Goodness of fit MG-EFA models

Figure 1.
MG-EFA results xers

Notes: $n = 279$. Standardized βs and loadings significant at the $p < 0.01$ level, except for Meaning → TOI, and WF → empsi2 and lmx2, EMP → wf12. Non-standardized loadings were constrained to equality

from high social stratum. In terms of social strata, the Xers sample is distributed differently; 50 percent of medium, 28 percent from high and 22 percent from low. Regarding income, 53 percent of the millennial sample had low income and only 4 percent received high wages. In total, 20 percent of the Xers participants had low wages while 24 percent received high incomes. Social status is related to human needs (Marmot, 2004). People with unmet basic needs may be more reluctant to leave their jobs. An international study showed that both age and high income exerts a negative effect on TOI (Sousa-Poza and Henneberger, 2004). Hence, between groups differences in social strata and income could explain TOI in Colombian millennial employees. Although both social strata and wage did not affect the effects of the variables under study, the effect of demographic variables on millennials and Xers' TOI should be closely analyzed using a sociological/economic theoretical framework and a bigger sample size.

The findings of the study also suggest that a PWFI is higher and exerts a higher influence over TOI in millennials than in Xers. The latter is valid for Colombian millennial employees independently of their age, tenure, social strata, city and income. These results support previous literature indicating that flexibility and work-family balance are of higher importance for millennial employees (Bal and De Lange, 2015; Kultalahti and Viitala, 2015). In Latin America, this generation of workers mentions that family time is a priority for them (Bresman, 2015). In consequence, companies operating in Colombia should focus not only in flexible hours for millennial employees but also in practices that promote PWFI. HR practices enhancing work life balance motivate millennial employees (Kultalahti and Viitala, 2014), and should decrease intentions to leave.

Figure 2.
MG-EFA results
millennials
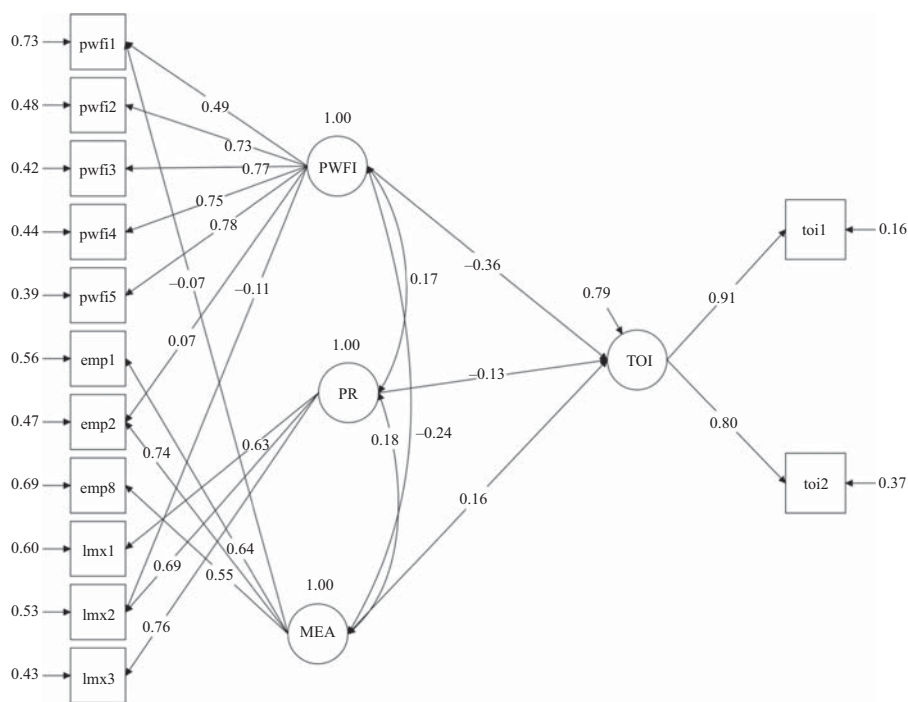
Notes: $n=2,157$. Standardized βs and loadings significant at the $p<0.01$ level, except for WF $\rightarrow$ empsi2 and lmx2, EMP $\rightarrow$ wf12. Non-standardized loadings were constrained to equality

No difference in PR toward the supervisor was found between Colombian millennial and Xers employees and, while that variable exerted a negative effect on TOI in millennial employees, the influence was absent in the group of Xers. Apparently, these results are contradictory. Null differences have been found in research on leadership and generations (Rudolph *et al.*, 2018). Yet, our results indicate that the equality among generations in work-related variables does not mean that the influence of such factors on a work-related outcome is the same across age cohorts.

Colombian millennials reported less MEA in their jobs when compared to Xers employees. Now, the influence of this psychological empowerment dimension on TOI resulted positive an equal in both cohorts. As commented above, Colombia has been described as a high-power distance culture (Hofstede, 2001). Conversely, in empowering organizational cultures people are more prone to participation. It may be the case that, like in other high-power distance cultures, Colombian employees could prefer hierarchies and display negatives attitudes in response to empowerment (Robert *et al.*, 2000). According to Seibert *et al.* (2004), individuals from high-power distance cultures may react to empowering climates with stress and withdrawal. Another plausible explanation is that empowerment interacts with the individual's dispositions when affecting intentions to leave. Personality may moderate the reaction of individuals to empowering conditions (Spreitzer, 2008).

City was used as a proxy of historical and cultural events. City did not affect the retained model. Yet, future studies should measure directly different cultural dimensions that could affect the differences in workplace variables among generations. As suggested before, power distance may alter not only the differences between cohorts but also the effects of workplace variable son TOI. Noteworthy, cultural dimensions should be measured at the individual level

to grasp to what extent culture can interact with the effects of the variables under study in different age cohorts. Given strong socioeconomic differences in developing countries, factors such as job insecurity should be controlled for when studying turnover across generations.

Finally, although multiple longitudinal panel studies are very expensive and virtually non-existing in research on generational differences in the workplace (Costanza *et al.*, 2017), efforts should be made in this sense in order to isolate the effect of age cohorts in work-related variables. Future studies should also use probabilistic samples in order to corroborate the validity of the findings presented in this study.

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