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Doctorem Reciproco: Multi-Generational Professionals and Their Sentimentality Towards Reciprocity

Sal Villegas

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Doctorum reciproco:

Multi-generational professionals and their sentimentality towards reciprocity

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George Fox University

Submitted to the School of Business

George Fox University

In partial fulfillment of the degree requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

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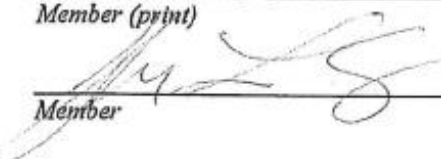
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Abstract

The use of professional reciprocity exchanges for economic prosperity has been a mainstay in American business culture within social networks such as associations, community organizations, etc. (Putnam, 2000). Participation in these organizations has declined over the past several decades, as new generations have declined embrace these stalwarts of social networking (Putnam, 2000). As the generational demographics of the American workforce have over time, it is now of great importance to identify if there are generational differences regarding the sentiment of reciprocity (Kolm, 1994) among professionals. This quantitative study uses a multi-part question from German Socio-Economic Panel Study (SOEP) study to identify if generational identify influences either positive (rewarding) or negative (punishing) reciprocity. This study found that positive reciprocity is not correlated to generational cohort, meaning that regardless of age professionals willfully reciprocate in mutually beneficial manner. This finding affirms past literature that reciprocity is a personal norm (Gouldner, 1960). Additionally, positive reciprocity is shown to be influenced by educational level. Alternatively, negative reciprocity is significantly correlated & influenced by generational cohort, industry type, experience level, and gender. Among generations, Baby Boomers and Millennial show the greatest contrast in negative reciprocity, with Millennials more willing to engage in punishing unkind behavior than their predecessors. These findings add to the theoretical body of knowledge with the creation of the *Reciprocal Influencers Model*, while informing practice in the areas of business, generational dynamics, and management.

Keywords: multi-generational, reciprocity, social capital, SOEP

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

“Reciprocity is a deep instinct; it is the basic currency of social life” (Haidt, 2006, p. 46).

Understanding the sentiment of professionals reciprocating (*doctorum reciproco*) for mutual benefit is the impetus for the research presented in this study. *Quid pro quo*, *an eye-for-an-eye*, and *the Golden Rule* are all colloquialisms describing how people reward each other through reciprocity. Not to be confused with pure altruism, reciprocity bases its power through symbiosis in which both parties are benefiting from helping one another (Trivers, 1971). Often, reciprocity in the business world occurs through contract-like exchanges where people take care of each other (Brown & Treviño, 2006). The concept of reciprocity is grounded on the societal obligation that each party repays one another for deeds, favors, business, and so forth (Goldstein, Griskevicius, & Cialdini, 2011). For example, this could mean the implementation of an international free trade agreement between neighboring countries for mutual benefit (positive reciprocity). Conversely, reciprocity could be demonstrated by massively imposing tariffs on goods entering from a competing foreign nation (negative reciprocity). On a smaller scale, reciprocal business practices might include a restaurant only buying from suppliers who patronize their establishment or boycotting those who do not buy local. Within business and economics, reciprocity can go beyond personal favors and exchanges, and preferably it includes organizational reciprocity based on calculated impersonal business decisions (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015). Even through calculated business efforts, there appears to be a dramatic change in the way that American professionals are using reciprocal activities for business gain.

For a practical example of how reciprocal activities have changed in the modern business environment one needs to look no further than local civic, service, and community-based organizations. Over the past several decades, social capital has deteriorated within these organizations; and is evidenced by dwindling membership numbers (Arnett, 2014). This decrease is not caused by the resignation of old members per se, but instead, new generations have decided not to embrace these types of social networking stalwarts (Putnam, 2000). These entities continue to struggle, even as research has shown that actors who participate in reciprocal networking can access and generate higher income from their relational efforts than through solely individual efforts (Flap, 1999; Lin, 2001). It seems that neither public nor personal economic incentives are enough to keep professionals from participating in these entities. Necessarily, the question as to why this change in professional and civic engagement has occurred needs to be investigated further. What could be the catalyst of moving away from these organizations that have been economic engines for generations of professionals over the past century? Have professionals changed their mindset, or are there other forces at play? This research is driven by the determination to answer these questions and discover if generational sentiments are a cause for this ideological shift away from civic engagement.

Generational consciousness has established a new lens to view this country (Poo, 2017, p.). The generational demographics of the American workforce has shifted from Baby Boomers as the largest working generational bloc, to now millennials having become the largest share (Pew Research Center, 2018b). These Millennials are now the largest generation participating in the U.S. labor force, representing 35% of the overall

market with 56 million workers (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Generation Xers comprise slightly less than 33% with 53 million workers, and Baby Boomers now represent only 25% of the workforce with 41 million participants (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Represented by fewer number of workers than in years past, the Silent Generation accounted for less than 2% of the working age population (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Post-Millennials (Generation Y), meaning those born after 1996 account for less than 5% of the working age population or 9 million workers (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Researchers have shown that previous generations (Silent Generation and the Greatest Generation) were more likely to be active in civic engagement compared to adults in current society (Putnam, 2000). Therefore, understanding the link between these distinct generations and their feelings towards reciprocity is a timely and significant matter to investigate further. The goals of this study are to fully understand the sentiment of reciprocity between different generations of professionals who operate within the current American workforce.

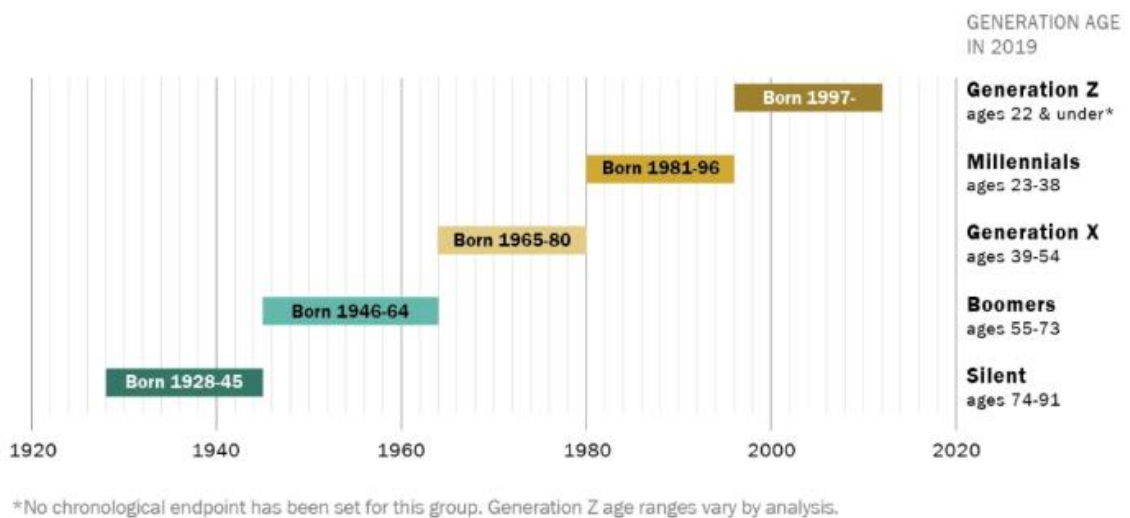


Figure 1: Generations and Age. 2019, *Pew Research Center*

Exchanging business referrals, creating exclusive partnerships, and patronizing friends are not new concepts as they have existed for centuries. In his 1776 seminal economic treatise, Adam Smith (2007) wrote that “the sneaking arts of underling tradesmen are thus erected into political maxims for the conduct of a great empire: for it is the most underling tradesmen only who make it a rule to employ chiefly their own customers” (p. 380). Researchers have upheld this notion by finding that when reciprocity is practiced at an organizational level, relations are strengthened as is the likelihood of group survival (Trivers, 1971). In practice, reciprocity has shown to have an economic benefit for individuals, organizations, and societies that actively engage in exchanges with one another (Kolm, 1994). As an example, in 2017, more than 220,000 worldwide members of the organization Business Networking International (BNI) passed business referrals to one or another for more than \$13.6 billion. This was based on the philosophy that those who give business referrals will gain economic success through reciprocity (BNI, 2017). The ability to build a relationship through networking activities is a skill that can be difficult to execute, while being both complicated and idiosyncratic (Oliveria, 2013). Reciprocal professional relationships have shown to affect economic outcomes and enterprise actives (Mačerinskienė & Aleknavičiūtė, 2011).

Professionals have long used social networking organizations to gain power/status/influence within their respective areas of influence (Farkas, 2012). Relationships between professionals and organizations are not formed in isolation but instead evolve through interconnected relations (Huang & Wilkinson, 2013). These reciprocity-based networks have been a staple of the American business landscape for generations (Putnam, 2000); however, an attitudinal shift regarding involvement in

reciprocity-based civic engagement began originating in the early 1980s (Schofer & Fourcade-Gourinchas, 2001). This shift in engagement has been attributed to a cultural and corporate polity that affect individual willingness to engage in networking relationships (Schofer & Fourcade-Gourinchas, 2001). Organizations that once thrived on professional business participation are now facing a shortage of potential members (Arnett, 2014; Green Valley News Staff, 2015; Serven, 2016). Several domestic organizations that have thrived on reciprocity (e.g., Kiwanis, Rotary, and Lions Clubs), are not drawing near the number of new members as in generations past while membership has decreased (Eikenberry, 2007). There could be a multitude of factors as to why these types of networking groups are now fading. This research may assess if *one* of these factors; however, it could be a difference in reciprocal sentiment between different generations of working professionals.

The literature on reciprocity is abundant with theoretical findings of how individuals and organizational actors (Tangpong, Li, & Hung, 2016) operate within the context of professional business dealings. There is little research; however, on how professionals feel about reciprocity as a generational cohort. In 1995, when Millennials had not yet begun to participate in the workforce, the labor landscape had a very different generational makeup comprised of the Silent Generation (18%), Baby Boomers (49%), and Generation Xers (31%) (Pew Research Center, 2018b). The numbers show that there has been a dramatic shift in generational workforce participation, and with it comes the plausibility of different generational sentiments towards reciprocal activities. Due to this shift in workplace generational representation, it has become pertinent to explore the topic of reciprocity within the confines of generational feeling. As the American

workplace changes, so do the business procurement strategies that the labor force chooses to engage in. As a matter of practical application, this study is constructed to identify if there is an emergent need to incorporate strategies away from those grounded in reciprocity and social capital.

Statement of Research Problem

Within the construct of social capital lies a crucial theoretical concept that has influenced business: the norm of reciprocity. As business professionals send referrals/leads to one another through mutually beneficial business transactions, researchers have shown that organizational leaders do so in a calculative, thoughtful, and impersonal manner (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015). Other researchers have postulated that reciprocity, found through social interactions, can act as a means of gaining a richer network and economic prosperity (Putnam, 2000). A traditional means of acquiring business through reciprocal transactions has been membership in social and service organizations; however, many of these groups are now faced with declining membership numbers as opposed to 40 years ago (Putnam, 2000). As these networking stalwarts begin to fade away, there arise many questions about the use of personal and organizational reciprocity among professionals in the current American marketplace.

Though some studies have been done on the effectiveness of reciprocity and organizational social capital within different demographic groups (Putnam, 2009), little research has been found to better understand the attitudes and importance of professional reciprocity across multiple generations/age groups of working professionals. This research study will attempt to understand this area better while improving on both a theoretical and practical understanding of reciprocal generational sentiments (Kolm,

1994). As many business organizations employ a multiple-generation workforce, the exploration of preferences and shared ideals/values based on generational identities has become an important subject matter (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt, & Gade, 2012; Urick, 2012; Woods, 2016). Further exploration of generational labor force attitudes towards reciprocity is needed to identify how businesses can seek methods of acquiring new revenue streams while being cognizant of generation sentiments regarding this topic.

Research Questions

The research question for this study is:

RQ1 - How do professionals feel about reciprocity?

There are two related, yet independent hypotheses for this study. The primary hypothesis analyzes whether generational identities/groupings are correlated:

H₁: The generational identity of professionals has a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity.

H₀: The generational identity of professionals does not have a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity.

The secondary hypothesis seeks to determine, what (if any) measurable differences are identified in the results derived from this research:

H₂: There are significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity.

H₃: There are not significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity.

In this research, the respective generational identities act as independent variables; whereas, the sentiment of reciprocity (both negative and positive) acts as the dependent

directional variables. Differences, for the purpose of this study, are identified in relation to sentiments of negative reciprocity and/or positive reciprocity.

Definition of Terms (Constructs)

- *Baby Boomer* - Members of this generation were born between 1946 and 1964 (ages 54– 72 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- *Generation X* - The members of Generation X (also known as Gen Xers) were people born between the years of 1965 and 1980 (age 38 – 53 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- *Millennial* – This group includes people born between 1981 and 1997 (age 21 – 37 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- *Post-Millennial* – This group includes people born between 1997 and 2012 (age 7 – 21 in 2018)
- *Multi-generational workforce* – The current American workforce is comprised of persons who are representative of each of the three largest generational groups (Baby Boomers, Generations Xers, and Millennials). In 2015, the distribution of these generations in the workforce showed that the Baby Boomers represented nearly 29% of the active workforce, followed by members of Generation X who represented 34%, and the Millennial laborers who represented slightly over 34% (Woods, 2016).
- *Norm of reciprocity* – The norm of reciprocity relies on two complementary principles that aid in maintaining social stability (a) if able and willing, it is appropriate to create a suitable repayment to those that have helped you, and (b) that you should not bring harm to those who have provided you with a previous

benefit (Gouldner, 1960). Some have called this the *golden rule* throughout many societies (Tangpong, Li, & Hung, 2016).

- *Professional* – A relative term based on an individual's understanding and image of who they are (Slay & Smith, 2011), what they do for a living (Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006); constructed through their culmination of values, beliefs, attributes, experience, and motives (Schein, 1978).
- *Service Clubs* – Voluntary membership organizations that bring together people for the purpose of business, philanthropy, and civic betterment based on the power of association (Hall, 2006).
- *Social capital theory* – Theoretical constructs concerning trust both on an interpersonal and institutional (or societal) level grounded in the understanding that personal contributions can be combined to create something that is greater than the sum of its individual parts (Redding & Rowley, 2017).
- *Social networks* – connections that allow for people to recruit one another for the purpose of performing good deeds while paying attention to the welfare of one another based on the norm of reciprocity (Putnam, 2000).
- *Trust (inter-firm relations)* - this is the willingness to rely on an exchange partner rooted in confidence due to a partner's reliability, true intentionality, and expert knowledge (Huang & Wilkinson, 2013).
- *Trust (Trustworthiness)* – “The mutual confidence that no party to an exchange will exploit the other's vulnerability, is today widely regarded as a precondition for competitive success” (Sabel, 1993)

- *Working-age population* – Using a governmental construct, the working age population is defined as persons who range in ages 15 up to age 64 (OECD, 2017). This standard is designed to incorporate working able people from the legal minimum working age of 15 up until a presumed retirement age of 65.

Delimitations

Primarily, this research is a generational study identifying reciprocal sentiments among professionals. Professionals, regardless of industry, are those individuals who understand who they are (Slay & Smith, 2011) and what they do for a living (Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006). This identity is constructed through the culmination of values, beliefs, attributes, experience, and motives of professionals (Schein, 1978). To identify generational sentiments towards reciprocity, the opinions of both current and former working professionals are sought through the completion of a short survey (Appendix A). The perspectives of working age professionals (OECD, 2017) consist mainly of Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980), or Millennials (born between 1981 and 1997). Though once active in the workforce, the viewpoint of past/former working professionals including the Greatest Generation (born between 1901 and 1924) and the Silent Generation (born between 1925 to 1942) (Pew Research Center, 2018a) are also included in this research. Those born in the Greatest Generation, if still working in 2017, would range in age from 93 to 116, while those born in the Silent Generation would range from 75 to 92. Members of these generational age groups represent a small fraction of all participants in the current American workforce. According to the Pew Research Center (2018b), those born in the Silent Generation account for nearly 3.7% of the overall workforce, while those in the

Greatest Generation account for less than 1% of the current workforce. All responses from survey participants will be included in this study regardless of generational identities. The responses of professionals between the ages of 15 to 64 who are actively working remain the primary focus of this study.

The economic repercussions of reciprocity among professionals have been touted in research (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Putnam, 2000). The objective of this research study is to identify if there are quantifiable differences between different generational identities regarding the feelings of reciprocity. Economic power through reciprocity is the stimulus driving this research as it pertains to the different generations within the American workplace. Consistent community/civic involvement based on reciprocity was a highly regarded practice in generations past (Putnam, 2000), and it is worth understanding if this cultural perception/expectation still exists within the current workforce. The study results may be of both theoretical and practical importance to discover if there are differences or similarities among the responses received across the generational spectrum. The responses from the survey in this study are grouped by the age of the participant to identify their appropriate generational population. Apart from using generational age groups to subdivide the working age population, neither a comprehensive analysis of the events that shaped these generations nor an in-depth analysis as to what makes each group uniquely different will take place. The focus of this research is to gain a greater understanding of how each of these generations feels about reciprocity. Though many possible variables can shape the way that these generations view the world (race, religion, gender, ethnicity), these factors fall outside the scope of this research (Schullery, 2013).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions. As a quantitative study using survey data as the primary method of data collection, there are several assumptions used in this research. Primary and most importantly, it is assumed that the survey participants will provide honest answers to the questions being asked. Honest answers increase the reliability of the survey data and research findings. To minimize skewing of the survey data, incentives are not provided to any of the survey respondents in any manner (e.g., prizes, payment, etc.). Secondly, it is assumed that the number of survey participants from each generational identity can provide the necessary information to extrapolate clear and concise conclusions. Membership within the local chamber of commerce is diverse, with professionals who represent several different generations. Lastly, it is assumed that the participants harbor the attitudes and perceptions of the generations that they represent.

Limitations. Even in this small quantitative study, there are several limitations that may affect the overall findings found in this research. It is possible that the data collected in this study could vary if collected in a different geographic area. The information discovered here may only pertain to the specific business climate of Southwestern Idaho, which may cause replication of these findings difficult to accomplish (Wiersma, 2000). Should this study be replicated in the future, other findings could differ depending on the state, region, or demographic makeup of those involved. Those surveyed in this study have been selected based on their membership within a local chamber of commerce only. Data from this population may not be the same as that of non-chamber of commerce professionals; however, that information lies outside the scope of this research. All professionals were encouraged to participate regardless of sex,

gender, or ethnic makeup. The only defining factor that is used to designate the appropriate generational grouping is age. Professionals working in for-profit industries, not for profit organizations, and government employees are all invited to participate in this survey. Even as some studies have shown that reciprocity can be completely independent of economic incentives (Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi, & Ercolani, 2002), this research is focused on the attitudes of professionals who often seek economic maximization based on reciprocal behavior.

The technology used in this study may be a contributing factor to the willingness of participants to join this study. The methodology of data collection uses digital survey invitations and an online collection of responses from study participants. As a paper-based survey is not available, this may deter some professionals who are not active Internet users to participate. According to the Pew Research Center (2018c), nearly 11% of Americans are not Internet users, many of whom are in a demographic outside of the scope of this study, but some who may be still active in the workforce. The use of e-mail distribution as a platform for a survey invitation may also create an unintentional exclusion of participants, as some business professionals may not use e-mail nor Internet. With participants being invited to take the survey via e-mail, there is a possibility that many of those invited will choose to disregard the opportunity to complete this short questionnaire.

Significance of Study

The goal of this research study is to produce essential and valuable information in both theory and the practice of business administration. As a matter of theoretical importance, the findings of this study may increase the body of knowledge in two

primary theoretical constructs (a) generational understanding and (b) the norm of reciprocity. Researchers have argued that the significance of generational differences in the workplace are important for business organizations to understand in terms of motivation, communication, and functionality (Urlick, 2012). The knowledge gained through this research may also increase understanding in the areas of organizational social capital, and professional exchange activities. Many of the studies regarding these fields categorize professionals and organizational actors as a monolith, void of comprehensive generational attributes. This goal of this study seeks to identify if the attitudes of business professionals differ from one another based on the generational identity. In other words, the goal is to discover if actors within an organization perceive reciprocity similarly or differently than their peers of different age groups. As postulated by researchers, the findings of this study may aid in identifying professional performance through social capital (Oliveria, 2013). In terms of business operations, this intent of this study aims to provide valuable insight and information to managers who subscribe to the idea that membership in business groups will generate revenue through networking efforts based on reciprocity. By becoming aware of specific patterns of reciprocal preferences within generational groups, the finding of this study may help organizational leaders make decisions that can ultimately affect their organizational future (Woods, 2016).

Researcher's Perspective

As a Millennial business professional, this research provides information that is of theoretical, practical, and personal importance. Having spent the past 15 years in the competitive financial sales industry, it seems that professionals are always trying to tap

into a new market to sell their products and services. Some of the traditional mechanisms for generating business such as heavy use of referrals, business-to-business networking, and social club membership are not yielding the same economic results that they did a decade ago. The big question is “*why?*” Being a business manager, the findings of this research may aid business leaders to decide if it is prudent to continue using reciprocity-based sales techniques as has been done for years in the American marketplace or change course. These findings may show that generational perceptions are all similar regardless of grouping, or they have changed over the past several decades and that new avenues of generating business must be discovered. Upon discovering the sentiments of these professionals through a lens of generational understanding, the findings of this research may aid managers in identifying those operations that demonstrate the potential for an economic promise.

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review

As research on generational identities has become prevalent in academia, many researchers argue that it is essential to examine the changing demographic of the American workforce representation (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Woods, 2016). Never in the history of the United States have there ever been this many generations working side-by-side as there are now (Milligan, 2014; Pita, 2012; Putnam, 2009; Stilwell, 2014). Putnam (2000) presented an in-depth understanding of generational characteristics that addressed many of the societal issues relating to politics, civic engagement, voting, and education in his seminal treatise, *Bowling Together*. One area that Putnam (2000) discusses is how civic engagement is tied to reciprocal activities that aid in strengthening bonds within the community. Reciprocity is not strictly limited to the discipline of business, but rather span across several areas including psychology, sociology, economics, and ethics. Even as reciprocity is the primary focus of this project, a review of the pertinent literature has shown that there are several logical components that strongly influence reciprocity within a professional setting. Those underlying foundations which contribute to the understanding of networking among business professionals include (a) comprehending the characteristics of diverse multi-generational workforce including the attributes of each participating generation, (b) the norm of generalized reciprocity (positive and negative), (c) attributes of organizational reciprocity (inter-organizational trust, relational social capital, and competitive advantage), and (d) ethical risks associated with these exchanges.

Multi-Generational Workforce

In general, groupings based on the era in which people are born who experience the same historical events at the same time is the basis for generational categorization (Taylor, 2018). Attributes of these groups are broad generalizations and not a strict description of everyone born within their corresponding periods, as each individual is unique (Stutzer, 2019; Thompson & Gregory, 2012). Generational shifts do not occur suddenly from one year to the next, but rather there is a gradual change over time, impacting the overall identity of members within the cohort (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). These identities are most easily identified due to the historical distance between them (Roberts, 2012). Generations working alongside one another is not a new concept in business, but it has become a widely popular area of research (Woods, 2016). The current workforce contains one of the most diverse demographic of professionals who represent many generational eras (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Costanza et al., 2012; Stutzer, 2019). Enter any fast-food or big box retailer, and it likely to see employees ranging from teenagers to retirees working together. Even though individuals who actively participate in the modern workforce may work well with their multigenerational colleagues, researchers have demonstrated that there are definite differences in managerial and employee expectations stemming from each generation (Thompson & Gregory, 2012).

As previously defined, this study will focus primarily on working multi-generational professionals who represent each of the five active generational groups in the American workforce. In 2015 the distribution of these generations in the workforce showed that the Baby Boomers represented nearly 29% of the active workforce, followed

by members of Generation X who represented 34%, and the Millennial laborers who represented slightly over 34% (Woods, 2016). In 2018, these numbers changed slightly, Millennials at 35% of the overall market with 56 million workers (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Generation Xers at 33% of the workplace population with 53 million workers, and Baby Boomers now at 25% of the workforce with 41 million participants (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Due to workers retiring and/or leaving the workforce, the Silent Generation contributes less than 2% of the working age population (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Post-Millennials, meaning those born from 1997 to 2012 account for less than 5% of the working age population, or 9 million workers (Pew Research Center, 2018b). Using a respected understanding, the birth years and age ranges of the five major generations are:

- The Silent Generation - This group includes people born between 1925 to 1942 (ages 73 to 93 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- Baby Boomers - Members of this generation were born between 1946 and 1964 (ages 54– 72 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- Generation X - The members of Generation X (also known as Gen Xers) were people born between the years of 1965 and 1980 (age 38 – 53 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- Generation Y/Millennials – This group includes people born between 1981 and 1997 (age 21 – 37 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018a).
- Generation Z/Post-Millennials - This group includes people born between 1997 through 2012 (age 6 – 21 in 2018) (Pew Research Center, 2018d).

There is consensus among researchers regarding the birth years for those in the Silent Generation and Baby Boomers, however there is some disagreement as to the birth years for Generation X, Millennials, and Post-Millennials (Harris, 2017; Schullery, 2013).

With a shifting generational workforce, some researchers are calling for organizations to implement plans for proper knowledge transfer between age groups to ensure retention of necessary operating information (Woods, 2016). For business professionals, this means learning the critical aspects of business operations from experienced practitioners. Regarding leadership, Millennials place significant emphasis on feedback and value personal relationships with their managers (Thompson & Gregory, 2012) as opposed to Generation X workers who seek greater job satisfaction through autonomy in their work (Yu & Miller, 2005). Baby Boomers however would prefer a directive-based leadership style from their superiors (Arsenault, 2004). Thompson and Gregory (2012) have also argued that where Baby Boomers and Generation Xers demonstrated loyalty to their employer, Millennial business professionals do not seem to possess this same level of allegiance. Millennials seem to expect organizations to actively engage employees in retention efforts (Thompson & Gregory, 2012). As workplace preferences have varied from generation to generation, it is evident that awareness of these patterns can influence the future of many organizations (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Woods, 2016). Generational identities of each group differ from one another not only by age, but also workplace characteristics and expectations. Research into characteristic of the five generations actively involved in the American workforce have shown the following (Table 1):

Table 1*The Realm of Supervision*

Generation	Date Range	Population	Characteristics
Traditionalists (Silent Generation)	Born 1922 to 1946	55 million (52 to 62 million)	Loyal & Respectful of Authority, Hardworking
Baby Boomers	Born 1946 to 1964 or 1944 to 1964	76 million (80 million)	Optimistic, Team & Service Oriented
Generation X (Busters)	Born 1965 to 1976 or 1965 to 1980	50 million	Cynical, Informal, Direct, Want Life Work Balance
Millennials (Generation Y)	Born 1977 to 1995 (1981 to 1994) (1982 to 2000)	80 million (70 million)	Confident, Assertive, Like Praise, Supervision and Structure
IGen (Gen Z, Digital Natives, or Centennials)	Born 1996 & later or (after 1994)	23 million (as of 2017)	Less focused, Better Multi-taskers, Early Starters, Has Higher Expectation, Big on Individuality

Note: R. Harris, 2017, National Research Bureau

These changing expectations have begun to affect civic organization which once heavily influenced the business culture of local communities. In previous generations, social organizations (e.g., Eagles Lodge, BPOE, etc.) and community service organizations (e.g., Kiwanis, Exchange Club, etc.) were comprised of business professionals; however, today many of these traditional entities are struggling to survive with few young professionals joining (Arnett, 2014; Green Valley News Staff, 2015; Serven, 2016).

Generational Identities

The characteristics and attributes of each of these generational constructs is not haphazard, but rather defined by several differentiating factors. The study of generations goes beyond specific birth years, but rather it encompasses a wide understanding of generational identity, and the impact that these generations have on their members. Succinctly, generational identities are described as a genealogical based kinship (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). Researchers have identified several major elements that are

incorporated in the constructs of generational identities (Heyns & Kerr, 2018; Urick, 2012) are formed. From a social perspective, the principal forces that shape generalization identity are: individuals who are born within similar historical contexts (Lyons & Kuron, 2014), have common experiences (Costanza et al., 2012; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Schullery, 2013), lived through similar major political/natural disasters/economic events (Costanza et al., 2012; Schullery, 2013; Stutzer, 2019), and shared in technological advancements during formative years (Milligan, 2014; Schullery, 2013; Stutzer, 2019). These shared understandings create a loose knit cohort of people who can relate to one another based on their commonalities (Costanza et al., 2012; Seipert & Baghurst, 2014). Researchers have argued that the forces which shape generational identity are strongest during maturity from childhood to adolescence (Schullery, 2013; Twenge et al., 2010). Researchers Strauss and Howe (1991) identified and defined a generation as “a cohort-group whose length approximates the span of a phase of life and whose boundaries are fixed by peer personality” (p.60).

These genealogical kinships (Lyons & Kuron, 2014) provide more than just a common set of shared experiences, as these identities have been shown to affect many areas in the lives of those represented by each group. Researchers have discovered that generational identity shapes: intrinsic values (Dunn, 2018; Urick, 2012), extrinsic values (Twenge et al., 2010), motivations (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Heyns & Kerr, 2018), attitudes (Stutzer, 2019), work ethic/advancement (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Milligan, 2014), workplace behavior (Heyns & Kerr, 2018), career expectations (Dunn, 2018), media use (Pita, 2012), communication expectations (Stutzer, 2019), methods of learning (Milligan, 2014), and use of technology (Schullery, 2013). The era that one is

born into does not necessarily define their personal beliefs, however these beliefs are influenced by the era in which one was raised. Other non-generational forces that can heavily influence a person can include race, gender, religion, and ethnicity (Schullery, 2013). These forces are not explored further in this study however as they are beyond the scope of this research.

Generational identities are not created to cause division per se, but rather to identify key characteristics and commonalities shared by the members of each group. Not all members of each generation will share the same values, expectations, work ethic, etc.; however, common characteristics among these groups are the basis for their differentiation. What is important to note is that each individual is unique and may have an outlook that is completely dissimilar from those of their peers (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Stutzer, 2019). In research, it is important to minimize the perpetuation of unfounded stereotypes. (Lyons & Kuron, 2014), as these can be harmful to the academic understanding of generational identities. Between the five generations that encompass the current American workforce, there are distinct defining events and characteristics that have been instrumental in shaping different generational identities. The shared experiences that those of similar ages have influenced the worldview of many of these individuals. Differences in age, experience, and workplace expectations may bring diversity to many organizations, and in doing so create the need for unique managerial approaches to effectively work with those of various generations (Harris, 2017). Working in a multi-generational workforce also allows managers to learn from their diverse employees and gather information on how to lead within a business family (Harris, 2017). In a multi-generational workforce study, Stutzer (2019) presented the

following information regarding significant characteristics and attributes of generational identities (Table 2):

Table 2		
<i>The 5 Generations</i>		
Generation	Defining Events	Characteristics
Silent (1928-1945) 2% of general workforce	Born during the Great Depression (hardship) War-based economy Threat of nuclear war Middle class emerges Families lived on one income	Believe sacrifice and hard work are rewarded Value loyalty, respect authority Expect rewards for hard work Believe on everyone following the rules Expect the rewards of loyalty in retirement
Baby Boomers (1946-1964) 29% of general workforce	Vietnam War Civil Rights movement Space race, walk on the moon Assassinations of JFK and MLK Access to TV and world-changing events Members of smaller families Usually 2-parent homes Father worked, and mother stayed at home	Work = personal fulfillment and self-worth Have deep-seated idealism Have workaholic tendencies Lack conformity to old rules Learn to question authority and status quo Enjoy recognition Are team players
Generation X (1965-1980) 34% of general workforce	AIDS epidemic, Women's movement Roe v Wade, Watergate, Challenger explosion Fall of Berlin Wall Massacre in Tiananmen Square Usually 2-career households 40% grew up in divorced households Lack of infrastructure - "latchkey" kids	Expect quick success in employment Want money and have job satisfaction Can be cynical and pragmatic Are loyal to profession. Will not compromise personal, professional, or family well-being Learn to manage at a young age Learn to be cautious Are self-reliant and independent Are comfortable with technology
Millennials (Generation Y; 1981-1997) Greater than 34% of general workforce	Violence and terrorism, e.g., September 11, and Columbine, Princess Diana's death More members than the Baby Boomers Grown up in global world - multicultural 60% with homes where both parents work Structured and scheduled world	Are more racially, ethnically diverse than Are more educated Are more technologically sophisticated Are achievement oriented, multitaskers Are motivated, group oriented, network Are civic minded Seek work-life balance Accept divergent values Exhibit patriotism and commitment
Post Millennial (Generation Z; 1997-) 1% of general workforce	Do not know a world without terrorism Exposed to the suffering of natural disasters such as Hurricane Katrina, Haitian earthquake visually and in real time Never lived without computer or cell phone Internet age - Easy access to information Read less, sleep less, close to family	Seek autonomy in the workplace Are confident but cautious Are currently students

Note: K. Stutzer, 2019, American Association of Critical-Care Nurses. (Abridged for relevance)

Additionally, as these generations have been shaped by unique historical/political/natural events, the expectations of each cohort differ from one another. Lieber (2010) has argued that the difference in values and belief systems between generations may be a cause of workplace conflict. This friction is attributed to the unique opinions and characteristics of each generation, even in areas where there is possible overlap (Lieber, 2010). For example, in terms of workforce expectation in communication and recognition, Stutzer (2019) argues the following (Table 3):

Table 3			
<i>Understanding generational preferences</i>			
Generation	Communication preferences	Coaching preferences	Recognition preferences
Silent	Formal Face to face Written	One-to-one coaching Value formal instructions	Handwritten notes/plaques
Baby Boomers	Less formal Face to face Group processing	Peer-to-peer coaching	Motivated by public recognition
Generation X	Use of technology Direct and succinct	See coach as partner Want to demonstrate expertise	Paid time off Participation in cutting-edge projects
Millennials (Generation Y)	Quick feedback Team discussions Read less	Seek structure and guidance Value internships	Personal feedback Flexible scheduling
Post Millennial (Generation Z)	Technology driven Text and e-mail	Will facilitate self-reflection/evaluation Locate information as needed	Seek instant feedback

Note: K. Stutzer, 2019, American Association of Critical-Care Nurses. (Abridged for relevance)

Again, these are not finite absolutes for everyone, only a common understanding of the preferences exhibited by many professionals within each of these generational groups.

The findings of past researchers have been clear in identifying key events that shaped each generation and common characteristics of many cohort members. These tables provide a glimpse into the identifying details surrounding each cohort, but do not expand on the social, economic, and value structures of each generation. There exists a

considerable amount of literature relating to multi-generational research (Costanza et al., 2012; Harmon, Webster, & Weyenberg, 1999) and to gain a clearer perspective on these attributes it is necessary to briefly explore some of the characteristics for each generational identity. These descriptions are a high-level overview of key factors which researchers have identified as characteristics each generational cohort.

The Silent Generation/Traditionalists/Matures (Born 1922-1946). Born prior/during World War II, and reared in the heart of the Great Depression, the Silent Generation/Traditionalists were preceded by those who have come to be known as the Greatest Generation (Brokaw, 2005). Data has shown that many Traditionalists have been late adopters of technology contributing to 5% of the internet using population (Pita, 2012). From a historical perspective, many in this generational identity grew up not with television or digital media, but rather Traditionalist families grew up gathering around the radio as a source of both information and entertainment (Schullery, 2013). Education for Silent Generation focused on a rigid notion that there was only one way of learning while being overtly facts oriented (Koeller, 2012). Those who came of age during the WWII era were instilled with the values of focusing on *giving back* as a means of contributing for the betterment of society (Kaye, 2012). It was those who grew up in this generation that took on instrumental roles later in life as civil rights leaders, politicians, and distinguished statesman (Kaye, 2012).

Growing up during times of economic hardship and frugality, this generation is often characterized by the strong work ethic and workplace loyalty of its members (Milligan, 2014). It has been postulated that this generation earned their moniker from the notion that individuals within this age group would prioritize working hard while

saying almost nothing at all (Stilwell, 2014). This work ethic was arguably grounded in the belief that a person would have one career path and often only one employer until retirement (Milligan, 2014). This hard work mentality has paid off however, as this generation was responsible for changing the outcome of many standing economic trends. In a 2014 study, Stilwell argues that the Silent Generation were the first generation to turn the demographics of poverty around for Americans 65 and older. For decades, those over 65 were the demographic with largest number of people living in poverty. By 2013 this trend was reversed with Americans over 65 being the smallest share of those living in poverty (9.5% of the population). Additionally, Stilwell (2014) found that through proper planning and an aversion to risk, this generation positioned themselves as the wealthiest old generation in history. Due to age and an overall decrease in population numbers, many of those from the Silent Generation are no longer active in the workforce.

The Baby Boomers (Born 1946-1964). Once the largest generational bloc in the American workforce, the Baby Boomer (Boomers) generation was the product of a post-WWII economy defined by rapid population growth created through an increase in the domestic birthrate (Badley, Canizares, Perruccio, Hogg-Johnson, & Gignac, 2015). This moniker formed due to a sustained increase in births which lasted over two decades, from the mid-1940s to the mid-1960s (Badley et al., 2015). Boomers are traditionally identified within two micro-generations known as the Golden Generation/Leading Boomers (early Baby Boomers born between 1946 to 1954) and the Trailing Boomers (born 1955 to 1964). This generation grew up in an era that was much different from that of their Traditionalist counterparts. Badley, et. al. (2015) postulates that this was the first generation to grow up in an era of increased educational opportunities, a time where the

role of women in society was changing, and in an era where there was greater access to health care than in previous generations. Growing up in a fruitful environment has caused Boomers to expect a constant increase in living standards, a focus on peace between nations, promotion of self-expression, equality among people (regardless of gender, position, family structure, and ethnic/racial makeup) (Roberts, 2012).

Compared to those in both the Silent and Greatest Generations, Baby Boomers were the original “Me Generation” as they were keenly focused on career (Twenge et al., 2010), wealth, recognitions (Koeller, 2012) and personal appearance (Harmon et al., 1999). This generation seems to focus on extrinsic rewards by being materialists and focusing on status, even earning the epithet of *yuppie*, a nickname for young professional Baby Boomers of the 1980’s (Twenge et al., 2010). This generation has not lost sight of their values in their financial planning either, as their portfolios show an emphasis on investing in companies that embrace both corporate social responsibility and environmental issues (Okere, Latiff-Zaman, & Maloney, 2008). Education for this generation incorporated group cooperation and team focus projects, while allowing for greater critical thinking and focusing less focused on facts (Koeller, 2012). This generation has been slightly more accepting of digital technology as Leading Boomers (older) and Trailing Boomers (younger) are make up 33% of all internet users.

Compared to younger generations (Generation X, Y, & Post-Millennials), Baby Boomers have demonstrated greater concern on the topics of health, financial planning, governmental issues, and personal leisure activities (Harmon et al., 1999). This generation has been described as being optimistic (Harris, 2017; Mellan & Christie, 2017), a value that has been attributed to the defining events that shaped their cohort

worldview. Boomers grew to prominence during one of the longest bull markets in American history, they witnessed the moon landing, and lived through the cultural revolution of the late 1960's (e.g. Summer of Love) (Mellan & Christie, 2017). Boomers understand the power of social responsibility which is related to their desire to fight the establishment (Milligan, 2014). Determination and hard work were defining characteristics of this generation, and from them arose the term *workaholic*, the belief that one's work ethic should be visible to others (Mellan & Christie, 2017). With hard work comes wealth, and from wealth come expenditures, and the Boomers poses unmatched power to spend compared to other generations (Okere et al., 2008). According to Harmon, et. al., (1999), Baby Boomers more freely spent money than other past generations. In 2017, while this cohort accounted for 25% of the overall US population, they still accounted for nearly 50% of all spending (Mellan & Christie, 2017). Due to such a large percentage of the overall population, businesses took notice of Baby Boomer expectations and began to tailor their message to entice this generation. Entire industries began tailoring marketing campaigns to the specific needs to Boomers, e.g. the hotel/motel industry, cruise lines, and the luxury car market. According to Mellan & Christie (2017), individuals within this grouping are part of the wealthiest generation ever, and are poised to transfer nearly \$30 million to their children and heirs. Even as many Baby Boomers have already begun to retire, nearly 75% of Boomers are still working, many in senior management positions.

Generation X (Born 1965-1980). Unlike the Baby Boomers who were born into a two decade period of an unprecedented population growth, Generation Xers come from a shorter period (1965 to 1980) with lower population numbers than their predecessors

(Baby Boomers) and successors (Millennials) (Lankford, 2019). This age group has come to be known as the sandwich generation (Poo, 2017), the Baby Busters (Whitehouse & Steele Flippin, 2017), America's neglected middle child (Lankford, 2019), the lost generation (Maneval & Pike, 2016), and the MTV or latchkey generation (Dannefer & Feldman, 2017). The life experiences shared by this cohort were very different from those of their Baby Boomer predecessors. Where Boomers grew up in an era of sustained economic prosperity, those in Gen X lived through economic turbulence in both their youth and later as adults during the Great Recession (Lankford, 2019). The economic uncertainty which has defined this cohort makes Generation X the first group to make less than their parents and need to move back home in hopes of meeting basic financial obligations (Fuentes-Mayorga & Burgos, 2017). This population is often considered the most impoverished America generation due to erratic economic conditions (Taylor, 2018). In a 2014 study, only 42% of Gen Xers were optimistic that they would be able to achieve greater economic success than their parents (David, Gelfeld, & Rangel, 2017). Where Baby Boomers expected to be loyal to their employer and expect loyalty in return, the Generation X population were first-hand witnesses to corporate downsizing and job loss more so than any previous generation (Twenge et al., 2010).

Not only have economics impacted this generation, but so have dramatic social changes. The traditional family structure of generations past (a two-parent home where father worked outside of the home, and mother was a homemaker) underwent dramatic changes. Many Gen Xers grew up in dual earning or even single parent families (Dannefer & Feldman, 2017), walking home from school and being alone for hours (Milligan, 2014), and living in a culture where divorce was becoming commonplace

(Twenge et al., 2010). This lack of supervision/neglect in childhood (Dannefer & Feldman, 2017) shaped the independent and self-reliant attitude of many Gen Xers (Twenge et al., 2010). This independence is prevalent in workplace dynamics as those from this generational identity tend to be happy in taking on individual projects, working with minimal supervision, and demonstrating a disdain for being told what to do (Milligan, 2014).

Much like a shifting home life that affected Generation X, the business landscape also underwent several changes in the transition from Baby Boomers to Gen Xers. Those in this age group are far more likely to job hop than prior generations, are less committed to being loyal to one organization, and are strong proponents of seeking work-life balance (Twenge et al., 2010). Even so, these generational representatives are known as workhorses who have low expectations of their employers, but aim for high achievement (Dannefer & Feldman, 2017). Prior to Millennials entering the workforce, Gen Xers were the most highly criticized and misunderstood population by previous generations (Taylor, 2018). When the early members of this generation entered into the workforce, many employers rewarded loyalty with incentives like a retirement pension, this changed however with the corporate shift to non-guaranteed 401K and IRA plans (Lankford, 2019). According to Lankford (2019), it is important to understand that Generation Xers who were affected by this shift in business practices started the process of saving for retirement later than their successor generations giving them a disadvantage to meeting their financial goals for retirement. Additionally, it is important to note that when 401K retirement plans were first implemented in the 1990s, they were much different than today. Corporate contribution matches were rare, fees were high, target mutual funds

did not exist, and the primary investment vehicle in many of these plans were low yielding money market savings (Lankford, 2019). These types of issues are a fundamental reason as to why Generation Xers are considered cynical about their financial security in retirement (Mellan & Christie, 2017) and many feel that the future is hopeless (Koeller, 2012).

Technologically speaking, this population were early adopters of digital advancements earning the label of being *tech savvy* (Twenge et al., 2010). They account for 21% of the overall internet using population (Pita, 2012), and are the first generation to use television as their primary advertising medium (Harmon et al., 1999). Unlike past eras, this is the first population to grow up with television and technology in the classroom (Koeller, 2012). GenX prefers to learn through hands on education, while integrating the desire to make learning fun (Milligan, 2014). As they grew older, this generation has become accustomed to using e-mail and social media in various facets of their lives (Pita, 2012). Inspired by early technological exposure, Gen X visionaries have permanently changed the way that information is accessed, how business can be conducted virtually, and the use of social networks as a prominent news source for many Americans (Whitehouse & Steele Flippin, 2017). Companies like Google, Twitter, and MySpace were all founded by Generation Xers who embraced and reinvented the landscape of internet technology (Whitehouse & Steele Flippin, 2017). Members of this cohort seem to reject the mainstream cultural expectations of the Baby Boomers, and have a greater awareness to racial, ethnic, and gender diversity (Katz, 2017). This awareness created a focus on relationship over loyalty (Koeller, 2012) and evident in using technology to create person-to-person interactions.

Generation Y/Millennials (Born 1981-1994). As the largest generation represented in the American workforce, Generation Y, most commonly referred to as Millennials, have become the most diverse and most researched generational cohort of all time (Taylor, 2018). There has been much research regarding how different Millennials is from past generations (Fronstin & Dretzka, 2018). Unlike the previous generation where children were left to be independent, Millennials were raised in an environment with very involved parents regardless of family structure (Koeller, 2012). According to Howe and Strauss (2000), this cohort is the healthiest, most cared for, and most protected generation in the history of the United States. This focus on personal needs has earned this generation the nicknames of GenMe, nGen (Twenge et al., 2010), Nexters (Lyons & Kuron, 2014), and Generation Go (Rochman, 2018). This generational cohort has not been immune from criticism by those that came before them, but rather they have been often categorized as protected, fragile, and praised without merit (Milligan, 2014). Further, this generation is often negatively stereotyped as being entitled, self-centered, optimistic, and grounded in individualism (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). This optimism stems from the idea that a person can accomplish anything that they put their mind to and without limit; an idea that can create unrealistic expectations (Taylor, 2018).

Researchers Howe and Strauss (2000), argue that this cohort has been the most protected generation in history by claiming that Millennials “have been buckled, watched, fussed over, and fenced in by wall-to wall rules and chaperones” (p. 116). They further postulate this cohort has been treated as *special* their entire lives and brought up in an environment where Millennials are under constant pressure to succeed, thus creating the mentality that everyone gets a trophy for participating (Howe & Strauss,

2000). As with any generation, these descriptions are not an accurate description of each cohort representative, but rather prototypical of this generation (Lyons & Kuron, 2014).

Not all characteristics of Millennials have a negative connotation associated with them. Most members of this group have grown up in an environment where internet connectivity (being *wired*) has emerged as a way of life, creating a cohort of tech savvy individuals who are accustomed to having limitless amounts of information at their fingertips (Abrams, 2018; Taylor, 2018; Twenge et al., 2010). This is a generation that came to age with social media and cellular phones, which could explain why many in this group take technology for granted (Taylor, 2018). From an education standpoint, this cohort is considered to have had more access to education than any other generation before them (Pita, 2012; Taylor, 2018). Educational access has given Millennials the opportunity to succeed by embracing a variety of different teaching methods, including online and hybrid courses rather than in-person only instruction (Koeller, 2012). As a population who was raised with the integration of the internet age (Abrams, 2018), this generation is responsible for 35% of the total internet user population (Pita, 2012). Members of this generation have a tendency to process information faster than previous generations, prefer to use e-mail, engage in social media, and favor short bursts of digital information in the workplace (Milligan, 2014).

Researchers have argued that workplace technology is one of the leading attractors for Millennials who are seeking out employment (Costanza et al., 2012). Workplace expectations by Gen Y are considerably different from their predecessors. Researchers have found that many in this generation value meaningful/purposeful work and a defined work-life balance with ample leisure time more than they do a large

paycheck (Rochman, 2018; Taylor, 2018; Twenge et al., 2010). Generally this generation is very civic conscious as well (Rochman, 2018; Taylor, 2018). As a result of their higher level of education when compared to older generations, Millennials feel stereotypically entitled to be promoted in a quick fashion and expect upward mobility through the corporate ranks at an accelerated rate (Heyns & Kerr, 2018; Milligan, 2014; Rochman, 2018). While older generations may perceive this need for rapid promotion as a way to avoid *paying your dues* to earn a leadership position (Milligan, 2014), several studies have found that Generation Y members are committed to their careers and work long hours (Rochman, 2018). Unlike Boomers and Gen X however, Millennial prefer a greater level of workplace flexibility (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Rochman, 2018; Stutzer, 2019; Taylor, 2018; Twenge et al., 2010). Coincidentally, even with the desire for flexibility and promotion, this cohort has a greater desire for active supervision and managerial support/coaching from their managers more than those from generations past (Abrams, 2018; Stutzer, 2019; Taylor, 2018; Twenge et al., 2010).

Having lived through the several episodes of economic instability, creating a difficult employment market for them (Andra, 2019; Milligan, 2014), Millennials do not give loyalty to their employer nor do they expect it in return (Taylor, 2018). Similarly to Gen Xers, this age group is more likely to have several job changes and employers throughout their career (Taylor, 2018). This is a generation that wants to be appreciated as a valued partner within an organizational context, rather than a cog in a wheel (Abrams, 2018). One major workplace benefit that is valued by this group more than most is access to healthcare and wellness programs (Fronstin & Dretzka, 2018; Rochman, 2018). Heyns and Kerr (2018) have found that to retain and reduce turnover of

Millennial employees, it is essential that organizations create an environment that provides both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. As older generations leave the workforce, Millennial leaders are taking on roles that will change the types of benefits offered by the companies, and retain members of this cohort (Rochman, 2018).

Generation Z/Post-Millennials (Born 1997-2012). As the newest and youngest generation to enter the workforce, literature on this cohort is beginning to emerge. Until recently most of those in this population were children (Southgate, 2017). This generation has also been categorized as IGen, Homelanders (Pew Research Center, 2018D), the post-millennials, centennials, and pivots (Southgate, 2017). As the demographics of the United States have changed over the last several decades, this cohort is poised to become more racially/ethnically diverse, less likely to be immigrants, and have a higher likelihood of living in a metropolitan area than those of previous generations. Unlike Millennials who grew up as the internet evolved from its infancy into an interconnected global network, Gen Z has never lived in a world without internet and are considered digital natives by researchers (Harris, 2017; Mondres, 2019; Persada, Miraja, & Nadlifatin, 2019). This is the first generation to grow up with a smartphone rather than a landline (Southgate, 2017), online gaming as foundation for social engagement (Puiu, 2017), and they always been exposed to digital learning platforms as part of their education (Persada et al., 2019). In relation to technology and differing from past generations, this group of individuals feels that the internet is not a privilege, but rather a human right and that connectivity is a necessity in life (Puiu, 2017). The need for digital interconnectedness is a resonating theme within the early findings on this generation.

This generation will most likely become more educated than their Millennial counterparts and become the best educated cohort in the history of the United States as they grow older (Pew Research Center, 2018d). Unlike Millennials who are straddled with student loans, many members of Generation Z have become somewhat skeptical of traditional educational organizations and are cautious of taking on any debt to finance their education (Mondres, 2019). This cautiousness to mitigate educational debt does not correlate to greater financial success however, as data shows that only 58% of Generation Z adults have been able to find employment within the last year (Pew Research Center, 2018d). Economically speaking, this generation tends to be brand loyal regardless of price (Google, Apple, Amazon, etc.), are more willing to use digital sales channels than their older peers, and heavily consider the corporate social responsibility activities of the organizations that they patronize (Puiu, 2017).

In 2015 it was estimated that the buying power Gen Z was in excess of \$44 billion and growing they are poised to become the largest generation in the future (Mondres, 2019). This cohort has developed the stereotypes of spending on indulgences rather than necessities, being ill equipped to responsibly handle their finances, and they share a communal stress in securing gainful employment (Mondres, 2019). Economic indicators have shown however that Post-Millennial members are living a slightly more affluent lifestyle than Millennial and Gen X cohorts before them when compared at similar ages (Pew Research Center, 2018d). As more Post-Millennials enter the workforce and further research is completed on this age group, a fuller description of common generational characteristics is more likely to be ascertained. Due to their young age, a majority of all

research completed on this age group thus far has been quantitative in nature (Southgate, 2017).

Norm of Reciprocity

Attempting to understand the primary foundations of cooperation among people is a central theme in the behavioral science disciplines (Gächter & Herrmann, 2009) including sociology, economics, political science, psychology. (Perugini et al., 2002). The concept of reciprocity has been researched for decades, and yet much division still exists as to the precise definition and scope of this concept as it is clouded in ambiguity (Gouldner, 1960). In showing how reciprocity has significant societal importance within historical and social structures, Becker (1956) argued that humans are reciprocal (*homo reciprocus*) without ever defining the term reciprocity. Building upon the work of Becker (1956), in his seminal treatise, *The Norm of Reciprocity*, Gouldner (1960) identified one aspect of cooperation under a theory known as the norm of reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) postulated that reciprocity supersedes cultural relativism as a universal truth, requiring two interconnected demands (a) people should help those who have helped them and (b) people should not injure those who have helped them (p. 171).

The moral claim in this theory suggests that to function as a society, it is necessary to pay back or reciprocate to those that have helped an individual at some later point in time, while never intentionally harming those who have assisted in the past. Rather than taking a subjective approach, a counterargument could be made this that there lies objective truth in cooperation based on assistance that people can provide to one another. Superseding cultural relativism, this norm functions in a way that can be evident in all moral codes throughout the world (Gouldner, 1960). Current research has

further substantiated this claim and argued that this theory could be characterized as an internalized social norm (Perugini et al., 2002). Within this conceptual framework lies the understanding that cooperation is based on a pattern of exchanges of actions and obligations for repayment. This norm, he argues, is a fundamental mechanism in societal stability. The universality of this norm is not specifically questioned; however, contemporary research has found the magnitude of reciprocity, and the degree at which it is practiced can vary between different cultures and societies (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

This norm, having both personal and inter-organizational implications, can be relevant in social networks, especially in the business world. Gouldner (1960) argued that organizations can partner together to create sustainable and long-term competitive advantage among their competitors. These pairs or networks of reciprocal firms can use their cooperation to increase profitability while working together in a mutually beneficial manner. At the firm level, the norm of reciprocity allows for both increased collaboration while mitigating against organizational injury created by organizational network stability (Gouldner, 1960). One of the potential issues identified by this norm at both the individual and firm level is the potential that people/organizations will only enter relationships with others that can reciprocate while unintentionally neglecting the needs of those that genuinely need assistance (Gouldner, 1960).

A condition of reciprocity is that it involves voluntary two-way transfers in both directions between involved parties, whereas altruism or gift giving is merely a one-way transfer of goods or services (Kolm, 1994). Kolm (1994) argued that the sentiment which fuels reciprocal actions is the obligation to find balance among transferring parties. This

research agrees with the premise set by Gouldner (1960) that reciprocity is a globally practiced and moral norm which can be accompanied by social pressure for adherence, good social relations, gratitude, and a sensation of moral indebtedness to continue reciprocal relationships (Kolm, 1994). Further, this researcher argues that reciprocity is manifested within the economic systems of family matters, traditional economies, firms/organizations, and so forth (Kolm, 1994). The finding in this research is that when economic reciprocity is evident, it is altruism, except for in rare circumstances.

The analysis of reciprocity literature has yielded several definitions, pseudo-definitions, and implied understandings of the term without a universally agreed upon the definition of this concept (Kolm, 1994). There are many similarities among the definitions of reciprocity found in academic journals, and many resemblances within the attributes of the term (4).

Table 4		
<i>Reciprocity Definitions in Interpersonal Relationships</i>		
Author	Journal	Definition
Goldstein, Griskevicius, & Cialdini, 2011	Administrative Science Quarterly	the societal rule that obligates individuals to repay gifts, favors, and services they have received
Caliendo, Fossen, & Kritikos, 2012	Journal of Economic Psychology	the motivation to respond to the behavior of another person. Positive (negative) reciprocity is the intention of rewarding (punishing) those who have been kind (mean) to us.
Falk & Fischbacher, 2006	Games and Economic Behavior	a behavioral response to perceived kindness and unkindness, where kindness comprises both distributional fairness and intentions of fairness.
Dohmen, et al, 2009	The Economic Journal	Reciprocity is an in-kind response to friendly or hostile acts.
Gouldner, 1960	American Sociological Review	a moral norm which defines certain actions and obligations as repayments for benefits received. requires that if others fulfil their status duties to you, you have an additional obligation (repayment) to fulfill your status duties to them.

Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi, and Ercolani, 2002	European Journal of Personality	an individual tendency to reciprocate others' behavior (reward others' helping behavior and retaliate against hurting behavior). Reciprocity is the goal, not means to a goal
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In plain language, Putnam (2000) defined the term as a principle grounded in the concept that "I'll do this for you now, without expecting anything immediately in return and perhaps without even knowing you, confident that down the road you or someone else with return the favor" (p. 134). Putnam argued that societal efficiency is a result of those who practice reciprocity as opposed through those who are distrustful. Additional definitions of reciprocity can be found across several disciplines within the social sciences.

In the discipline of marketing, Lund (2010) provided a list of the varying differences in defining this term (Table 5). Lund (2010) found many variations of the term *reciprocity* as stated among relevant literature within the scope of interpersonal relations:

Table 5
Reciprocity Definitions in Marketing Interpersonal Relationships

Author	Journal	Definition
Moyer, 1970; Finney, 1978	Journal of Marketing	Reciprocal purchasing - both the use of purchasing power to obtain sales and the practice of preferring one's customers in purchasing
Houston and Gassenheimer, 1987	Journal of Marketing	Reciprocity - the process whereby a mutual exchange of acceptable terms is actualized; it is a social interaction in which the movement of one party evokes a compensating movement in some other party
Dawson, 1988	Journal of Health Care Marketing	Reciprocity - a cultural norm whereby individuals enter an exchange with the anticipation of receiving personal benefits
Frenzen and Davis, 1990	Journal of Consumer Research	Norm of reciprocity - use of a purchase occasion in the short term to repay outstanding social debts

Miller and Kean, 1997	Psychology & Marketing	Reciprocity - the degree to which individuals expect cooperative action
		Interpersonal Reciprocity - emphasizing concern for others or strong attachment to others
		Institutional Reciprocity - having a built-in system for calculating the costs versus the benefits involved in the exchange
Dahl, Honea, and Manchanda, 2005	Journal of Consumer Psychology	Norm of reciprocity - an obligation for people to return in kind what they have received from others
Cialdini and Rhoads, 2001	Marketing Research	Reciprocity - an obligation for people to return in kind what they have received from others
Clayson, 2004	Marketing Education Review	Reciprocity - evidence that student written teacher evaluations are related to grades received

Note: D. J. Lund, 2010, Reciprocity in marketing relationships (Unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Even though this theoretical concept is defined similarly throughout research, some nuances create specific differences and interpretations of reciprocal activity. A meta-analysis of the variations regarding the definition of reciprocity may still not yield a finite understanding of this equivocal and vague term (Gouldner, 1960) as this theory leaves many questions unanswered regarding its definition (Perugini et al., 2002). For the sake of brevity, and in keeping within the scope of this research, the succinct definition for reciprocity used by the researcher is

Reciprocity is the intrinsic motivation to respond to the behavior of a related person. The concept of reciprocity is divided in two opposing aspects, namely *positive reciprocity* and *negative reciprocity*: positive (negative) reciprocity is the intention of rewarding (punishing) those who have been kind (mean) to us.

(Caliendo, Fossen, & Kritikos, 2012)

This definition is consistent with the notion that reciprocity is manifested in social exchange theory, which rewards mutual transactions and interactions within societal relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Relevant literature on the topic of reciprocity shows that there are several facets of this concept which contributes to the complexity of this norm. Some of the pertinent attributes of reciprocity include the effect of both positive/negative reciprocity (Caliendo et al., 2012; Perugini et al., 2002), specificity of organizational reciprocity (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Goldstein et al., 2011; Zaheer, McEvily, & Perrone, 1998), and ethical matters relating to the practice of reciprocity (Barney & Hansen, 1994; Tangpong et al., 2016). An exploration into each of these crucial characteristics regarding the norm of reciprocity demonstrates how both individuals and organizations put this theory into practice.

Positive and negative reciprocity. Keeping in line with the universal expectations of reciprocity, Falk and Fischbacher (2006) argued that people reward good actions (positive reciprocity) and punish those actions that are unkind (negative reciprocity). Positive reciprocity would be the combination of the two minimal universal characteristics set forth by Gouldner (1960) and similarly that economic theorist Adam Smith has argued, that kindness yields kindness (Smith, 2006). Through their research, Falk and Fischbacher (2006) have concluded that kindness within reciprocal transactions is both the intention as well as the consequence of reciprocal activity. The transverse of this position, unkindness, has also shown to be both a result and impetus.

Contrary to the findings of Kolm (1994), Falk and Fischbacher (2006) find that balance, fairness, and equality in reciprocity are not often found in these types of activities. These researchers found that there are many situations where highly unequal and unfair transactions occur within a reciprocal relationship (Falk & Fischbacher, 2006). Furthermore, it is important to note that cultural influences have a visceral view on

negative reciprocity in the form of revenge and punishment (Gächter & Herrmann, 2009). Interestingly, even this positive and negative reciprocity may seem closely related, researchers have shown that these variables are uncorrelated to each other (Egloff, Richter, & Schmukle, 2013; Richter, Metzing, Weinhardt, & Schupp, 2013).

In their study of entrepreneurs, Caliendo et al. (2010), used data from the 2003, 2005, and 2008 wave of the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP) to show that positive reciprocity does not affect an entrepreneur's decision to either enter or exit self-employment; whereas, negative reciprocity in the form of revenge statistically increases the probability for the self-employed to exit from entrepreneurial activities. Additional findings highlighted that business managers, meaning those without investment risk, are more likely to practice the use of positive reciprocity through an unconditional trust with their employees as a manner of creating stability in the workplace (Caliendo et al., 2012). Regarding self-employed business professionals, however, there is a higher likelihood that limited trust within partnerships is more commonly practiced. The findings in this study seem to contradict those of Dohmen, Falk, Huffman, & Sunde (2008), who argued against the notion that negative reciprocity can provide a strategic advantage to bargaining in the workplace, especially for men and young people.

Through situational testing, other researchers have demonstrated that within a reciprocal activity, both the means and the end goal of an interaction can be the reciprocation itself, rather than some arbitrary or monetary reward (Perugini et al., 2002). Additionally, according to Perugini et al., (2002), reciprocity may give the impression that it is harmful when it is positive and vice versa due to the relative and situational context of the interaction itself. Both positive and negative reciprocity, through their

similarity of mutual cause and effect, has been speculated to have different origins based on the emotional response that each manifests (Dohmen et al., 2008). What has shown consistent in research is that when either type of reciprocity is practiced as an internalized personal norm (Perugini et al., 2002) or a societal moral obligation (Kolm, 1994), the effect of each has the power to be either harmful or beneficial to the individual actor in various aspects of life including economics/employment, and personal relationships/friendships (Dohmen, Falk, Huffman, & Sunde, 2009). Researchers have found that those individuals who are firm believers in reciprocity will forcibly cooperate or forcibly punish others, even where there is not any potential future benefit for these individuals (Gächter & Herrmann, 2009).

Organizational reciprocity. Much like personal acts of reciprocity, organizations have been able to capitalize on relationships where the practice of *I'll patronize you if you patronize me* has become normal within large and small firms (Stocking & Mueller, 1957). As researchers have demonstrated the difficulty in defining the concept of reciprocity relating to inter-personal exchanges, the same is true in coming to an accepted understanding as to the ambiguous nature of business reciprocity (Stocking & Mueller, 1957). Traditionally, business reciprocity has been understood as the inter-firm dealings of independent organizations; whereby, each entity makes appropriate concessions for the mutual business interest of each company (Stocking & Mueller, 1957). Even within the realm of business, inter-organizational reciprocity has been found to have several variations to its unique attributes and definitions (Table 6).

Table 6***Reciprocity Definitions/Attributes in Business to Business Interactions***

Author	Journal	Definition
Stocking & Mueller, 1957	The Journal of Business	the practice of <i>I'll patronize you if you patronize me</i> has become normal within large and small firms each entity makes appropriate concessions for the mutual business interest of each company
Barney & Hansen, 1994;	Strategic Management Journal	social capital and cooperation based on the existing personal relationship of actors within partnering firms
Goldstein et al., 2011;	Administrative Science Quarterly	cooperation and productivity by helping parties optimize the balance between the resources they have and those they need at various points in time. creation of productive relationships among all stakeholders based in cooperation
Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015	Academy of Management Discoveries	an inherently calculative conceptualization in which people's reciprocation depends on the value of the benefits received, the recipient's need for those benefits, the resources of the donor, the motives imputed to the donor, and the constraints the donor faced in providing the favor when people are primed with a "business mindset," they tend to select the decision that maximizes personal benefits and minimizes personal costs, paying less attention to the decision's ethical or moral implications
Chrupała-Pniak, Grabowski, & Sulimowska-Formowicz, 2016	Economics and Business Review	Organizational trust as an attitude is based on psycho-sociological mechanisms of embeddedness and reciprocity norms, the interpersonal attractiveness of the object of trust and partners' similarity in understanding the essence of the relationship

Lund (2010), presented several understandings of organizational reciprocity within relevant literature (Table 7). Based on Lund's findings, previous definitions (or implied definitions) of reciprocity within organizations share many similarities with interpersonal manifestations. However, the scope of influence for these definitions tends to be on a scale more closely tied with economic efficiency.

Table 7
Reciprocity Definitions in Marketing Business to Business Relationships

Author	Journal	Definition
Frazier and Colleagues, 1986, 1989, 1991; Finney, 1978	Journal of Marketing and Journal of Marketing Research	Reciprocity - (implied definition) the actions taken by one party in response to the actions taken by the other party in an exchange relationship.
Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 1998	Journal of Marketing Research	Reciprocity - (implied definition) evidenced by the existence of higher levels of dealer punitive actions in response to higher levels of supplier punitive actions.
Johnson & Sohi, 2001	International Journal of Research in Marketing	Reciprocity - partner response is contingent on actions; mutually contingent exchange of benefits; ensures long-run gratification for partners.
Palmer, 2002	Journal of Strategic Marketing	Reciprocity - a disposition to return good for good in proportion to what they receive; to resist evil, but to do no evil in return, and to make reparation for the harm we do.
Lee, Jeong, Lee, & Sung, 2008	Industrial Marketing Management	Reciprocity - mutual exchange of helping behaviors between importers and exporters.
Pervan & Johnson, 2003	Journal of Consumer Behavior	Reciprocity in RM is an expectation that good is returned for good in a fitting and proportional manner, resist negative acts but not return negative acts, and make reparation for any harm we do.

Note: D. J. Lund, 2010, Reciprocity in marketing relationships (Unpublished doctoral dissertation).

Agreement as to why organizations choose to engage in a reciprocal arrangement has been a source of much contention between researchers. Some theorists have argued that organizations, being a non-living entity, build reciprocal social capital and cooperation due to the existing personal relationship of actors within partnering firms (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Barney & Hansen, 1994; Goldstein et al., 2011; Oliveria, 2013), ; whereas, others argue that personal trust among actors has little influence on inter-organizational trust activities like reciprocity (Ring & Van De Ven, 1994; Zaheer et al., 1998).

Researchers have shown that a trusting attitude does not correlate with reciprocity among individuals (Maximiano, 2012). Because individuals who have authoritative control within reciprocating firms are the ones, who dictate the operations of their respective organizations, an element that is critical in the creation of productive relationships among

all stakeholders is the implementation of cooperation (Goldstein et al., 2011). When organizations create these trustworthy reciprocal relations with one another, they often create an advantage among their competitors while at the same time allowing themselves to be mutually vulnerable to each other (Barney & Hansen, 1994). The pertinent literature regarding organizational reciprocity shows that there are several factors that influence the implementation of inter-firm exchanges, specifically trust in inter-organizational relationships (IOR) (Barney & Hansen, 1994; Chrupała-Pniak, Grabowski, & Sulimowska-Formowicz, 2016; Huang & Wilkinson, 2013), relational social capital (Lans, Blok, & Gulikers, 2015; Mačerinskienė & Aleknavičiūtė, 2011; Redding & Rowley, 2017; Scott, 1953), and marketplace competitive advantage (Putnam, 2009; Schreiner, Kale, & Corsten, 2009; Zarei, Chaghoe, & Ghapanchi, 2014).

As previously addressed, reciprocity in business is actualized through a contract-like exchange between entities (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Researchers have discovered that within these exchanges are those who readily practice organizational reciprocity with a business mindset focused on benefit maximization and cost minimization (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015). Belmi and Pfeffer (2015) brought further to light the differentiation between personal and organizational reciprocity, by arguing that firm agents who think within a professional construct are less likely to and less motivated to reciprocate in their personal lives while being more likely to disregard the norm of reciprocity. Other findings suggest that deliberate and calculated exchanges between firms have a higher probability of promoting unethical behaviors and activity. Researchers have suggested that protection against opportunistic behaviors within exchange relationships should be a focus among institutional actors, and risk-mitigating safeguards should be in place before

engaging into any relational exchanges (Ashnai, Henneberg, Naudé, & Francescucci, 2016). To minimize the focus on benefit maximization, Goldstein et al. (2011) suggested that the focus of organizational exchanges should be a beneficiary-led strategy to induce cooperation rather than a benefactor-initiated relationship based upon indebtedness. However, cooperation should not be confused with the concept of inter-organizational trust, as they are two distinct yet similar concepts. According to (Sabel, 1993), cooperation among communities is created through calculated self-interest rather than a fragile mutually beneficial arrangement. This notion that loyalty among people and firms can be negotiated can help to maximize benefits for the parties involved through peaceful coexistence, but the foundation of these reciprocal actions can still be untrustworthy (Sabel, 1993).

Inter-organizational relationships/trust. Much as with the literature relating to organizational reciprocity, there exists those researchers who feel that individual actors within an organization must have a relationship based on trust prior to entering into reciprocal exchanges (Seppänen, Blomqvist, & Sundqvist, 2007), while others argue that trust can be a result of organizational operations and culture (Huang & Wilkinson, 2013). Cooperation among firms, especially those where the organizational actors do not have a pre-existing relationship, can still be economically viable; however, they tend to start with small incremental exchanges that require little trust, and can evolve into alliances where both parties have heavily committing resources and risk to their relationship (Ring & Van De Ven, 1994). Ring and Van De Ven (1994) contended that inter-firm cooperation could act as the catalyst for creating personal friendships and partnerships through long-term economic commitments. These researchers positioned their findings

to show that repetitive social interactions and mutual economic benefit among businesses move beyond necessary cooperation and create inter-personal trust. These findings contradict those presented by Barney & Hansen (1994), who claimed that even where organizations may not have trust in each other, the individuals involved in reciprocal exchanges will build a strong form of trust among one another. Zaheer et al. (1998) have found that when exchanges with partner organizations become routine, these interactions become ingrained practices within the firm and surpass the personal influence of any institutional actor. As consistent cross-organizational activity becomes the norm, benefits of these reciprocal activities have been shown to reduce conflict between firms, increase performance between suppliers, and greatly reduce costs associated with negotiations (Zaheer et al., 1998). The practices within these business relationships demonstrate the theoretical concept of reward power (Raven & French, 1958); whereas, each party has economic influence over one another.

Though much literature on inter-organizational relationships is based in the foundation of cooperation, many researchers identify trust as the primary basis of reciprocal exchange practices (Chrupała-Pniak et al., 2016; Huang & Wilkinson, 2013; Vaux Halliday, 2003). Some researchers have agreed with the idea that either strong inter-personal relationships must be present, or a firm culture firmly grounded with the core value of trustworthiness must be present for successful organizational exchanges to take place. The position that trust is a necessity in business-to-business exchanges stems from the assumption that individuals and organizations who truly trust one another will not exploit the vulnerabilities of their partnering firms without any additional incentives or cost (Barney & Hansen, 1994). Barney and Hansen (1994) argued several points

relating to trust, which has differed from other researchers, namely that they reject the notion that exchange partners will seek opportunistic behavior when trust is present, and that trust itself is not necessarily a finite source of competitive advantage. Additionally, other theorists contend that in relationships, trust itself can be the result of calculated negotiations over time and not necessarily be a prerequisite to business exchanges (Huang & Wilkinson, 2013). When organizations choose to engage in equitable exchanges without a prior relationship (either organization or personal among firm agents), they often do so based on knowledge found through secondary sources, and embark on these alliances due to intentionally placed trust (Vaux Halliday, 2003) or calculated wishful thinking without any true interactive foundation (Huang & Wilkinson, 2013).

Chrupała-Pniak et al. (2016) have argued that businesses independently partner with one another for the sole purpose of meeting both individual and mutual goals, with trust being the primary mechanism. Trust, they claim, will help to reduce misunderstandings among partner firms while minimizing the risk of one-sided opportunism. Chrupała-Pniak et al. postulated that achieving this degree of inter-organizational relations; however, cannot be purely based on just organizational culture/operations which require cooperation or solely the relationships of institutional actors, but rather both elements are necessary to create trust within partnering firms. By utilizing a two-factor approach to an exchange relationship, Chrupała-Pniak et al (2016) contends that partnering firms will develop a semi-strong relationship foundation which allows for success through the competitive advantage they have been able to create together. As these two organizations reciprocate business back and forth, some of the

potential benefits, aside from economic gains, can include relationship focus becoming a prominent attribute of organizational culture, mutual learning opportunities, and greater bargaining power (Chrupała-Pniak et al., 2016).

Relational social capital and competitive advantage. The high importance given to the concept of trust in the literature emerges due to the interchangeable nature of both trust and social capital (Mačerinskienė & Aleknavičiūtė, 2011). As a theoretical construct, several working definitions of social capital exist (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Putnam, 2000), with many variations as to the degree and scope of this concept. As the elements of social capital are incorporated within the greater understanding of reciprocity among business professionals for organizational success (Zarei et al., 2014), a brief review of pertinent social capital literature is included in this section. However, an exhaustive examination of social capital theory, including specific manifestations of this construct (i.e., structural social capital or cognitive social capital) and philosophical differences between researchers, is outside the scope of this literature review.

As researchers have argued, social capital is formed by fostering relationships using generalized reciprocity which creates value for both individuals and groups while reducing blatant opportunism (Putnam, 2000). As previously noted, the definition of social capital used in this review is the theoretical constructs concerning trust both on an interpersonal and institutional (or societal) level, grounded in the understanding that personal contributions can be combined to create something that is greater than the sum of its parts (Redding & Rowley, 2017). This definition is similar to the arguably original definition of social capital by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) “the sum of the actual and

potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit” (p. 243).

At the root of social capital is the understanding that when individuals and groups (organizations) work together, they become interdependently obligated to each other (Scott, 1953), creating mutual benefits (Adler & Kwon, 2002); thus, increasing the likelihood of an individual or firm’s economic success (Blount, Smith, & Hill, 2013; Putnam, 2000). On an individual basis, social capital can manifest itself through the use of personal social networks (Blount et al., 2013; Lans et al., 2015), or even growing relationship with strangers, family, and friends (Mačerinskienė & Aleknavičiūtė, 2011; Putnam, 2007). A unique attribute of social capital is that the expense of building a relationship with another person is a non-monetized activity that can cost nothing. However, this powerful force can metamorphose itself into a power force yielding economic prosperity (Hutchinson et al., 2004). Though a quantifiable value for the worth an individual’s social capital with others may not always exist, there has been some literature to show that a person’s network can yield an approximate \$1,400 increase in earnings in new employment compared to those positions where a personal connection was not used (Green & Tigges, 1995). Researchers have also shown that individuals who have built social capital through ties with others have shown that their networks influence employment, potential promotions, bonuses, and a higher potential for unanticipated economic opportunities (Putnam, 2000). Additionally, personal influence, access to information, and comradery can also be derived benefits of individual social capital (Russ, 2015).

Managers and organizational leaders, understanding the power of social capital, have intentionally formed networks to produce economic growth through engines like the local Chamber of Commerce, PTA, bowling leagues, service clubs (Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, etc.), development organizations, and so forth. (Farkas, 2012; Putnam, 2000). Researchers have argued that membership into these types of organizations not only create economic and job benefits for individuals, but that there are also societal benefits that come from intentional networking (D. Smith, 1997). Researchers have shown that corporate executives network with each other to create mutually beneficial business referrals (Chollet, Géraudel, & Mothe, 2014) and individual entrepreneurs will intentionally seek out other like-minded professionals to form a network (Açigil & Magner, 2013). This behavior occurs even when economic success is a primary driver, other benefits for organizations who deliberately engage in social capital activities including organizational resilience (Jaaron & Backhouse, 2013), mitigating risk/cost, sharing knowledge, and increased innovation (Vlaisavljevic, Cabello-Medina, & Pérez-Luño, 2016). Building social capital through organizational networking is not a simple or straightforward process which yields instant return, but rather it is based on cultivating relationships that are forged over time that can result in a bountiful payoff (Misner, 2004; Putnam, 2003). In the business world, both individual and organizational social capital has become equivalently understood as an economic asset (Hutchinson et al., 2004). These monetary and economic benefits deriving from social capital, are not formed just through inter-firm relations but are likely attributed to the competitive advantage created by firms who engage in intentional alliances (Schreiner et al., 2009; Zarei et al., 2014).

As with any personal or organizational partnership, there are also potential risks involved with social capital activities. Even when the best of intentions exist, in exchanges, people can have varying degrees of what they feel is reciprocal; thus, creating a deficit within the relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Even when there is real intention to build relational social capital through generalized reciprocity, collaboration with others carries substantial reputation risk that is more valuable than any potential monetary reward (Putnam, 2000). Relational investments can also come with unbalanced monetary investments or yield results that are more favorable to one party over the other (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Adler and Kwon (2002) argued that the literature identifies a myriad of potential risks in social capital including (a) considerable capital investments, which may not be profitable; (b) losing power while gaining access to information; (c) a potential for people and individuals to free-load off one of the exchange partners; (e) hindering entrepreneurial activity; and (f) opportunity costs in ventures that are not successful, and actors who are overwhelmed with relational obligations. Additionally, if relationships sour for whatever reason, a possibility exists that former partners will now become rivals, and no longer protect one another from insult or injury (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Dohmen et al., 2009). In addition to relationships which have soured, researchers have demonstrated that when it comes to those most involved with social networking activities, there has a higher propensity to engage in unethical behavior with one another (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

Ethical issues. Both organizations and individuals have been found guilty of unethical business dealings over the years that hurt their partners, for example, the disastrous relationship between energy conglomerate Enron and the auditing firm Arthur

Andersen in 2002, both of who are defunct due to unethical and illegal behavior.

Businesses engaging in reciprocal exchanges tend to operate with a business mindset often focused on profit maximization, and minimizing the importance of ethical activity (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015). Some researchers postulate that the simple presence of money can open up the possibility of morally corrupt behavior within a business context (Kouchaki, Smith-Crowe, Brief, & Sousa, 2013). The risk of exchange partners taking opportunistic advantage by exploiting vulnerabilities possessed by one of their partner firms is possible, though not common argued Barney & Hansen (1994). Other researchers have substantiated this claim by demonstrating that when trust is present between partners, a negative relationship exists with opportunism (Ashnai et al., 2016). The very nature of negative reciprocity can also lead to unethical behavior by those agents with a high propensity to inflict revenge on others no matter what the cost while limiting opportunities for a relationship (Caliendo et al., 2012).

The literature has positioned these ethical risks as the dark side of reciprocity, meaning that the norm of reciprocity can influence actors in business exchanges to both entertain and engage in ethical compromises based on the moral and instrumental forces at play (Tangpong et al., 2016). This means that if partners are so intertwined in their goals (operations, economic, etc.), they may be more willing to disregard illegal or underhanded activities because of the organizational desire to maintain the existing relationship (Tangpong et al., 2016). Disregarding unethical practices creates a potential risk for organizations and individuals alike. As with any business risk, researchers maintain that the best option to mitigate potential threats arising from relationship

exchanges is to put in place operational safeguards that minimize unnecessary expose for the firm (Ashnai et al., 2016).

Synthesis of Literature

The scope of the research presented covers many theoretical constructs including (a) a diverse multi-generational workforce; (b) the norm of generalized reciprocity (positive and negative); (c) attributes of organizational reciprocity (inter-organizational trust, relational social capital, and competitive advantage), and (d) ethical risks associated with reciprocal exchanges. The literature is rich in covering generational dynamics within the workforce (Costanza et al., 2012; Lyons & Kuron, 2014). Each generation has specific characteristics that shape the way that it works, sees the world, and communicates with one another. The literature also provides valuable insight as to the differences of opinion when creating theoretical frameworks on reciprocity. The Norm of Reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) establishes reciprocity as a personal norm, however this behavioral value has since evolved to be considered a social norm (Perugini et al., 2002). Within an organizational/professional setting, many researchers have argued that personal reciprocal actions are the guiding force for inter-organizational reciprocal trust activities (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Barney & Hansen, 1994; Goldstein et al., 2011; Oliveria, 2013). It is with this understanding that personal sentiment informs organizational behavior that encapsulates this research. Corporate operations, organizational structure, and the effect of individual influence within inter-firm exchanges all impact the ways that reciprocal actions occur.

Furthermore, extant literature has been clear that generational cohorts have unique perspective on a several different aspects of life (intrinsic values (Dunn, 2018; Urick,

2012), extrinsic values (Twenge et al., 2010), motivations (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Heyns & Kerr, 2018), attitudes (Stutzer, 2019), work ethic/advancement (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Milligan, 2014; etc.) which are caused by shared life experiences. Much research exists on the expectation of generational cohorts within their working environment; however, a glaring gap exists in the literature relating to multi-generational business professionals and their personal perception of reciprocity. This research may fill this void and add to the body of knowledge on this subject matter. Furthermore, Putnam (2000) presents a theoretical argument regarding changes in civic engagement patterns across several generations, but only briefly mentions the topic of reciprocity. This study advances Putnam's research in a manner that looks specifically at reciprocity through the lens of a multi-generational workforce.

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

Research Design and Rationale

Scholarly researchers have demonstrated that there is an educational value in employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods on this subject matter. Many quantitative researchers have taken a correlational approach, specifically using surveys as the method of data analysis (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Chollet et al., 2014; Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Goldstein et al., 2011). Other researchers have taken a different approach and adopted a qualitative approach to their research methodology (Biraghi & Gambetti, 2017; Corcoran, 2014; Dodge, 2011; Ikonen, 2012; Kramer, Hall, & Heller, 2013; Maiter, Simich, Jacobson, & Wise, 2008). As impetus of this research is to gain a specific and measurable understanding of how different generational identities of professionals perceive reciprocity, a quantitative study is a correct research methodology to explore this topic. This research has been designed to help identify any critical correlations, similarities, and/or differences between generational cohorts and the way that they feel about reciprocity from a professional perspective.

Participants and Site

Participants for this survey are a sample of business professionals who operate businesses primarily within Southwestern Idaho. This area was chosen as it is convenient for the geographic location of the researcher. As a convenience sample, participants may also include those individuals who are active participants in business networking forums (service clubs, fraternal organizations, trade groups, etc.) as well as those who are not active in these types of entities. To eliminate researcher bias and identity, the survey was sent out to professionals by a leader within the local business community and chamber of

commerce. Even with this safeguard in place, many of the respondents have a professional relationship with the researcher as they live and work in the same geographic area. All survey invitations were sent and accepted through a digital platform only, as a paper option was not available. Each professional who was invited to participate is a legal adult, eighteen (18) years old or older. The invitation was distributed to professionals regardless of age, industry type, and experience. The responses provided demonstrate participation across the five active generations currently working.

Measure

As used in research, a previously validated survey will be used (Dohmen et al., 2009; Richter et al., 2013) to collect both demographic and experiential answers from business professionals. The SOEP survey is the primary tool for collecting information in this study as it has been analyzed and used by researchers (Budria & Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2012; Caliendo et al., 2012; Dohmen et al., 2009; Dur, Non, & Roelfsema, 2009; Egloff, Richter, & Schmukle, 2013; Jirjahn & Lange, 2011). This survey questionnaire is openly available on their website. Based on the statistical analysis of SOEP data, several discoveries regarding reliability have been identified (Table 8).

Table 8

Previous SOEP Reciprocity Analysis & Corresponding Alphas

Authors	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Caliendo et al. (2012)	Self-employment (Entrepreneurship)	Positive Reciprocity	0.6233
		Negative Reciprocity,	0.6171
		Trust	0.8269
Egloff et al. (2013)	Overall SOEP Data (v28)	Positive Reciprocity	0.61
		Negative Reciprocity	0.82

Cornelissen et al. (2010)	Profit sharing	Positive Reciprocity	0.64
		Negative Reciprocity	0.85
Budria and Ferrer-i-Carbonell (2012)	Personality traits	Positive Reciprocity	0.622
		Negative Reciprocity	0.822
Nieß, (2014)	Reciprocal Influences on Career Transitions	Conscientiousness	0.80
		Agreeableness	0.80
		Emotional Stability	0.81
Heineck & Anger (2008)	Locus of Control	Positive Reciprocity	0.66
		Negative Reciprocity	0.83

In many of these SOEP derived studies, negative reciprocity has higher statistical reliability compared to positive reciprocity, with several studies demonstrating a Cronbach's Alpha (α) greater than .80. This specific instrument, derived from the SOEP, is a six-question survey utilizing a seven-point Likert scale to determine the feelings of individuals towards reciprocity (see Appendix A). In this survey,

- 1 = Does not apply to me at all
- 2 = Mostly does not apply to me
- 3 = Slightly does not apply to me
- 4 = Neutral
- 5 = Slightly applies to me
- 6 = Mostly applies to me
- 7 = Applies to me perfectly

As a 7-point Likert scale survey is considered an ordinal variable, eliminating outliers prior to a reliability calculation was prudent. Furthermore, other researchers have argued that the removal of discordant outliers is based on researcher decision (Zijlstra, van der Ark, & Sijtsma, 2011).

This survey has been used for decades in Germany and has been annually administered by the German Institute for Economic Research (DIW Berlin) since 1984 (DIW Berlin, 2017a). According to DIW Berlin (2017a), this survey measures the responses of nearly 30,000 German citizens each year on a variety of topics including values, employment, health and satisfaction, household composition, and so forth. This survey has been used across the globe in hundreds of research studies that have analyzed both survey data and various methods of analysis (DIW Berlin, 2017b). This research was first used in English by Wagner, Burkhauser, and Behringer (1993), and continues to be used in current studies regarding reciprocity (Caliendo et al., 2012; Dohmen et al., 2009). The entire SOEP survey will not be used for this study, but rather only those questions relating to reciprocity are utilized and validated from the 2005 wave (Budria & Ferrer-i- Carbonell, 2012; Caliendo et al., 2012; Dohmen et al., 2009). For the 2005 survey, the section on reciprocity is encapsulated in question 126, (see Appendix A). Only the six different measures of these specific questions will be used in this study. As each respondent will be a professional, as it is assumed that they are more likely to think of their answers with a business mindset (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015); thus, providing valuable data on how active professionals interact with one another on a personal level. As each respondent is a professional in their respective fields, the responses of each individual are most likely influenced by their business mindset (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015).

The survey (Appendix B), asks respondents to contextualize their answers from a professional perspective. The goal is to focus primarily on the respondent's perspective within their professional lives, rather than their home/private life. These responses not only provide valuable information as to how professionals feel regarding reciprocity, but

also includes their sentiments towards organizational and/or business-to-business reciprocal activity. As previous researchers have argued that the personal sentiments of reciprocity is what builds the foundations of organizational trust (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Barney & Hansen, 1994; Goldstein et al., 2011; Oliveria, 2013), the responses of these professionals will valuable insight to the understanding of organizational reciprocity.

Procedure

Surveys participants were sent a digital hyperlink to the survey via an e-mail invitation. All surveys will be conducted through SurveyMonkey, a reputable survey website. Respondents and their answers were completely anonymous. As a means of identifying the appropriate generational identity and qualifying factors of each respondent, the data collected included pertinent demographic information such as respondent age, gender, industry, years of professional business experience, and organization type (for-profit, not-for-profit). As the intent of this is not exploring the role of ethnicity, religion, or socio-economic status, questions implying these demographic areas are explicitly excluded. All professional respondents who work in for-profit, not-for-profit, governmental agencies and those who are retired professionals have been granted the ability to access and complete this survey. Only fully completed surveys were analyzed for this research project. Any incomplete or partial surveys have been excluded from this study. (See Appendix B).

Data Analysis

For accuracy and researcher precision, a multi-step analysis has been performed with the data collected in order to preserve accuracy. This research study is designed to

identify the correlation, if any, between generational categorization of professionals and their perceptions of reciprocity.

Step 1: Verification of survey completion. Before any statistical analysis, all surveys will be inspected to ensure that only complete and qualifying surveys will be included in the final analysis. As previously stated, any incomplete surveys will be excluded from this study.

Step 2: Data entry. After fully completed and usable surveys are identified, all data from this 7-point Likert-like survey has been input into SPSS version 22.0.

Step 3: Analysis. As a non-experimental research study, a correlation approach has been used to identify if the variables of generational categorization and organizational reciprocity are correlated. Statistical analyses have identified the central tendency of the data (medians/means) while exploring standard deviations. Based on the relationship of the variables chosen, a bivariate correlational analysis (Pearson-r) test has been conducted within an explanatory design. Additional to identify the differences between the generational cohort groups, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a post-hoc Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) analysis has also been calculated.

CHAPTER 4: Research Findings

This quantitative study sought to identify any statistical influences and/or differences between different generational groups and the sentiment of reciprocity from a professional perspective. Within the bounds of this research, the definition provided by (Caliendo et al., 2012) most accurately identifies reciprocity and its unique aspects: *Reciprocity* is the inherent personal motivation to respond to the conduct of another person. This concept is divided in two separate and opposing aspects, where *positive reciprocity* is the intention of rewarding those who have been kind to us, and *negative reciprocity* is the intention of punishing those who have been mean to us (p. 3). The use of the SOEP questionnaire, collected data, and corresponding analysis will demonstrate if any statistical differences do exist between generational cohorts and either *positive* or *negative reciprocity*. Using several different tests, this study answers the question *how do professionals feel about reciprocity* (RQ₁)? This question is answered by using both positive and negative reciprocity as opposing, yet unique dependent variables.

The leaders of three different chambers of commerce in Southwestern Idaho were personally invited by the researcher through e-mail and asked to distribute this survey among their members. As this is a study in professional reciprocity, it was befitting that participants were asked to voluntarily take the survey out of good will rather than through personalized enticements. To mitigate influencing of the data, there was not any incentive, prize, nor payment of any kind offered in exchange for completing this survey other than knowing that any assistance would be beneficial to the study of reciprocity between professionals. The researcher in this study represents a member organization within all three of these entities. A leader within one of those groups offered to dispense

survey invitations by directly messaging known chamber of commerce members.

Personal messages were sent to each professional within the sample. This first wave of invitations was able to generate 103 responses. As a reminder, a second message was later sent out to garner greater participation in survey completion. After the secondary e-mail was sent, an additional 23 professionals participated in completing this survey. The link to this survey questionnaire was closed after a two week administration period from the date that the initial invitation was sent.

Survey Participation

The survey invitation was sent to sample of 394 professionals operating in Southwestern Idaho. Collected were a total of 126 surveys; 122 (n=122) of which answered all questions relating to both generational cohort and sentiment toward reciprocity. This number of surveys is comparable to past behavioral reciprocity research such as Belmi & Pfeffer (2015) with n=120 respondents, and Maximiano (2012) with n=144 survey participants. Both Belmi & Pfeffer (2015) and Maximiano (2012) used their own proprietary instruments to test both negative and positive reciprocity in action. Within this research study, only those surveys in which every question was answered were used, and any incomplete surveys were disregarded from analysis. The overall response rate was 31.97% with a completion rate of 96.8%. Past research on survey response rates has found that when surveys are administered using a digital medium, normal response rates range from 23% to 47% (Nulty, 2008). With a response rate of over 30%, participation in this research project falls in line with acceptable past precedent. At this level of participation, this survey allows for a confidence level of 95% with a margin of error +/- 7.2% which acceptable for this research (Conroy, 2018). This

sampling error percentage does not use the *liberal conditions* which allow for a margin of error of +/- 10% at an 80% confidence level nor does it utilize the *stringent conditions* required by some surveys with margin of error of +/- 3% at a 95% confidence level (Nulty, 2008).

Participant demographics. A diverse sample of participants from differing generational cohorts, genders, industries, experience levels, and education levels were needed for this research to provide any insight into the way that professionals feel about reciprocity. The figures below demonstrate the unique self-disclosed demographics of each survey participant from the 122 (n=122) who answered all required elements of the survey to completion. From this survey, 96.7% of the respondents represent the three largest workforce generations, Baby Boomers (54 to 72 years old – 14 respondents), Generation X (38 to 53 years old – 50 respondents) and Millennials (22 to 37 years old – 54 respondents) (Figure 2). Comparatively, the population of the American workforce is 97% represented by these three generational cohorts (Stutzer, 2019). There was minimal participation from both those professionals representing the Silent Generation (73+ years old – 3 respondents) with 2.46% of the responses, and those that represent Generational Z (21 years old and younger – 1 respondent).

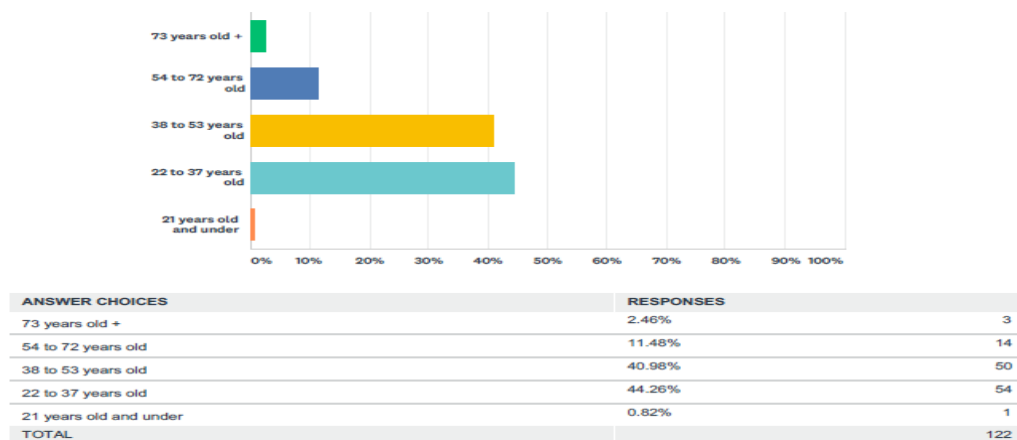


Figure 2: Respondent's Generational Cohort Representation

This level of participation from these smaller groups was not unexpected as the members of the Silent Generation are past the full retirement age of 67 (Blanchett, 2018), and most likely not active in business networking organizations like their local chamber of commerce. Nationally this generational cohort represents 3.70% of the working population (Pew Research Center, 2018b), so a participation rate of 2.46% seems appropriate in this survey. There was only one response from a professional representing Generation Z (post-Millennials) accounting for 0.82% of all survey responses. As the oldest representatives of this cohort are only beginning to mature into adulthood, and representing only 1% of the American workforce (Stutzer, 2019), limited participation from this group was also anticipated. The percentage of participants across each generational demographic were somewhat representative to the workforce age of across the nation, though not an exact equivalence (Table 9).

Table 9		
<i>Comparison of US workforce to survey participants</i>		
Generation	Percent of US Workforce*	% of Survey Participants
Silent	2%	2.46%
Baby Boomers	29%	11.48%
Generation X	34%	40.98%
Millennials (Generation Y)	34%	44.26%
Post Millennial (Generation Z)	1%	0.82%

*Note: *K. Stutzer, 2019, American Association of Critical-Care Nurses.*

Respondents were asked to identify their gender as male, female, or other. Overall, 72 respondents were male, 50 were female, and there were not any respondents who chose *other* as their gender (Figure 3). The city in which many of the participants work and live has a female population of 44.98% (United States Census Bureau, 2019); however, there were 44% more males than females completed this survey. Surveys were sent out based on professional membership only and not with the intent to create a statistically homogenous sample. There is no data available to show the gender makeup

professionals who live/operate within this geographic area to explain the difference in male to female participation.

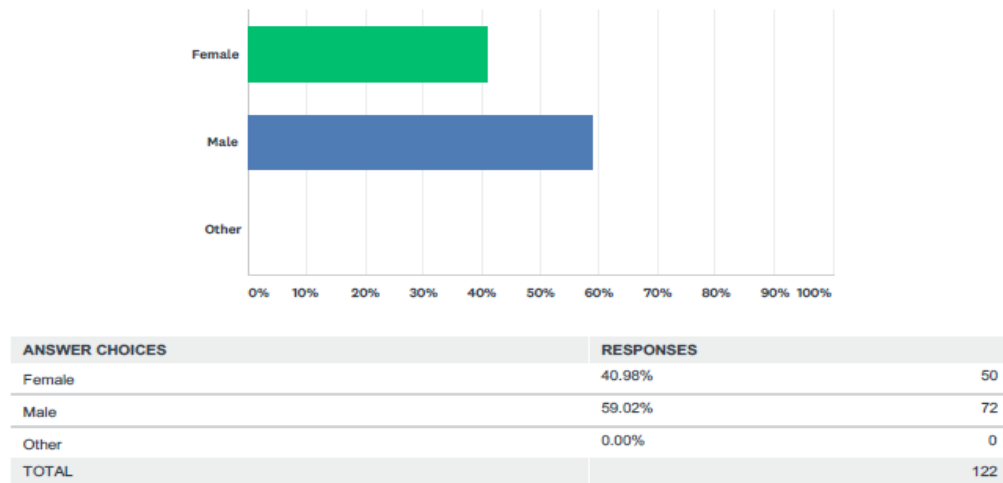


Figure 3: Respondent's Gender Identity

Additional demographic information regarding industry type, tenure, and education levels were also collected from survey participants to determine if any statistical differences exist between these variables in addition to generational grouping. As the participants were active members within a local chamber of commerce, a majority of the of respondents (68.85%) worked in the for-profit sector (Figure 4).

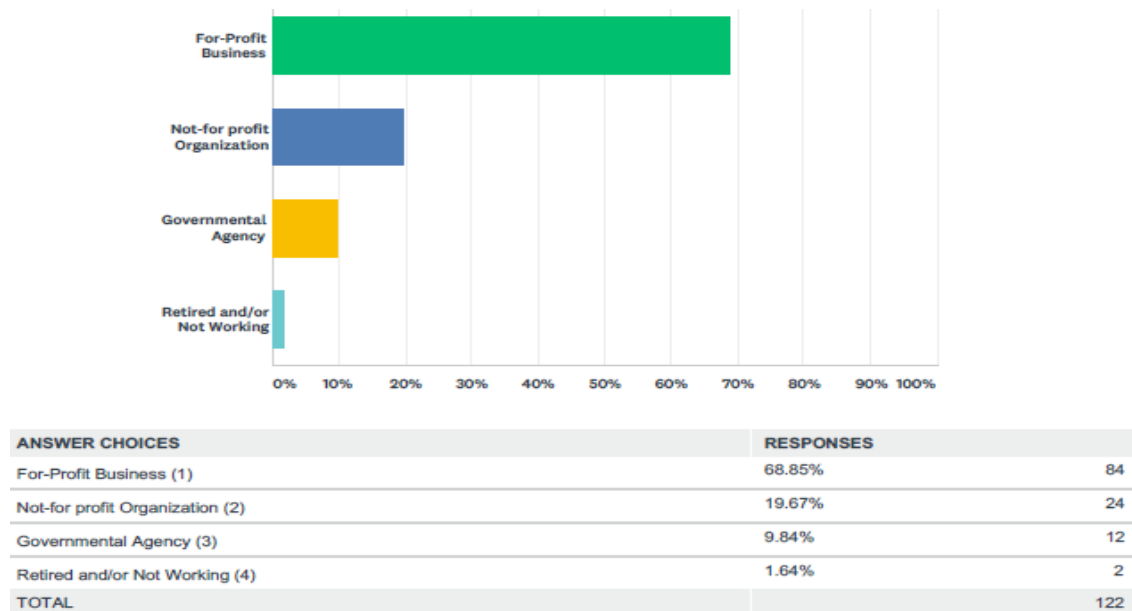


Figure 4: Respondent's Industry Type

In conjunction with industry type, respondents were also asked to share their years of experience within their current professional field (Figure 5). Nearly half of all respondents had over a decade of experience (49.18%) with a majority having less than 20 years of experience (86.07%).

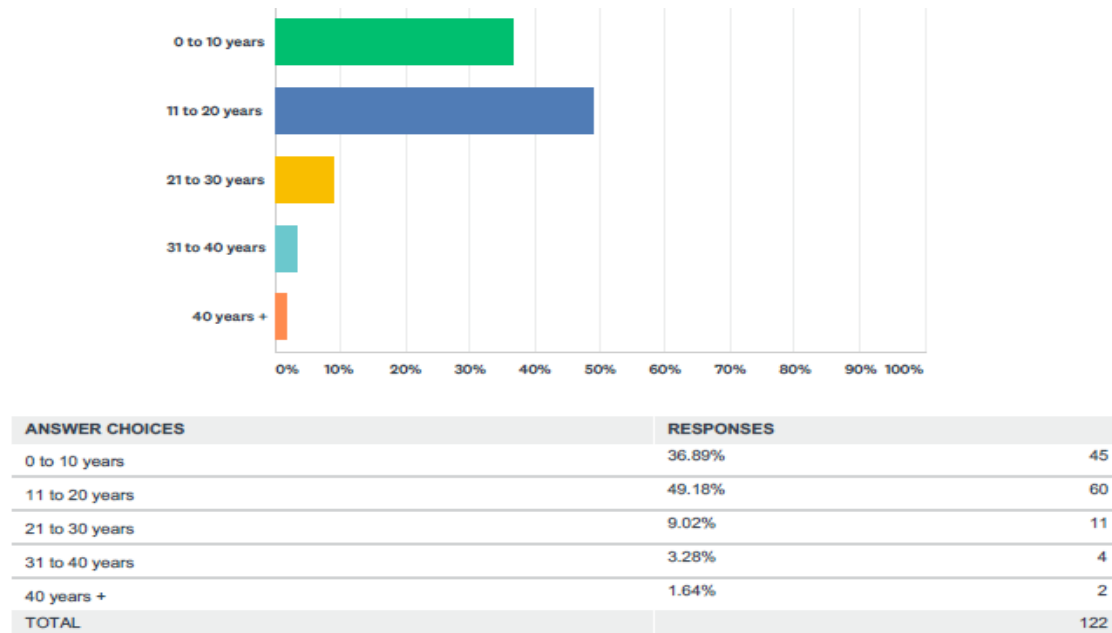
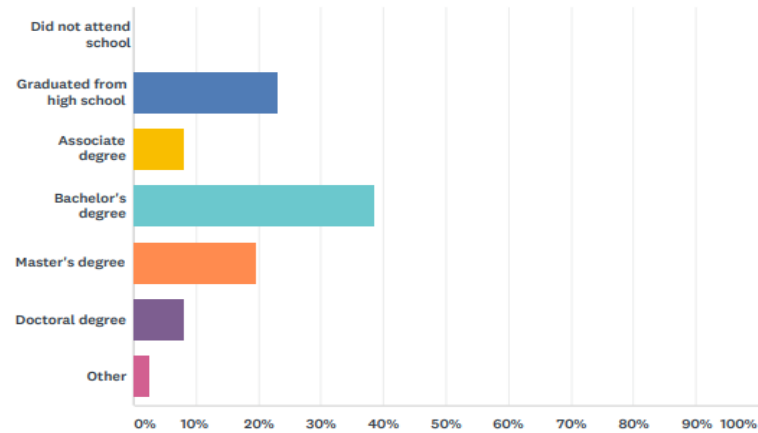


Figure 5: Respondent's Professional Experience

Participants were asked to share their highest level of completed education within the demographic questions. To accommodate different educational experiences, participants could choose between options such as between traditional educational benchmarks (high school graduate, bachelor's degree, masters, etc.) in addition to the non-traditional choices *did not attend school* and *other*. The data showed a diverse mix of responses regarding education (Figure 6). Most respondents (38.52%) have graduated with at least a bachelor's degree, whereas those with at least a high school diploma were 22.95% of survey participants. None of the respondents chose the *did not attend school* option, and only three choose *other* from their list of choices. Overall, 66.39% of all survey participants had a college degree and higher education experience.



ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Did not attend school	0.00%	0
Graduated from high school	22.95%	28
Associate degree	8.20%	10
Bachelor's degree	38.52%	47
Master's degree	19.67%	24
Doctoral degree	8.20%	10
Other	2.46%	3
TOTAL		122

Figure 6: Respondent's Education Level

To further investigate those factors that influence reciprocal feelings, this demographic information is used to explore if there are any other related findings outside of the primary research hypotheses within this study.

Statistical Reliability

Survey Instrument. The reliability of the SOEP instrument (Q. 126 from the 2005 wave) had been previously validated by past researchers (Dohmen et al., 2009; Richter et al., 2013). To measure the validity of this survey instrument within the bounds of this research, the mean of each of the three measures/items relating to both positive and reciprocity were calculated to create the degree of reciprocity (Caliendo et al., 2012; Dohmen et al., 2009). Unlike the original German administration of this survey where a wide variety of questions were asked from a personal viewpoint, in this occasion each of the participants was asked to provide an answer from a professional perspective (See

Appendix B, p. 3). Prior to calculating Cronbach's alpha (α), responses from extreme outliers were removed. Eliminating outliers coincides with the work of past researchers who have postulated that "outliers can deteriorate the estimates of coefficient alpha for continuous as well as binary and ordinal data" (Liu, Wu, & Zumbo, 2010, p. 19). Within this database, it was deemed appropriate to remove a minimal number of outlier responses due to their lack of individual consistency. Within the positive reciprocity mean variable, five responses (4% of responses) were discounted, while in the negative reciprocity mean only three surveys were removed (2.45% of responses). Based on the collected data, the Cronbach's alphas for each variable measured was positive reciprocity at an $\alpha = 0.516$, whereas the negative reciprocity variable had an $\alpha = 0.819$ (Tables 10 & 11).

Table 10

Positive Reciprocity Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.516	.554	3

Table 11

Negative Reciprocity Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.819	.819	3

Previous studies using this instrument have reported a Cronbach's alpha ranging 0.61 to 0.64 when measuring the reliability of data relating to positive reciprocity (see Table 8). Based on past precedent, a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = 0.516$ is moderately reliable and acceptable for the positive reciprocity questions within this instrument. Reliability of

questions relating to negative reciprocity using this instrument have shown reliability ranges from 0.61 to 0.85 depending on the researcher (see Table 8). It is understood that a minimum α coefficient is generally between 0.65 and 0.80 (or higher), however others have argued that it is those coefficients that are less than 0.50 which are considered within the unacceptable range (Goforth, 2015). While the coefficient for negative reciprocity, is considered reliable at the $\alpha = 0.819$ level, the positive reciprocity coefficient at a $\alpha = 0.516$, is not unacceptable based on the position Goforth (2015). Other researchers have argued that a Cronbach's alpha between 0.50 to 0.75 is considered moderately reliable (Hinton, McMurray, Brownlow, & Cozens, 2004) and that reliability calculations near the .60 level are acceptable within data if there are only a few items being calculated (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, Tatham, 2006).

Skewedness & Kurtosis. The data was measured for skewedness to ascertain the normality of distribution of the dependent variables positive and negative reciprocity (Table 12).

Table 12

Skewness & Kurtosis of Variables

		Positive Reciprocity	Negative Reciprocity
N	Valid	122	122
	Missing	0	0
Skewness		-.595	1.441
Std. Error of Skewness		.220	.220
Kurtosis		-.091	2.646
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.437	.437

Calculating the Fisher skewness coefficient = skewness / standard error skewness (Kellar & Kelvin, 2012), the zeta for the positive reciprocity variable is $z = 2.70$ ($-.595/.220$), while the zeta for negative reciprocity is $z = 6.54$ ($1.441/.220$). Pett (2016) argues that if

the resulting z (zeta) lies outside of ± 1.96 , then this results in an asymmetric distribution that is significantly skewed at a value of a two-tailed z statistic where $\alpha=0.05$.

Statistically, this test shows that the data is both significantly skewed and asymmetric in nature. The skewness of the positive reciprocity variable is negatively skewed as the tail extends to the left, whereas the negative reciprocity variable is positively skewed as the tail extends to the right (Pett, 2016) (Figures 6 & 7).

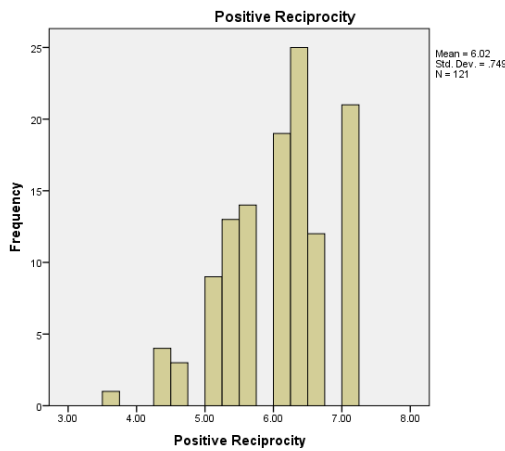


Figure 7: Skewness of positive reciprocity

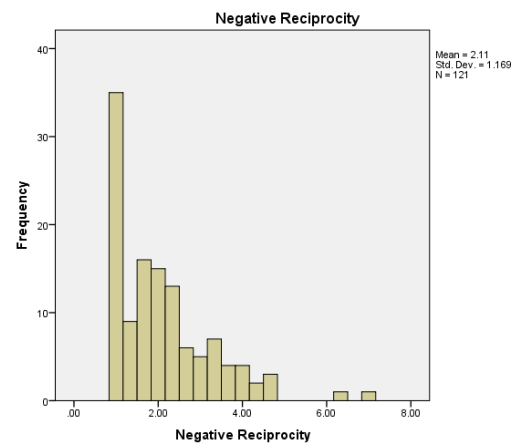


Figure 8: Skewness of negative reciprocity

As a secondary analysis of the data distribution, kurtosis was calculated to examine the weight of the statistical tails. Using the Fisher coefficient of kurtosis = kurtosis / standard error kurtosis (Kellar & Kelvin, 2012), the positive reciprocity zeta is calculated as a $z = 0.208$. This means that the bell-shaped distribution is not significantly different from a standard normal distribution as the resulting z falls within ± 1.96 of the calculated coefficient values (Pett, 2016; Cramer & Howitt, 2004). This type of distribution allows for the use of a Pearson's R correlational analysis. The zeta for the negative reciprocity variable $z = 6.054$ means that the bell-shaped distribution is significantly different from a standard normal distribution (Pett, 2016). With this nonparametric distribution, a Pearson R Correlation would not provide a correct

correlation coefficient, resulting in the need for using an alternative correlational test. As this is ordinal data, the appropriate analytical examination for this research is the Spearman's Rho test (Pagano, 2009).

Generational Correlations

There are two hypotheses tested within this research study. As utilized by past researchers on this subject matter (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Chollet et al., 2014; Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Goldstein et al., 2011) a correlational analysis has been deemed as the appropriate examination to test the first hypothesis: H_1 : *The generational identity of professionals has a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity.* Upon analyzing the median distribution of each variable based on the grouping of appropriate survey measures/items, there are not any large degrees of variability between the respondent groups (Figures 9 & 10).

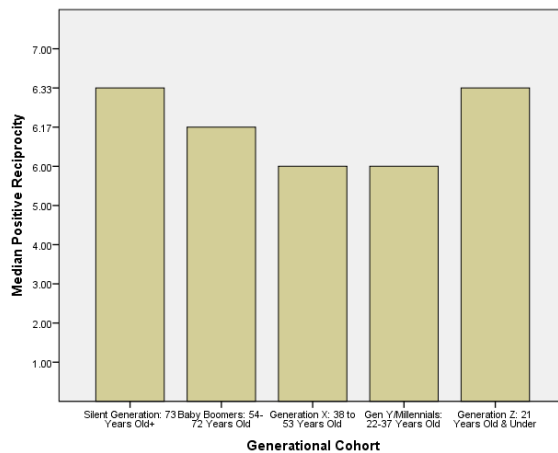


Figure 9: Generational Median Dist. - Positive

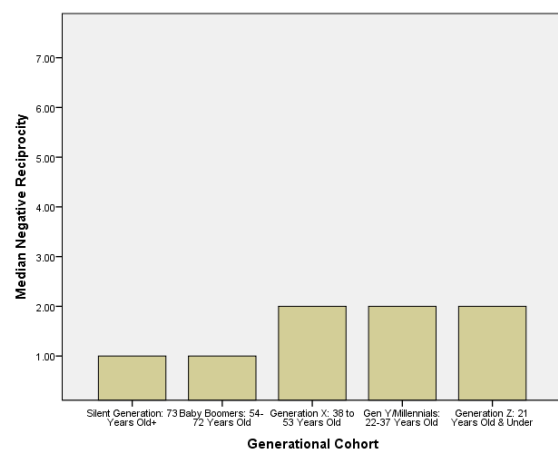


Figure 10: Generational Median Dist. - Negative

Due to the linear relationship of positive reciprocity and generational cohort, a Pearson R Correlation test is the appropriate test to identify if a bivariate correlation exists between these two variables. (Full correlational results are in Appendix D):

Table 13***Pearson R Variable Correlation Matrix – Positive Reciprocity***

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Industry	1.00						
2	Experience	-0.13	1.00					
3	Generation	-0.09	-.45**	1.00				
4	Gender	-0.09	0.09	-0.11	1.00			
5	Education	0.07	0.05	-0.06	.26**	1.00		
6	Evolution	0.03	-0.12	0.17	-0.12	-0.10	1.00	
7	Positive Rec	-0.14	0.01	0.05	-0.11	-.33**	-0.16	1.00

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

After completing the Pearson R correlational analysis, there does not exist a statistically significant correlation between positive reciprocity and generational identity. This data directionally rejects H_1 , thus supporting the null hypothesis for positive reciprocity, H_0 : *The generational identity of professionals does not have a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity.* This is further substantiated through a bivariate correlational analysis which results in an $r(122)=0.052$ when comparing positive reciprocity and generational cohort.

A Spearman's Rho correlational analysis was used to correlate the negative reciprocity dependent variable and the independent variables within this study (industry, experience, generational cohort, gender, education level, and reciprocal evolution). The findings of this analysis were statistically different than that of positive reciprocity. This analysis shows that indeed a professional's generational cohort is statistically correlated with negative reciprocity with a $p = 0.24$ which is statistically significant at $p = 0.02$ (Table 14). As this data shows a monotonic relationship between variables, this correlation itself denotes a small effect size with a $p = 0.24$, which is equal to the correlation coefficient for these types of analyses.

Table 14

<i>Spearman's Rho Variable Correlation Matrix</i>		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Industry	1.00						
2	Experience	-0.14	1.00					
3	Generation	-0.05	-.40**	1.00				
4	Gender	-0.11	0.07	-0.12	1.00			
5	Education	0.12	0.04	-0.10	.27**	1.00		
6	Evolution	0.02	-0.11	.22*	-0.12	-0.11	1.00	
7	Negative Rec	-0.19*	-.26**	.21*	.24**	0.15	-0.01	1.00

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Through this correlational analysis, there does exist a statistically significant correlation between negative reciprocity and generational identity. This data directionally supports H_1 : *The generational identity of professionals does have a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity*, and rejects the null hypothesis for positive reciprocity, H_0 . These findings were substantiated by using a secondary analysis tool, the Kendall's Tau_b which also identified a statistically significant relationship between negative reciprocity and generational cohort (Appendix D).

Generational Differences

The second hypothesis of this study seeks to determine, what (if any) significant differences are identified in the results derived from this research: H_2 : *There are significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity*. Due to the minimal number of responses from both the Silent Generation (three surveys) and Generation Z (one survey), these surveys were excluded from this testing. Prior to testing for variance, a Levene statistic analysis for homogeneity was conducted, showing a $p=0.52$ for positive reciprocity, and negative reciprocity with a $p=0.13$ (Table 15).

Table 15*Test of Homogeneity of Variances*

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Positive Reciprocity	.66	2	115	.52
Negative Reciprocity	2.07	2	115	.13

With ordinal data from different generations, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was determined to be the appropriate test to determine if there exists a statistically significant difference in the means of each variable. To find the variance coefficient, the standard formula for a one-way ANOVA,

$$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$$

(where: F = ANOVA Coefficient, MST = Mean sum of squares due to treatment, and MSE = Mean sum of squares due to error) was used (Table 16).

Table 16*ANOVA – Positive & Negative Reciprocity*

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Positive Reciprocity	Between Groups	1.66	2.00	.83	1.49	.23
	Within Groups	64.13	115.00	.56		
	Total	65.79	117.00			
Negative Reciprocity	Between Groups	8.49	2.00	4.24	3.29	.04
	Within Groups	148.15	115.00	1.29		
	Total	156.64	117.00			

The results of the one way subjects ANOVA for generational cohort on positive reciprocity variable showed $F(2, 117) = 1.491$ with a p value of $p=0.23$. This analysis showed that there is not a statistically significant relationship between generational cohort identity and sentiment of positive reciprocity from a professional perspective. For positive reciprocity, this finding thus rejects H_2 and affirms the null hypothesis H_3 ; *There*

are not significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity. The negative reciprocity variable did show a statistically significant relationship between groups with $F(2, 117) = 3.29$ with a significance of $p = 0.04$. An eta squared test showed an $\eta^2 = .054$, resulting in a small effect size for this relationship. This means that 5.4% of the variability in negative reciprocity can be accounted for by the variability in generational identity.

Further exploring the statistical differences between groups, a post-hoc test, the Tukey HSD was utilized. The standard formula

$$HSD = \frac{M_i - M_j}{\sqrt{\frac{MS_w}{n_h}}}$$

(where $M_i - M_j$ is the difference between the pair of means and MS_w is the Mean Square Within, and n is the number in the group or treatment) was the primary calculation used to identify the mean differences between the groups identified in this variable. Again, only the responses of those individuals representing the Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y/Millennial generations were utilized due to the small participation rate from the Silent Generation (three surveys) and Generation Z/Post-Millennials (one survey). The Tukey HSD could not be calculated with the single response from Generation Z, as there was not at least of minimum of two respondents from that group. Once calculated, the findings of the post-hoc Tukey HSD analysis regarding positive reciprocity have echoed the omnibus test, there is not a statically significant difference between any of the generational cohorts' views on rewarding kindness with kindness.

The ANOVA has already identified that there are statistically significant differences between negative reciprocity and generational identity. This post-hoc test serves to identify which groups have identified mean differences amongst one another. Comparing the three groups with the highest response rates (coincidentally, those that also make up a large majority of the current workforce), the Tukey HSD has shown that there are significant differences not between all three groups, but rather differences between two of the three (Table 17).

Table 17***Post-Hoc Tukey HSD: Negative Reciprocity***

Dependent Variable: Negative Reciprocity

Tukey HSD

(I) Generational Cohort	(J) Generational Cohort	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Baby Boomers: 54-72 Years Old	Generation X: 38 to 53 Years Old	-.72	.34	.10	-1.53	.10
	Gen Y/Millennials: 22-37 Years Old	-.87*	.34	.03	-1.68	-.06
Generation X: 38 to 53 Years Old	Baby Boomers: 54-72 Years Old	.72	.34	.10	-.10	1.53
	Gen Y/Millennials: 22-37 Years Old	-.16	.22	.76	-.69	.37
Gen Y/Millennials: 22-37 Years Old	Baby Boomers: 54-72 Years Old	.87*	.34	.03	.06	1.68
	Generation X: 38 to 53 Years Old	.16	.22	.76	-.37	.69

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Divergently from the positive reciprocity variable, negative reciprocity identified a difference between Baby Boomers and Millennials that has statistically significant p value at $p = 0.03$. The generation sandwiched between these two, Generation X did not

demonstrate a statistical significance between either their predecessors or successor generations. These findings support H₂: *There are significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity.* and reject the null hypothesis H₃.

Additional Findings

Outside of the affirming/disproving the specific hypotheses for this study, the data produced additional findings related to both positive and negative reciprocity variables. Though interrelated to generational demographics, the factors of education, industry type, workforce experience, and gender demonstrated statistically significant correlations to reciprocal sentiments.

Reciprocal Correlations. Initial correlational analysis of the data showed two separate yet different findings when comparing both positive and negative reciprocity. Positive reciprocity is not correlated with generational identity, whereas negative reciprocity is statistically correlated with generational identity. Additionally, when the other independent demographic variables were analyzed with both types of reciprocity, there were several variables that show a statistically significant correlation (Appendix D):

- The Pearson R correlation analysis shows that positive reciprocity correlates to the highest level of education completed at a statistically significant 0.01 level (2-tailed) with a $r = -0.33$. No other independent variables within the study were shown to correlate with positive reciprocity in any statistically significant manner. To calculate effect size, a coefficient of determination showed an $r^2 = .1089$ showing a small effect size. This means that 10.8% of the variance of either variable is shared with the other.

- The Spearman's Rho correlation analysis confirms that negative reciprocity is correlated to years of industry type at a statistically significant 0.05 level (2-tailed) with a $\rho = -0.19$. The $p = 0.19$ shows that this correlation results in a small effect size.
- The Spearman's Rho correlation analysis confirms that negative reciprocity is correlated to years of industry experience at a statistically significant 0.01 level (2-tailed) with a $\rho = -0.26$. The $p = 0.26$ shows that this correlation results in a small effect size.
- The Spearman's Rho correlation analysis confirms that negative reciprocity is correlated to gender identity at a statistically significant 0.01 level (2-tailed) with a $\rho = 0.24$. The $p = 0.24$ shows that this correlation results in a small effect size.

To explore if there were any differences between the groups within each of these variables, all survey data was further tested using an appropriate ANOVA with a post-hoc Tukey HSD test.

Education Level. To explore additional aspects of this data, outside of the primary (H_1) and secondary (H_3) hypotheses, each independent variable (Industry, Experience, Generation, Gender, Education, and Evolution) was analyzed with an ANOVA including a post-hoc Tukey HSD test to determine if there were any other measurable differences between groups. The results of the ANOVA analyses revealed that there was one only independent variable which affected the sentiment of positive reciprocity. This investigation produced a statistically significant difference between groups when comparing the highest level of education completed on positive reciprocity at $p = 0.01$ with $F(4, 114)=3.82$ (Table 18). An eta squared test showed an $\eta^2=.118$,

resulting in a medium effect size for this relationship. This means that 11.8% of the variability in positive reciprocity can be accounted for by variability in the highest level of education completed. Within this analysis, those respondents who answered ‘other’ as their highest level of education were removed as there were a limited number of responses (three) within this category.

Table 18***Positive Reciprocity & Highest Level of Education Completed ANOVA***

Positive Reciprocity

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.168	4	1.79	3.82	.01
Within Groups	53.529	114	0.47		
Total	60.697	118			

The post-hoc survey analysis shows that there is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between those respondents whose highest level of education was high school and those with a bachelor's degree at $p = 0.03$ (Table 19). Similarly, there was a significant statistical difference at the $p < 0.05$ level between those respondents who graduated from high school and those who have earned a doctorate degree at a significance level of $p = 0.02$.

Table 19***Post-Hoc Tukey HSD: Education Level ANOVA***

(I) Highest Level of Education		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Graduated from High School	Associates	.00	.25	1.00
	Bachelors	.49*	.16	.03
	Masters	.31	.19	.48
	Doctorate	.77*	.25	.02
Associate degree	High School	.00	.25	1.00

	Bachelors	.49	.24	.25
	Masters	.31	.26	.75
	Doctorate	.77	.31	.10
Bachelor's Degree	High School	-.49*	.16	.03
	Associates	-.49	.24	.25
	Masters	-.17	.17	.85
	Doctorate	.28	.24	.76
Master's degree	High School	-.31	.19	.48
	Associates	-.31	.26	.75
	Bachelors	.17	.17	.85
	Doctorate	.46	.26	.40
Doctorate Degree	High School	-.77*	.25	.02
	Associates	-.77	.31	.10
	Bachelors	-.28	.24	.76
	Masters	-.46	.26	.40

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Experience Level. As part of the demographic data collected, survey respondents were asked to provide their years of experience within their fields (see Figure 5). This variable did not correlate to positive reciprocity, however there was indeed a statistically significant correlation (at the $p < 0.05$ level) with negative reciprocity (Table 14). The ANOVA and post-hoc test, between experience level on negative reciprocity was reinforced at a statistically significant $p = 0.046$ with $F(4, 117) = 2.501$ (Table 20).

Table 20

Years of Professional Experience ANOVA – Negative Reciprocity

Negative Reciprocity

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12.922	4	3.230	2.501	.046
Within Groups	151.138	117	1.292		
Total	164.059	122			

An eta squared test showed an $\eta^2 = .078$, resulting in a medium effect size for this relationship. This means that 7.8% of the variability in negative reciprocity can be

accounted for by variability in the years of professional experience. Surprisingly, the results of the Tukey HSD test on these variables did not identify any statistically significant differences between any of the groups at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Chapter Conclusions

This chapter contains all pertinent calculations relating to the data collected for this research. To answer the primary research question *how do professionals feel about reciprocity?* (RQ₁), participants from a local chamber of commerce were invited to participate in a previously validated survey. All participants are professionals who have taken this survey out of their own free will as there were no incentives offered to take and/or complete the questionnaire. Demographic information including age, gender, industry type, industry experience, and highest level of education completed was also collected in this study. Being that this research is rooted in understanding differences between generational groups and their sentiments towards reciprocity, capturing the age of each participant was paramount. Based on the definition of Caliendo, et. al. (2012), *Reciprocity* is the inherent personal motivation to respond to the conduct of another person. Caliendo, et. al., (2012) further argue that this concept is divided in two separate and opposing aspects, where *positive reciprocity* is the intention of rewarding those who have been kind to us, and *negative reciprocity* is the intention of punishing those who have been mean to us (p. 3). The data was validated for completeness and tested in accordance with past research precedent which argues for a correlational analysis (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Chollet et al., 2014; Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Goldstein et al., 2011).

Prior to calculating any statistical relationships within the data, the questionnaire was tested for internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) by grouping questions as either

positive or negative reciprocity questions. To measure the validity of this survey instrument within the bounds of this research, the mean of each of the three measures/items relating to both positive and reciprocity were calculated to create the degree of reciprocity (Caliendo et al., 2012; Dohmen et al., 2009). Identifying reciprocity in terms of both positive and negative measures coincides with grounded theory on this subject matter. All data was loaded into SPSS 22.0, labeled, and cleaned to only included complete survey responses. All data was tested for kurtosis and Levene statistic was calculated prior to either correlational analysis. The data for the positive reciprocity variable was parametric and thus the appropriate correlational analysis, a Pearson R was selected. The Pearson R correlation revealed that there did not exist a statistically significant relationship between generational grouping and the positive reciprocity variable, thus directionally affirming the null hypothesis H_0 : *The generational identity of professionals does not have a correlation to their individual sentiments towards reciprocity*. Due to the nonparametric data for the negative reciprocity variable, a Spearman's Rho analysis was conducted which identified that generational identity and negative reciprocity are correlated at a statistically significant level. These results rejected the null and affirmed H_1 hypothesis for the negative reciprocity variable. Conversely, the results also affirmed the null hypothesis H_0 and rejected the H_1 hypotheses for the positive reciprocity variable.

The second hypothesis in this research sought to identify if there were any significant differences in reciprocal sentiment and generational identity. With ordinal data from different generations, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was determined to be the appropriate test to determine if there exists a statistically significant difference in the

means of each variable. Testing the positive reciprocity variable to generational cohort did not produce a statistically significant relationship, however negative reciprocity did produce a statistically significant relationship to generational identity at the $p=0.04$ level. To explore this statistical difference a Tukey HSD test identified that there were differences between how Baby Boomers and Millennials felt about negative reciprocity. These statistically differences affirm the hypotheses H₂: *There are significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity*, and thus reject the null hypothesis.

Through this study it was also discovered that the dependent positive reciprocity variable is significantly correlated with the education level of survey participants. Additionally, negative reciprocity has been found to correlate with the industry type, tenure or years of experience that professionals has completed within their industry, and gender. Every independent variable collected (generational cohort, gender, industry type, industry experience, highest level of education completed, and evolution of reciprocal sentiment) was analyzed using an ANOVA calculation with both positive and negative reciprocity (separately). Only education level and positive reciprocity showed a statistically significant relationship to one another (Table 18). After reviewing the results of the negative reciprocity ANOVA with each independent variable, only experience level identified a statistically significant relationship (Table 20). Interestingly, the results of the Tukey HSD test when comparing negative reciprocity to experience level did not identify any statistically significant differences between any of the groups at the $p<0.05$ level. Though generational researchers have been quick to point out the perceived differences between different generational cohorts (Harris, 2017; Heyns & Kerr, 2018;

Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Stutzer, 2019), this reciprocity research shows that there are more similarities than differences between these generational groups. Chapter Five of this research provides a critical analysis of study findings and their influence on both theory and practice.

CHAPTER 5: Conclusions, Discussion, and Suggestions for Future Research

The objective of this research is to answer the question *how do professionals feel about reciprocity?* (RQ₁). In seeking an answer to this query, a validated instrument was selected, a survey administered, data collected, and statistical analyses conducted. Upon interpreting the results of the analysis, the findings of this research have produced informative material for both the advancement of theoretical knowledge and practical application of business management in several key areas. Even with using an instrument that was originally employed in a large scale survey of over 20,000 participants (Dohmen et al., 2009), the sample size of this survey has provided insight into professional reciprocity and generational workforce dynamics. Research precedent shows that when studying the dependent variables of both positive and negative reciprocity, a correlational analysis is the correct method to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Chollet et al., 2014; Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Goldstein et al., 2011). Based on the skewness of the data, a Pearson R analysis was used to identify correlations with the positive reciprocity variable (parametric), and a Spearman's Rho was employed to calculate the correlations between the independent variables and negative reciprocity (non-parametric). To further identify if there are any significant and identifiable differences between the generational groups, an ANOVA with a post-hoc Tukey HSD was selected as the most appropriate statistical test to test exact sampling in a conservative manner (Abdi & Williams, 2010). The results of these analyses help to identify the personal demographic attributes that shape and influence a professional reciprocal sentiment.

Conclusions and Discussion

After analysis of the data within this study, several statistically significant relationships between different independent variables and the dependent reciprocity variables have been discovered (see Tables 13 & 14). Specifically and central to this study is the understanding of how professionals spanning five different generations feel about reciprocal behavior, both positively and negatively. This study has shown primarily that even though positive and negative reciprocity may be opposite sides of the same personal norm (Gouldner, 1960), they operate completely separate of one another in a manner that exemplifies the determination to reward helpful behavior and retaliate when confronted with harmful (hurting) behavior (Perugini et al., 2002). Even when tested, positive and negative reciprocity are not correlated to one another in any sort of significant relationship (Appendix D). Where professionals may feel that positive reciprocal behavior, i.e. rewarding kindness with balanced kindness, is valued similarly regardless of age, the same cannot be said for negative reciprocity. Simply, this study shows that age does affect the way that individuals feel about professional retaliation. Through further explanation, the findings discovered in this study will show how they inform both the body of theoretical knowledge on this subject matter, while at the same time possessing the power to influence professional practice. (Note: Correlations between independent variables to one another was not further explored in this study as these relationships fell outside of the realm of this research.)

Implications on Theory. Theoretically there were several important discoveries that have emerged from this research. Primarily, there does not exist a statistically significant correlation between a professional's generational cohort and their

sentimentality towards positive reciprocity. These findings directionally reject the initial hypothesis (H_1) and support the null hypothesis (H_0). With a Pearson R correlation of $r(122) = 0.05$ for positive reciprocity (significance of $p=0.57$), among all generational cohorts respectively, this data shows that the age of person does not affect nor shape how they feel about positive reciprocity, or their willingness to reward someone for kind actions. Without a significant correlational link between positive reciprocity and generational perspectives, the findings of this study still have been able to uphold that as a personal norm positive reciprocity transcends age. When testing the negative reciprocity variable, there were several key variables that were shown to have a statistically significant correlation to this directional attribute of reciprocity.

Generational cohort, industry type, years of experience, and gender identity all displayed a significant relationship to negative reciprocity allowing for the creation of a working theoretical model.

Multigenerational Reciprocity. Theoretically, this study provides a new insight as to those attributes that directly influence feelings regarding professional reciprocal behavior and multi-generational understanding. Past research on generational identities has been able to provide rich descriptors as to the differences in intrinsic values (Dunn, 2018; Urick, 2012), motivations (Abdul Malek & Jaguli, 2018; Heyns & Kerr, 2018), attitudes (Stutzer, 2019), workplace behavior (Heyns & Kerr, 2018), and communication expectations (Stutzer, 2019) of each of the current generational cohorts. The theoretical findings of this study are unique to both positive reciprocity and its opposing force, negative reciprocity. Regarding positive reciprocity, seminal researcher Putnam (2000) argues that the American sense of civic duty based in reciprocity has decreased compared

to 40 years ago. Even traditional social/service groups have made the case that younger generations are choosing not to embrace membership in reciprocity based civic oriented entities, causing many clubs to dwindle and close (Arnett, 2014; Green Valley News Staff, 2015; Serven, 2016). The findings of this research challenge the notion that generational identity influences feelings towards positive reciprocity. If the feelings of positive reciprocity have not changed through the years, these findings contest long held beliefs that younger generations value positive reciprocity differently than previous generations. If anything, the results of this study advocate for the understanding that generational identity does not influence professional attitudes towards positive reciprocity in any significant fashion, but rather professionals of any age have similar feelings towards rewarding kind behavior. Professional sentiment found in this study supports the position that *I'll patronize you, you patronize me* (Stocking & Mueller, 1957) regardless of age demographics.

A willingness to embrace in positive reciprocity yields to the creation of social capital. When individuals and groups (organizations) work together, they become interdependently obligated to each other (Scott, 1953), creating mutual benefits (Adler & Kwon, 2002); thus, increasing the likelihood of an individual or firm's economic success (Blount, Smith, & Hill, 2013; Putnam, 2000). A unique attribute of social capital is that the expense of building a relationship with another person is a non-monetized activity that can cost nothing. The relational social capital that is formed by professionals who are willing to reciprocate with one another in mutual exchanges is shown to be a mainstay in business, surpassing age and generational cohort. This study supports the findings of

previous extant literature, that regardless of age professionals are willfully engaging in mutually beneficial behaviors where the total is greater than the sum of its parts.

The analysis of negative reciprocity, to understand the sentiment of punishing those who have been unkind, has produced a significant correlation to generational identity showing that age can influence an individual's willingness to engage in vengeance. This correlation infers that a professional's generational cohort influences their individual willingness to seek retribution when they feel that they have been harmed. These findings are new to the study of reciprocity in relation to generational dynamics. Though a professional may be willing to reward a kind action in a similar fashion regardless of age, when it comes to retaliation, professionals will most likely act differently based on which generation they are born into and identify with. As described in Chapter Two, many studies on reciprocity (positive and/or negative) categorize professionals and organizational actors as a singular population, void of comprehensive generational attributes. These findings bring to light new information regarding generational identity and its statistical influence on the sentimentality of negative reciprocity.

Differences Between Groups. Not only were correlations measured to identify possible differences between generational groups, but the secondary hypothesis in this study sought to find out if there are significant differences in the individual sentiments that professionals have towards reciprocity. The ANOVA with Tukey HSD has shown that there are not significant differences between the groups regarding positive reciprocity, thus supporting the null hypothesis (H_3) that there are no statistically significant generational differences regarding reciprocity. When comparing negative

reciprocity to the respondent's generational cohort however, a different story begins to emerge. Significant differences were discovered between the way that Millennials and their predominantly Baby Boomer parents (Migliaccio, 2017) feel about negative reciprocity, i.e. retaliating against those who are mean to us (Perugini et al., 2002). The data shows that Millennial professionals are more likely to be negatively reciprocal to others who have caused them harm than their Baby Boomer counterparts.

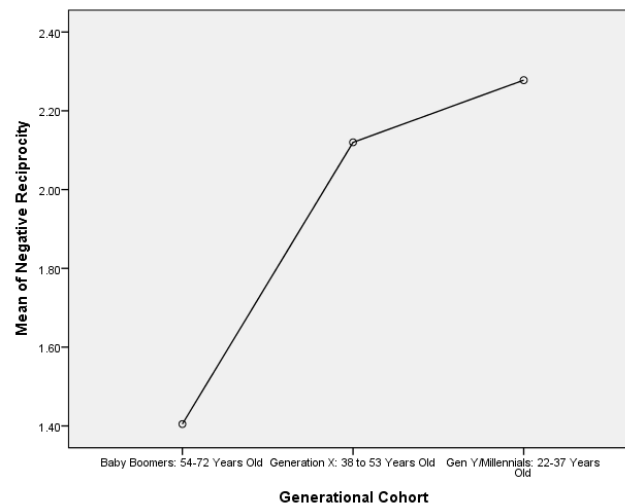


Figure 11: Generational Mean of Negative Reciprocity

There could be several factors as to why this difference exists within this sample. A potential explanation could be due to the optimistic nature of the Baby Boomer Generation (Harris, 2017) who look for the best in others, in comparison with Millennials who tend to be very achievement oriented (Stutzer, 2019) and retaliate when they have been treated unkindly (Falk & Fischbacher, 2006). Either way, this topic of differing opinions regarding negative reciprocity is deserving of further research.

Education Level. The data analysis identified that the highest level of education completed correlated to an individual's feelings toward positive reciprocity. Through the ANOVA analysis and subsequent post-hoc test, it became clear that there were statistical differences in reciprocity between those who have only completed a high school

education compared to those with either a bachelor's or doctorate degree. There could be several reasons as to why this significance has been identified including the possibility of the ability to self-regulate for long term goals as opposed to short term, post-secondary lessons on reciprocity, economic factors, and/or educational access. In a quick exploration of the interrelatedness of education level to reciprocal attitudes, there has been very limited research on this topic. Further investigation of this correlation and differences between groups could be a possible direction for future researchers.

Experience Level. The level professional experience and its influence on negative reciprocity was an unanticipated association. Based on this study, there is a negative correlation between the experience and negative reciprocity variables deducing that the amount of experience that someone has in an industry will limit their vengefulness or willingness to retaliate when they feel that have been harmed. Seasoned professionals are more willing to let harmful behavior subside without an equal response. Those with less experience however seemed poised to seek retribution when they feel that they have been harmed.

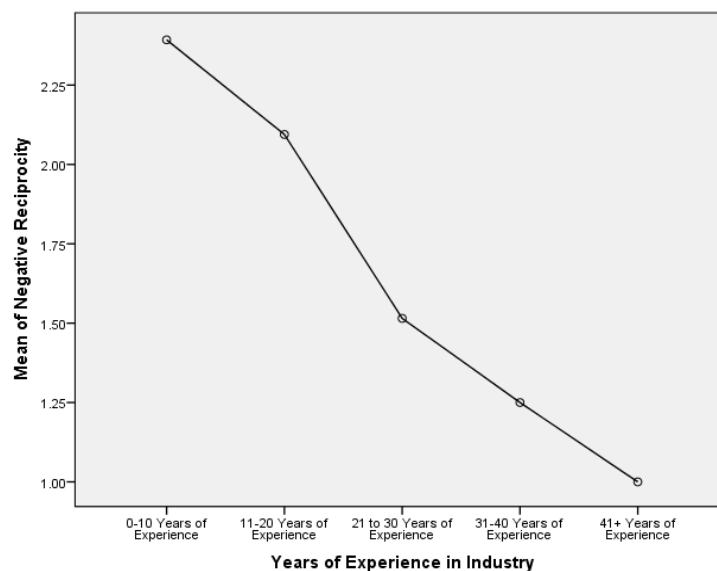


Figure 12: Years of Professional Experience Compared to Negative Reciprocity

Much as with education level, there has been minimal research completed on the topic of how years of professional experience/tenure affect the way that someone feels about reciprocity. This topic should be further explored by future researchers to seek out a stronger theoretical understanding of this correlation.

Theoretical Model. This study has produced an understanding that there are several different factors that influence a professional's sentimentality regarding the positive and negative directions of reciprocity. Some of these factors only impact one of the directions of the reciprocity but not the other. Within the bounds of this research, demographic data was collected to identify which, if any, of these attributes have a significant influence on professional feelings of reciprocity. Based on statistical analysis, several key demographic characteristics are identified to uniquely influence professional reciprocal sentiment (Figure 13). This proposed model, the Reciprocal Influencers Model, identifies that professional reciprocal sentiment is comprised of specific influencers that impact an individual's feelings towards negative and/or positive reciprocity.

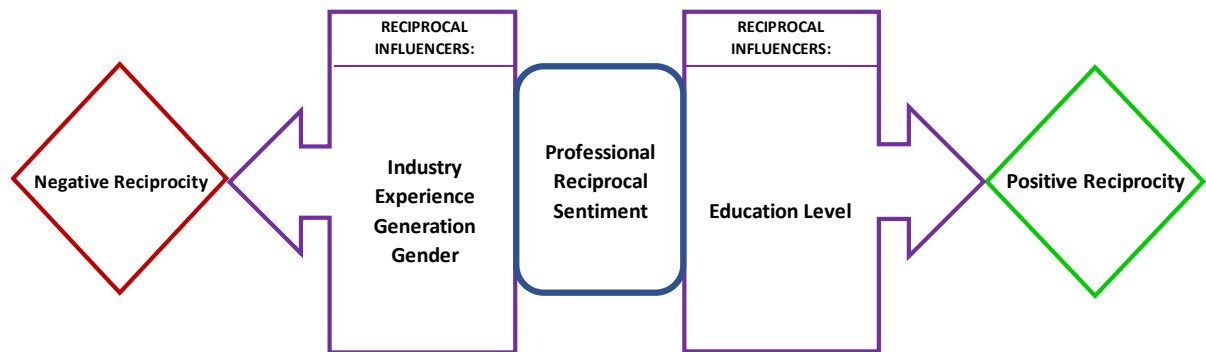


Figure 13: Reciprocal Influencers Model

This model is not specifically limited to only the demographic data collected in this study as there could be many other personal and professional attributes which shape a

professional's reciprocal sentiment. Whereas much of the past research on reciprocity has focused the relationship with other traits like trust (Maximiano, 2012; Sabel, 1993), career (Nieß, 2014), satisfaction (Budria & Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2012), entrepreneurship (Caliendo et al., 2012), locus of control (Heineck & Anger, 2008), and ethics (Tangpong et al., 2016), the findings in this study discover those areas of a professional's life that shape/influence their holistic reciprocal sentiment. Future research could extend this research and aid in determining which additional influencers have a significant relationship to either type of reciprocal force.

Implications to Practice. The findings of this study extend beyond the theoretical body of knowledge relating to generational research and the understanding of reciprocity. The results show that regardless of age, gender, or industry type people actively practice positive reciprocity in their professional roles. In practice, this would mean that positive/rewarding interactions with professionals of all ages and generations should generate a similar response. If you help someone, they will most likely help you in return or if you punish someone, they will most likely punish you in return (Caliendo et al., 2012). *So how do professionals feel about reciprocity?* This research decidedly demonstrates that professionals will interact with each other in a positively reciprocal manner when appropriate, regardless of age.

The willingness for professionals to embrace positive reciprocity with a variable mean of $\mu = 6.092$ (on seven point scale) shows the high level of willingness to reciprocate kindness with kindness. A mean score near the maximum shows that most professionals in this study felt a willingness to positively reciprocate and undergo personal costs if necessary to return a favor in manner that is equivalent or equitable

(Vaux Halliday, 2003) This could mean that in the business world if professional salesperson receives a referral from a colleague, then they are likely to show appreciation at some time in the future. These instincts or feelings exceed age or generational identity. This study upholds extant literature in the belief that positive reciprocity appears to be a personal norm (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Gouldner, 1960) among all ages groups with little difference between them. As a professional, participation in traditional service associations, clubs, or business organizations can still yield positive results as long one acts in a way that shows positive reciprocity to other members regardless of age. Professionally, and as a cautionary anecdote, this study shows that people are willing to punish one another based on harmful behavior and age plays a determining factor. For example, if a sales professional is maliciously undercut on a potential sale by a dishonest competitor, it is likely that this individual may seek some sort of retribution or revenge (Gachter & Herrmann, 2009), which is significantly influenced by generational identify. A willingness to engage in a negatively reciprocal behavior can place professionals on a trajectory that could potentially lead to compromising or unethical behavior known as the dark-side of reciprocity (Tangpong et al., 2016).

Professionals should take note of these study findings, because even if positive reciprocal sentiment and age are not correlated, there are significant differences between the way that Baby Boomers and Millennials feel about negative reciprocity. The data shows that Millennial professionals demonstrate a significantly greater desire to seek revenge when they feel that they have been harmed in a professional setting. This could mean addressing issues with a manager when they feel that they have been treated unfairly by coworker/customer etc. Comparatively their Baby Boomer parents may continue to

accept hurtful professional behavior as normal and acceptable. Managers who work in a multi-generational environment should take note of this generational attribute as it could provide a reason as to why a Millennial professional is more willing to seek reprisal of injustices when they feel harmed. Additionally, managers should also become aware that Millennials are less likely to accept perceived workplaces injustices lying down as prior generations. This generational cohort is more willing to identify and speak out against apparent wrongs that are occurring in their professional environments.

The findings relating to education level and positive reciprocity have shown that professionals who have earned degrees (bachelors and doctorate) have a higher tendency to practice positive reciprocity than their high school educated counter parts. For those industry types that heavily rely on reciprocal exchanges to foster growth/revenue (for-profit, not-for-profit) hiring educated professionals seems the appropriate choice. Educated professionals seem to grasp the understanding that in order to gain you must give in order to be successful. These professionals do not see rewarding others as altruism per se, but rather a karmic action that will be met with an equally beneficial reaction. For hiring managers in a field such as sales, marketing, professional services, and non-profit donation acquisition, hiring an educated professional could exponentially increase reciprocal opportunities.

Study Limitations

The findings of this study have influence both theory and practice through several subject matters, however there is still more work to be done to expound on the findings in this study. Even though the results have proven valid and valuable, there are several

factors which have possibly limited of this study. In no specific order of importance, a list of several limiting factors include:

- *Scope of this survey* – This survey was bound by six questions/items, comprised of only two different dependent variables. The thought process behind such a minimal survey was that in order to gather responses from busy professionals, it was imperative that the survey be short and direct. For example, another validated survey that measures both positive and negative reciprocity, the Personal Norm of Reciprocity Survey (PNR), has 116 items (Perugini et al., 2002) which could allow for greater analysis of these variables and other interrelated variables such as trust, competitive advantage, and relational capital. A longer survey however would take longer for the participant to complete which could ultimately affect participation rates. Regardless of size, this questionnaire has been able to provide accurate findings that have shown to have both theoretical and practitioner value.
- *Survey method of administration* - This survey was only available through an electronic digital platform using the website SurveyMonkey.com. While the assumption is that most professionals have internet access, there is a possibility that this method of survey administration limited the number of Traditionalist/Silent Generation respondents, as this population only comprises 5% of the internet using population (Pita, 2012)
- *Sample size* – This survey was administered to business professionals within a small population of 394 resulting in a collected sample of 122 surveys. The initial SOEP 2005 wave survey which had these exact questions relating to reciprocity

had over 22,000 responses (Dohmen et al., 2008). It is a possibility that this limited pool of respondent could have affected the outcomes of this research.

- *Geographic location of survey participants* – As all respondents were professionals from Southwestern Idaho, it is unclear if there are potential cultural, geographic, and diversity biases/differences that could have affected the way these questions were answered.
- *Survey period* – This survey was available for completion for exactly two weeks. Due to limited availability with the surveyed population, it was imperative that this survey was administered and completed within a tight time period. A tight survey period for this type of questionnaire is not unprecedented however, as past researchers have argued that empirical surveys should be administered for at least two weeks (Schlich & Axhausen, 2003). After the survey was closed, there were three professionals that sent a message stating that they had attempted to complete the survey, however they were late in doing so and missed the deadline for participation.
- *Sample bias* – As the researcher in this study is an active business professional within the geographic locale that this survey was administered in, there is a high probability that many of the respondents are personally known to him. Though all invitations to participants were distributed by a third party professional, the researcher's name was provided to all survey invitees. Though not certain this information may have impacted the overall level of participation and completed responses.

- *Voluntary response bias* – A participants who completed this survey did so on a voluntary basis, which adds a potential for response bias. Respondents may overrepresent the opinions of those professionals who have strong opinions on reciprocity, while unintentionally underrepresenting those with differing views.

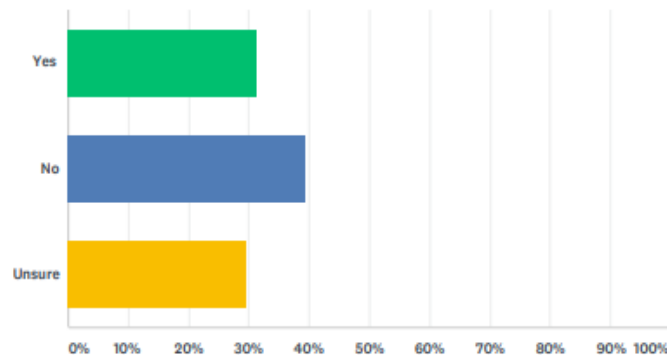
This study has allowed for a unique insight into the way that professionals today feel about rewarding and punishing those who act in a similar manner. Even with these potential study limitations, the value received from this research adds value to the practice of professional management, the psychological understandings of reciprocity, and the factors that influence multi-generational values.

Suggestions for Future Research

This topic has several facets that can be further explored to gain more knowledge on reciprocity. First and foremost, identifying influencers which shape professional reciprocal sentiment is paramount to expanding the Reciprocal Influencers Model. Knowing which factors shape how reciprocity shapes workforce interactions not only influences theory, but there are limitless business and economic implications which require further investigation. To test the findings and statistical replicability of this research, it is suggested that future researchers attempt to administer this survey to much broader population to gather professional sentiment at the state, regional, or national level with much a larger sample. It is unclear if this will result in significant findings that differ from the ones found here, or if future research will substantiate and validate what has been calculated within the bounds of this survey. As this research sought to identify the sentimentality of professional reciprocity by intentionally having respondents answer from a professional perspective (Appendix B, p. 3), it would be prudent for future

researchers to seek a different viewpoint and ask respondents to answer from a purely personal perspective. It would then be interesting to compare if there were any statistically significant differences between personal and professional sentimentality towards reciprocity.

Lastly, in the final question of the survey, each respondent was asked whether they believed that their feelings towards reciprocity had changed over time. The answers to this question did not produce any statistically significant relationships nor difference between any other variables. With over 60% of respondents answering either affirmatively or unsure if their beliefs have changed over time, it would benefit future researchers to run a longitudinal study that could identify if belief changes are taking place (Figure 14). Identifying the developmental process as generational cohorts change over time would help future researchers identify if reciprocal sentiment is dependent more on generational identity or possibly based on age/maturity level.



ANSWER CHOICES	RESPONSES	
Yes	31.15%	38
No	39.34%	48
Unsure	29.51%	36
TOTAL		122

Figure 14: Evolution of Reciprocal Feelings

Additionally, there could be value in running a long-term ethnographic study researching future professionals in emerging generations to detect if there are any significant changes to reciprocal beliefs.

Conclusion

Regardless of a professional's generational identity, reciprocity continues to be a factor that influences both personal and professional interactions/behavior. When professionals interact to benefit or harm one another, reciprocity will continue to act the currency of society (Haidt & Graham, 2007). In the spirit of *doctorem reciproco*, while professionals continue to beneficially network with one another, practitioners can rest assured professional interactions will continue to be business as usual regardless of generational identity. It is only when individuals harm one another, that age can influence the potential degree of punishment. It is not that professionals and their attitudes towards reciprocity has changed over time per se, but possibly it is the methods, organizations, and mediums that professionals engage in which have changed. With professionals openly embracing/implementing professional concepts like pay it forward, Chamber of Commerce flash mobs, and heavily using websites like Yelp, Kickstarter, or GoFundMe.com people are still putting reciprocity (positive/negative) into action. These methods are all rooted in the *Golden Rule*, even if they do not follow the prescribed ideas of networking that were held true by past generations. Furthermore, with technological advancements which allow for global communication in an instant through the world wide web, the concept of community is ever changing. No longer is community loosely understood as only the people that you live in proximity too, attend school with, or go to church with. The idea that civic engagement is built through memberships in local

service clubs, PTO/school boards, bowling leagues, and garden clubs is antiquated and not non-inclusive of a global marketplace. Now civic engagement comes from participation in forums like social media groups, educational cohorts that span the Earth, and online gaming communities that provide connection with others whom you share an association.

This study has shown that even as industries have come and gone, people are people and they will care for one another, or inversely hurt one another when they are the recipients of similar action. Even as minor differences between generational cohorts has been discovered within the realm of this study, it does not mean that people have changed to the point that they do not value reciprocity. Professionals very much feel the need to continue valuing the power of reciprocity within their industry, even at possibly different levels. As argued by Beauchamp & Heron (2019), “reciprocity is the social principle and virtue that names one’s capacity to enter into such binding relations with others and thus to place oneself in the position of being able to meet their needs, while simultaneously have one’s own needs met. Reciprocity thus names the human person’s performative acknowledgment that the risk and cost of cooperation with others is nothing when compared to the risk and cost of separation, negligence, and isolation” (p. 109). Building community through reciprocity is where the value from this idea emerges. Acting in a reciprocal manner is not mandatory or legally required, however reciprocal activity is continues to be boundless personal moral norm (Altmann, Dohmen, & Wibril, 2008; Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015; Gouldner, 1960), while at the same time being a transcendent societal norm (Goldstein et al., 2011). As research continues to explore the far-reaching power to reciprocal activity and sentiment, it is imperative to understand that even as

technology, education, and communication evolves, human nature has not changed all that much.

Professionals from all walks of life have demonstrated within this study that reciprocity is in and of itself a goal, not merely a means to a goal (Perugini et al., 2002). When professionals are shown kindness, they will possibly reciprocate kindness in the form of referrals, leads, partnerships and additional business. If professionals are mistreated, then they may act vengefully in the form of loss of reputation, disassociation, or ultimately professional failure. In the world of business and economics, professional reciprocation not only influences interpersonal and organizational relationships, but there can often be a direct economic impact to the bottom line. As argued by Kolm (1994), reciprocity can be explained as a sense of balance between that which is being transferred between parties. For professionals, finding this balance can be the difference between ultimate success or disaster as the future can be the direct result of how they treat others.

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
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Appendix A: German Socio-Economic Panel Study (SOEP) – 2005 Wave

To what degree do the following statements apply to you personally?

 Please answer according to the following scale:

1 means: "**does not apply to me at all**",

7 means: "**applies to me perfectly**".

Does not
apply to me
at all

Applies
to me
perfectly

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If someone does me a favor, I am prepared to return it..... ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

If I suffer a serious wrong, I will take revenge as soon as possible, no matter what the cost ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

If somebody puts me in a difficult position, I will do the same to him/her ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

I go out of my way to help somebody who has been kind to me before ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

If somebody offends me, I will offend him/her back ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

I am ready to undergo personal costs to help somebody who helped me before ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Questions (1), (4) and (6) ask about positive reciprocity, while questions (2), (3) and (5) ask about negative reciprocity.

Also, two of the questions ask explicitly whether the respondent would incur costs to be negatively reciprocal (question 2) or positively reciprocal (question 6) (Dohmen et al., 2009).

Appendix B: Reciprocity Survey Provided to Respondents

Survey participants will be provided a link to the survey via an e-mail invitation. All surveys will be conducted through SurveyMonkey, a reputable survey website.

Respondents and their answers will remain anonymous to the researcher. As a means of identifying the appropriate generational identity and qualifying factors of each respondent, the data collected will include pertinent demographic information such as respondent age, gender, industry, years of professional business experience, and organization type (for-profit, not-for-profit). Attached are questions of the exact survey taken by each respondent. Items with a preceding blue asterisk in front of the question are required for the completion of the survey and must be answered for the responses to be submitted.

Page 1 - Professional Reciprocity: Business Type

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Professional Reciprocity

Business Type

1. Which business type best describes the industry in which you work?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="radio"/> For-Profit Business | <input type="radio"/> Governmental Agency |
| <input type="radio"/> Not-for profit Organization | <input type="radio"/> Retired and/or Not Working |

2. How many years have you worked in this type of business?

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| <input type="radio"/> 0 to 10 years | <input type="radio"/> 31 to 40 years |
| <input type="radio"/> 11 to 20 years | <input type="radio"/> 40 years + |
| <input type="radio"/> 21 to 30 years | |

Page 2 - Professional Reciprocity: Demographic Information



Professional Reciprocity

Demographic Information

* 1. What is your current age group?

- ☐ 73 years old + ☐ 22 to 37 years old
- ☐ 54 to 72 years old ☐ 21 years old and under
- ☐ 38 to 53 years old

2. What is your gender?

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male
- ☐ Other

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ Did not attend school
- ☐ Graduated from high school
- ☐ Associate degree
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Master's degree
- ☐ Doctoral degree
- ☐ Other

Page 3 - Professional Reciprocity:
From a professional perspective, please answer the following questions:



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Professional Reciprocity

From a professional perspective, please answer the following questions:

* 1. If someone does me a favor, I am prepared to return it

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐

* 2. If I suffer a serious wrong, I will take revenge as soon as possible, no matter what the cost

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐

* 3. If somebody puts me in a difficult position, I will do the same to him/her

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐

* 4. I go out of my way to help somebody who has been kind to me before

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐

* 5. If somebody offends me, I will offend him/her back

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐

* 6. I am ready to undergo personal costs to help somebody who helped me before

1. Does not apply to me

7. Applies to me perfectly

☐☐


Page 4: Evolution

 GEORGE FOX UNIVERSITY	Professional Reciprocity
Evolution	

1. Do you believe your feelings toward reciprocity has/will change over time?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No
- ☐ Unsure

Page 5: Professional Reciprocity – End of Survey Thank You

 GEORGE FOX UNIVERSITY	Professional Reciprocity
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Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Your responses are greatly appreciated.

Upon arriving to page five of this web-based survey, the responses of each participant will have been recorded through SurveyMonkey and are ready for further analysis.

Appendix C: IRB Approval

GEORGE FOX UNIVERSITY
HSRC INITIAL REVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
Page 6

Title:

Doctorum reciproco: Multi-generational professionals and their sentimentality towards reciprocity

Principal

Researcher(s): Sal Villegas

Date application completed: 05/16/2019

COMMITTEE FINDING:

☒ 1) The proposed research makes adequate provision for safeguarding the health and dignity of the subjects and is therefore approved.

☐ 2) Due to the assessment of risk being questionable or being subject to change, the research must be periodically reviewed by the HRSC on a _____ basis throughout the course of the research or until otherwise notified. This requires resubmission of this form, with updated information, for each periodic review.

☐ 3) The proposed research evidences some unnecessary risk to participants and therefore must be revised to remedy the following specific area(s) of non-compliance:

☐ 4) The proposed research contains serious and potentially damaging risks to subjects and is therefore not approved.

Chair or designated member  Date 5/30/19

Appendix D: Complete Correlational Analysis Results

Pearson R Correlation for Positive Reciprocity Variable

		Pearson's R Correlations						
		Industry	Experience	Generation	Gender	Education	Evolution	Positive Rec
Industry	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-.13	-.09	-.09	.07	.03	-.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.14	.35	.34	.46	.78	.14
Experience	Pearson Correlation	-.13	1.00	-.45**	.09	.05	-.12	.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.14		.00	.30	.61	.19	.95
Generation	Pearson Correlation	-.09	-.45**	1.00	-.11	-.06	.17	.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.35	.00		.22	.49	.07	.57
Gender	Pearson Correlation	-.09	.09	-.11	1.00	.26**	-.12	-.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.34	.30	.22		.00	.19	.21
Education	Pearson Correlation	.07	.05	-.06	.26**	1.00	-.10	-.33**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.46	.61	.49	.00		.27	.00
Evolution	Pearson Correlation	.03	-.12	.17	-.12	-.10	1.00	-.16
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.78	.19	.07	.19	.27		.09
Positive Rec	Pearson Correlation	-.14	.01	.05	-.11	-.33**	-.16	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.14	.95	.57	.21	.00	.09	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Spearman's Rho Correlation Table for the Negative Reciprocity Variable

		Spearman's Rho Correlations						
		Industry	Experience	Generation	Gender	Education	Evolution	Negative Rec
Industry	Correlation Coefficient	1.00	-.14	-.05	-.11	.12	.02	-.19*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.12	.56	.22	.20	.83	.04
Experience	Correlation Coefficient	-.14	1.00	-.40**	.07	.04	-.11	-.26**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.12		.00	.46	.65	.21	.00
Generation	Correlation Coefficient	-.05	-.40**	1.00	-.12	-.10	.22*	.21*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.56	.00		.20	.29	.01	.02
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-.11	.07	-.12	1.00	.27**	-.12	.24**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.22	.46	.20		.00	.18	.01
Education	Correlation Coefficient	.12	.04	-.10	.27**	1.00	-.11	.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.20	.65	.29	.00		.23	.09
Evolution	Correlation Coefficient	.02	-.11	.22*	-.12	-.11	1.00	-.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.83	.21	.01	.18	.23		.94
Negative Rec	Correlation Coefficient	-.19*	-.26**	.21*	.24**	.15	-.01	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.04	.00	.02	.01	.09	.94	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Kendall's Tau_b Correlation Table for Negative Reciprocity Variable (Secondary Test)

		Kendall's Tau_b Correlations						
		Industry	Experience	Generation	Gender	Education	Evolution	Negative Rec
Industry	Correlation Coefficient	1.00	-.13	-.05	-.11	.10	.02	-.16*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.12	.56	.22	.21	.83	.04
Experience	Correlation Coefficient	-.13	1.00	-.37**	.06	.04	-.10	-.22**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.12		.00	.46	.65	.21	.00
Generation	Correlation Coefficient	-.05	-.37**	1.00	-.11	-.09	.19*	.18*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.56	.00		.19	.28	.02	.02
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-.11	.06	-.11	1.00	.24**	-.12	.21**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.22	.46	.19		.00	.18	.01
Education	Correlation Coefficient	.10	.04	-.09	.24**	1.00	-.09	.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.21	.65	.28	.00		.23	.09
Evolution	Correlation Coefficient	.02	-.10	.19*	-.12	-.09	1.00	-.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.83	.21	.02	.18	.23		.94
Positive Rec	Correlation Coefficient	-.16*	-.22**	.18*	.21**	.12	-.01	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.04	.00	.02	.01	.09	.94	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Positive to Negative Reciprocity Correlational Analysis

Pearson R Correlations

		Positive Reciprocity	Negative Reciprocity
Positive Reciprocity	Pearson Correlation	1	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.807
	N	122	122
Negative Reciprocity	Pearson Correlation	-.022	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.807	
	N	122	122

Nonparametric Correlations

			Positive Reciprocity	Negative Reciprocity
Kendall's tau_b	Positive Reciprocity	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.089
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.195
		N	122	122
	Negative Reciprocity	Correlation Coefficient	-.089	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.195	.
		N	122	122
Spearman's rho	Positive Reciprocity	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.122
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.182
		N	122	122
	Negative Reciprocity	Correlation Coefficient	-.122	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.182	.
		N	122	122