



INSTITUTO
UNIVERSITÁRIO
DE LISBOA

The Influence of Millennials' Work Values on Their Turnover Intention -the Role of Occupational Well-being and Organizational Identification: Evidence from Chinese Manufacturing Industry

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Doctor of Management

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University of Electronic Science and Technology of China

May, 2022



**BUSINESS
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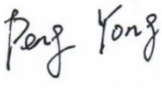
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**The Influence of Millennials' Work Values on
Their Turnover Intention -the Role of
Occupational Well-being and Organizational
Identification: Evidence from Chinese
Manufacturing Industry**

PENG Yong

Declaration

I declare that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university and that to the best of my knowledge it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.


Signed: 

Date: 2022.5.16

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作者申明

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Abstract

As China's post-80s and post-90s become the backbone of the manufacturing industry, their pursuit of self-worth, a comfortable working environment, work-life balance and the pleasure of enjoying life presents huge challenges for the Chinese manufacturing industry which is characterized with low cost (low pay), overwork and hostile working environment. The inconsistency between employees' work values and manufacturing enterprises lead to the high turnover rate of millennials. In this context, this study draws on previous research results to construct a model on the relationship between work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, aiming to understand how the work values of millennial employees affect their turnover intention.

Two independent studies were conducted to test the hypothesized model. The first study used a sample of 635 millennial employees in the manufacturing industry through a self-reported survey. Structural equation modelling revealed the following results.

Firstly, work values negatively influence turnover intention by positively influencing occupational well-being. Further, work values-turnover intention relationship is sequentially mediated by occupational well-being and organizational identification. Lastly, occupational well-being fully mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.

The second study (n=225) using the same measurements and research methods produced similar results, which further validated the research model.

This study provides managerial implications and work suggestions for managers and millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and enriches the international literature on millennial study.

Keywords: work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification, turnover intention, millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

JEL: M10; M12

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Resumo

À medida que as gerações dos anos 80 e 90 na China se tornam a espinha dorsal da indústria produtiva, a procura pela autoestima, conforto no ambiente de trabalho, equilíbrio trabalho-vida e o desfrutar dos prazeres da vida representam enormes desafios para a indústria chinesa que é caracterizada pelo baixo custo (baixa remuneração), excesso de trabalho e ambiente de trabalho hostil. A inconsistência entre os valores de trabalho dos trabalhadores e as empresas industriais leva à uma alta taxa de rotatividade externa entre os trabalhadores da geração millennial. Nesse contexto, este estudo baseia-se em resultados de pesquisas anteriores para construir um modelo explicativo da intenção de saída com base nos valores de trabalho dos millenials a trabalhar na indústria.

Dois estudos independentes foram realizados para testar o modelo hipotetizado. O primeiro estudo utilizou uma amostra de 635 trabalhadores da geração millennial na indústria de manufatura com base num inquérito por questionário de auto-reporte. O modelo de equações estruturais revelou os seguintes resultados.

Em primeiro lugar, os valores de trabalho influenciam negativamente a intenção de saída devido à sua influência positiva no bem-estar ocupacional. Para além disso, a relação entre a intenção de saída e os valores de trabalho é sequencialmente mediada pelo bem-estar ocupacional e a identificação com a organização. Por fim, o bem-estar ocupacional medeia totalmente a relação entre os valores do trabalho e a identificação com a organização. O segundo estudo (n=225) usando as mesmas medidas e métodos de pesquisa produziu resultados semelhantes, oferecendo mais poder explicativo ao modelo de pesquisa.

Este estudo tem implicações para a gestão e oferece sugestões de trabalho para chefias e trabalhadores da geração millennial na indústria e enriquece a literatura internacional sobre o estudo da geração millennial.

Palavras-chave: Valores de trabalho, Bem-estar ocupacional, identificação organizacional, intenção de saída, trabalhadores millenials na indústria

JEL: M10; M12

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摘要

随着中国 80 后和 90 后成为制造业的中坚力量，他们对自我价值、舒适的工作环境、工作生活平衡以及享受生活的追求对低成本，低工资，超时工作和工作环境不友善的中国制造业带来了巨大的挑战。员工的工作价值观和制造业企业之间的不匹配导致新生代员工的离职率居高不下。鉴于此，本研究借鉴前人研究成果，构建了制造业新生代员工工作价值观和离职倾向关系的模型，旨在了解新生代员工的工作价值观对其离职意向的影响。

本文开展了两个独立的研究来检验假设模型。研究 1 通过自我报告式调查对 635 名制造业新生代员工进行调查，通过 SPSS 软件，使用结构方程模型等方法对研究假设模型进行验证，最终得出以下研究结果：

首先，工作价值观通过正向影响工作幸福感从而负向影响离职倾向；其次，工作价值观通过正向影响工作幸福感进而正向影响组织认同从而负向影响离职倾向；最后，工作幸福感在工作价值观与组织认同之间起完全中介作用。

研究 2 (n=225) 采用了同样的测量方法和研究方法，得出了一致的结果，进一步验证了研究模型。

本研究对制造业管理者和新生代员工提供了管理启示和工作建议，并且丰富了关于新生代研究的国际文献。

关键词：工作价值观，工作幸福感，组织认同，离职倾向，制造业新生代员工

JEL： M10； M12

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Acknowledgments

In retrospect, why did I sign up for the DoM program in the first place? In fact, I was at a loss. I may have been driven by the vanity of obtaining a DoM degree and the peace of mind I will enjoy afterwards. Yet on second thought, I always identify with the philosophy that the mind should act without any attachments! So, maybe it was just meant to happen. Everything is the best arrangement of the God. As the saying goes, life is like ephemera in the world or a drop in the ocean. Looking back on the five-year journey, the help, support and encouragement from my teachers, friends and family have been my motivation. This thesis is dedicated to all of them!

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During the past few years of my DoM journey, I was barely engaged in the life and education of my children. My wife Ms. YAN Fei took good care of our children and family, which was another form of valuable support to me!

All the past is but a prologue. Now I am in my 40s. More efforts are yet to be made to achieve greater success! The following poem is dedicated to myself.

Jiang Cheng Zi

Now I've come to the age of no-doubt! Rising clouds pass by days and nights. Past dreams used to be so close. Yet they have now faded in distance. I've tasted the bitterness in Tang poems and lost a few pounds. Sitting down with a book in my hand. Memories of the past hit my mind. Who is being nostalgic?

Life is full of movements. We strive to ascend to new heights. Bear in mind why and where we started while laughing and talking about the dynamics. Do not be discouraged by the vicissitudes of life. Fight hard to achieve success.

致 谢

回想当初自己为什么要读博士？那是的我其实非常迷茫，为学位的虚荣心，为内心的安宁，好像是又好像都不是，应无所住而生其心吧！现在看来，是缘分使然，一切皆是上苍最好的安排。寄蜉蝣于天地，渺沧海之一粟。五年多的求学生涯一路走来，师长、朋友、家人的帮助、支持和鼓励是我一直前行的动力，谨以此文表达我最真挚的感谢！

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凡是过往，皆为序章，已到四十不惑之年，人生前行还需努力！

《江城子》

韶华已渡不惑期，云朝夕，梦依稀。苦了唐诗，渐宽汉家衣。小坐闲书思乍起，旧踪迹，谁又忆？

人生奔波几多计，望参旗，任高低。初心不改，笑谈握璇玑。休言情纵沧桑里，拼日月，策东西。

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List of Abbreviations

ACS: Affective Commitment Scale
CFA: Confirmatory factor analysis
CNKI: China National Knowledge Infrastructure
CPC: Communist Party of China
EFA: Exploratory factor analysis
HRM: Human resource management
MVA: Manufacturing value added
OCQ: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
OIQ: Organizational Identification Questionnaire
OIS: Organizational Identification Scale
PCA: Principal component analysis
SEM: structural equation modelling
SMEs: Small and medium-sized enterprises

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Research background

To further implement the strategy of developing China into a “manufacturing powerhouse”, on May 19, 2015, China’s State Council (2015) issued “Made in China 2025”, putting forward the goal of achieving manufacturing upgrading. On October 29, 2020, the Fifth Plenary Session of the 19th CPC Central Committee explicitly pointed out that in the implementation of the strategy of developing China into a “manufacturing powerhouse”, China should advance the iteration and upgrading of the industrial base in a safe, efficient, independent and controllable manner and raise the level of modernization of the industrial chain on the basis of maintaining the proportion of economic contribution by the manufacturing industry so as to enhance the international competitive advantage of “made in China” and promote the high-quality development of the manufacturing industry (Xinhua New Agency, 2021). The implementation of the strategy of developing China into a “manufacturing powerhouse” has provided policy support and relevant institutional guarantee for the high-quality development of China’s manufacturing industry.

Since 2015, China’s manufacturing industry has entered a period of rapid development and made important development progress. However, the basic capacity of China’s manufacturing industry is still weak; and China is still subject to the control of others in terms of core technologies that hinder the country’s development. In addition, China’s manufacturing industry is also facing many serious challenges, such as a rapid rise in cost, structural contradictions in supply and demand, as well as tightening resource and environmental constraints. As a result, it is developing with an obviously low speed; its quality and efficiency need to be improved. From the perspective of strategic human resources, talents are the core competitiveness of enterprises, and a stable workforce able to fight a hard battle is particularly important for the sustainable development of China’s manufacturing industry.

1.1.1 A stable workforce needed for the development of China's manufacturing industry

China's manufacturing industry calls for a stable workforce to achieve sustained development in the long run. There are three reasons for this.

First, the transformation and upgrading of China's manufacturing industry highlights the importance of a stable workforce in each manufacturing enterprise. The persisting COVID-19 pandemic worldwide has led to significant changes in the international landscape. China's economy has also been hit hard. Yet despite the challenges, China has achieved sound economic recovery due to its solid foundation built over long-term development. In 2020, with its GDP exceeding one trillion yuan, China became one of the major economies in the world to achieve positive economic growth, ranking steadily as the second largest economy in the world (People's Daily, 2021, January 19). The sound performance was inseparable from the contribution of the manufacturing industry. In 2021, China's manufacturing value added (MVA) accounted for 27.4% of its GDP, ranking first in the world for 12 consecutive years (ChinaNews, 2022). With the widespread application of "Internet+" in the manufacturing industry, the new industrial revolution has brought new challenges to the manufacturing industry, and manufacturing enterprises in the world are transforming towards a technology-driven, information-based and digitalized development model. The widespread application of such technologies as virtualization, 3D printing, 5G and big data will certainly lead to the innovation and upgrading of manufacturing enterprises in various aspects such as manufacturing concept, manufacturing thinking and manufacturing process, and changes in the manufacturing industry will certainly lead to the reconstruction of the manufacturing industry chain. Therefore, whoever seizes the opportunity of the new round of industrial revolution can benefit from first mover advantage and take the lead.

However, in the era of "new industrial revolution", the transformation of China's manufacturing industry still faces many problems. For a long time, China's manufacturing industry has taken the low-end route, adopting the low-cost, low-tech and labour-intensive development model to occupy the market with low price. The new industrial revolution has led to the combination of modern technology and industrial technology as well as the combination of the Internet and traditional industries, taking the path of technological innovation. China has long been known as the "factory of the world". Yet the new industrial revolution has led to the integration of modern technology and industrial technology as well as the integration of the Internet and traditional industries. In other words, China has taken the path of innovation-driven development

facilitated by technological progress. In addition, the global industrial division of labour has become more optimized, and the competition in the manufacturing industry has become more intense, resulting in the loss of the advantages of China's traditional manufacturing enterprises. Although China put forward the strategy of developing into a "manufacturing powerhouse" in 2015, and the innovation-driven development of the manufacturing industry is effective, China is still behind the western developed countries and still needs to accelerate scientific and technological innovation and pursue the path of high-quality development of the manufacturing industry to bridge the gap. As the current market environment becomes more and more open and competition becomes increasingly fierce, the problem of serious brain drain in traditional manufacturing industry will become a major constraint on the transformation and upgrading of the manufacturing industry to achieve high-quality development (Qi, 2020). Therefore, China's manufacturing industry urgently needs to accelerate the gathering of talents, especially millennial high-tech talents, and to continuously maintain the stability of enterprise human resources to quickly realize industrial upgrading, seize the initiative, and occupy the core position in the global competition of the manufacturing industry.

Second, China's manufacturing industry faces global competition, and talents are the core competitiveness. So, it is very important to reduce the turnover rate of talents in the manufacturing industry. To map out a development network and occupy the core position in global competition, countries around the world have successively taken relevant initiatives to promote the transformation and development of manufacturing. For example, the U.S. proposed the integration of the Internet and manufacturing industry to create the "Return of Manufacturing Industry Plan" of "Industrial Internet"; Germany vigorously implements the industrial "4.0" plan to accelerate the transformation and upgrading of traditional manufacturing industries and strengthen the division of labour and development strategy of advanced manufacturing industries in the value chain so as to seize the opportunity ahead of others; India vigorously promotes the "Made in India" strategy, trying to create another factory of the world, which seriously affects the status of Chinese manufacturing industries in the world. Population is the basis of all economic and social activities, and talents are the primary driver of the transformation, upgrading and high-quality development of the manufacturing industry. In view of this, countries have pushed forward the competition of talent resources. For example, the U.S. has been focusing on strengthening education and has introduced relevant incentives to encourage and guide the return of young talents; France has

included the Internet education into the talent training curriculum, and encourages training of talents in information technology; Japan has implemented the “Human Frontier Science Program” and “Borrowing Brains Program”, for which purposes it has been accepting international students and employing foreign talents with high salaries. In China, the post-80s and post-90s in China have gradually become the key players and driving force of the manufacturing industry. According to the research data of relevant scholars, the number of post-80s and post-90s new-generation employees accounted for 30% of the global workforce, and the percentage in the U.S. was as high as 33% (Fry, 2020, April 28); the percentages in Canada and Europe were slightly lower at 27% (Statistics Canada, 2011); the percentage in China was 31% (China’s National Bureau of Statistics, 2016); and that in India was 30% (Rani & Samuel, 2016). Human resources are the wealth of enterprises, the direct guarantee for enterprises to carry out production and operation activities, and the embodiment of the core competitiveness and strength of enterprises. H. L. Du (2021) studied the case of the equipment manufacturing industry in Dalian and concluded that the loss of talents and the lack of innovation ability are the important reasons causing Dalian’s equipment manufacturing industry to suffer a defeat in international competition. Therefore, ensuring sufficient human resource reserves for manufacturing enterprises, strengthening the cultivation of talents, and preventing the loss of talents are the basis and guarantee for China’s manufacturing industry to gain global competitive advantages.

Third, the steady development of the manufacturing industry is in dire need of the support from a stable workforce. According to the data of the “2021 Turnover and Salary Adjustment Research Report” released by the Human Resource Research Centre of 51job in December 2020, the overall employee turnover rate in 2020 was 14.8%, a significant decrease of 21.7% compared with 2019 (China News Service, 2020). The main reason for the significant decrease in the overall turnover rate in 2020 was the serious impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, which brought serious challenges to the production and operation of enterprises, causing many enterprises to adopt layoffs and reduce salaries to maintain their operation. Meanwhile, the production and operation strategies of enterprises became more conservative, and market opportunities were greatly reduced, leading to a significant decrease in the opportunities for employees’ voluntary resignation and job-hopping. As a result, the active turnover rate of employees in 2020 significantly decreased, and the passive turnover rate increased. Overall, turnover rate showed a trend of decrease. It can be easily seen from the “2021 Turnover and Salary Adjustment Research Report” that the manufacturing industry

topped the list of turnover rates in various industries, with a turnover rate of 17.8%. Due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the manufacturing industry was faced with significant operating pressure: on the one hand, there was a lack of work and a sharp drop in income, resulting in the active turnover of some employees; on the other hand, enterprises were forced to adjust and optimize their organizational structure and posts while reducing staff and increasing efficiency. The combination of the two factors pushed up the overall turnover rate. Notably, manufacturing enterprises suffered a particularly serious loss of millennial employees. Gu (2019) studied the employee turnover in the manufacturing industry in the Pearl River Delta region and concluded that the employee turnover rate in the manufacturing industry was increasing, which became a development bottleneck and a prominent problem for Chinese manufacturing enterprises, and that this outflow status was also a direct cause of the “shortage of migrant workers”; X. T. Wang et al. (2017) found the high turnover rate of employees to be a development bottleneck and a prominent problem faced by Chinese manufacturing enterprises. Millennials have sound knowledge, pioneering vision and innovative thinking, which can drive manufacturing enterprises to achieve innovative, coordinated, green and sustainable development. However, due to their strong self-awareness and internal inflexibility, millennials show obvious characteristics of turnover in enterprises. The frequent staff turnover not only causes a huge waste of human resources to enterprises, but also hinders enterprises' growth and operation, which seriously affects the normal production and operation of enterprises and lays out hidden dangers to the sound development of manufacturing enterprises.

1.1.2 The status quo of employees in China's manufacturing industry

China's manufacturing industry is a labour-intensive industry. Millennials, who are entering the manufacturing industry in large numbers, have become the main workforce of manufacturing enterprises. As manufacturing enterprises have obvious characteristics, employees in the manufacturing industry also show obvious differences from employees in other sectors, mainly reflected in the following aspects:

1. Huge pressure from work. Most of the manufacturing industries are labour-intensive industries. In the current context of the standardization and process orientation of manufacturing industries, there are clear regulations on the production and management processes, which require strict implementation and strict assembly line operation. As a result, workers in the manufacturing

industry enjoy little freedom at work and suffer high pressure from work. This is particularly true for some highly automated manufacturing enterprises, which have many kinds of machines and equipment with very clear and strict requirements on the operation process. Employees in these enterprises are required to perform in accordance with regulations, and even a slight mistake can lead to safety incidents and even endanger the lives of employees. To ensure safety, employees are required to arrive at the workplace on time, continue to focus on key aspects, and continue to work meticulously and patiently to ensure smooth operation. Failure to do so may lead to serious consequences. For example, there have been continued occurrences of suicides of employees in the manufacturing industry in recent years. Among them, the Foxconn suicides caused a significantly negative impact. The main reason lies in the huge pressure from work. Specifically, Foxconn went too far in pursuing profits by overexploiting the surplus value of employees. To complete the work tasks, employees of Foxconn often worked overtime, and the huge work intensity resulted in psychological problems, which ultimately led to the tragedy of eleven consecutive suicides.

2. Poor working environment. Large manufacturing enterprises generally have good working conditions. But the front-line working conditions in some small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are relatively poor. Although in recent years, the Chinese government has become increasingly strict in safety and environmental protection regulations, the actual implementation of the changes to the on-site environment for employees in the manufacturing industry often becomes a mere formality. Serious problems still exist in such aspects as noise, smell and safety risks in the operating environment. Changing the poor working environment requires the manufacturing industry to invest a large amount of capital and undergo an awareness change, which can hardly be achieved in the short term.

3. Low job salaries. As manufacturing enterprises are labour-intensive enterprises, many employees are migrant workers with generally low salaries. Particularly, some traditional manufacturing industries calculate wages based on the number of pieces or workload. Although such ways of wage calculation reflect the fair principle of “payment based on the actual amount of work”, they cannot mobilize employees’ initiative and creativity. Cao (2009) argues that the performance appraisal in China’s manufacturing industry focuses too much on short-term interests at the expense of long-term interests, and the performance-based salary system will greatly undermine employees’ initiative. Besides, there are also problems such as unfair and non-objective appraisal mechanism and lack of attention to the interaction between employees and managers,

which not only reduce employees' initiative but also backfire on enterprises, hindering their healthy development.

4. Limited career development channels. At present, many domestic manufacturing enterprises do not have clear provisions for the promotion of employees. Even large manufacturing enterprises with provisions do not have different promotion channels in accordance with the characteristics of different technical posts. Instead, promotions are often based on seniority, lacking fairness. As for some SMEs in the manufacturing industry, the promotion regulations for employees are particularly vague. Some small enterprises even have no such regulations for employee promotion, and employees are always engaged in a single job in the manufacturing industry. What is worse, there is no mechanism to improve the quality of employees, such as career planning, career development path building and training. Many employees are bored with the work they see no prospects and lack passion for.

Millennial employees are becoming the main players of the manufacturing industry. Most of them have certain knowledge and skills, a broad vision and innovation capability. However, they pursue realization of self-worth, a relaxed and comfortable working environment, work-life balance and the pleasure of enjoying life. Undoubtedly, there are certain contradictions and conflicts between the values pursued by millennials and the manufacturing industry. Nevertheless, many millennials choose to work in the manufacturing sector due to the lack of clear career planning or are forced to choose the manufacturing industry due to the pressure to make a living. The inconsistency between employees' work values and corporate values causes manufacturing enterprises to fail to retain employees, leading to the high turnover rate of millennials. To meet the needs of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, manufacturing enterprises must change their own production and management philosophy, proactively adjust their human resource management strategies, pay more attention to the value pursuits of the millennials, give full play to their strengths, and effectively reduce their turnover rate. Only by doing so can manufacturing enterprises achieve maximum efficiency and high-quality development.

1.2 Research purpose

Currently, a large number of the post-80s and post-90s millennials have entered the labour market and have become the key players. Their values and group characteristics have attracted widespread

attention from the society. Although there are still different views on the differences between the millennials and the non-millennials in the academia, there is a consensus on the objective fact that differences exist. These differences between different generations are reflected in not only age but also deeper-level values. Fields (2005) argues that most millennials, who are only children of their families, were born in the era after China's reform and opening-up, have received influences from both Eastern and Western cultures and ideas as well as a lot of new things, especially the Internet, are exposed to a lot of information, and thus bear distinctive characteristics of the times. Yeaton (2008) holds that millennials pursue a sense of accomplishment at work, want to be recognized and valued, and like to pursue career success. However, they do not want to be limited by work, like to work with a lot of autonomy, and hate to keep to the beaten track. According to Wilson et al. (2008) as well as Twenge et al. (2010), millennials value a sense of fairness between pain and gain, pursue balance between work and life, and hate to put in extra work. Duxbury and Higgins (2005) believe that millennials pursue harmonious relationships with peers as well as a comfortable and cosy working environment. Besides, they feel uncomfortable getting along with leaders and are not willing to get too close or interact too much with leaders.

Millennial employees are also becoming the mainstay of the manufacturing industry, and their high turnover rate is likely to trigger enterprises to fall into production and operation difficulties and affect the healthy development of China's manufacturing industry. Only by stabilizing the millennial employees can manufacturing enterprises gather abundant human resources to build a stable team of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, focus on production, R&D and innovation-driven development, and finally provide a solid human resource guarantee for the implementation of China's strategy to develop into a "manufacturing powerhouse".

To this end, this study focuses on millennial employees in manufacturing enterprises and draws on previous research results to construct a model on the relationship between work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry with a view to understanding how the work values of millennial employees affect their turnover intention. The research results can help better predict the turnover intention and reduce the turnover rate of millennial employees in manufacturing enterprises, put forward relevant suggestions and recommendations at the organizational, individual employee and societal levels, further enrich the research on relevant theories related to millennial employees and turnover intention, and also

provide manufacturing enterprises with targeted management measures to reduce the turnover rate of millennial employees.

1.3 Research questions

Organizational identification reflects the degree to which individuals identify with the organization. Many scholars have explored the relationship between organizational identification and individual work attitudes, and most studies have concluded that organizational identification has a significantly negative influence on turnover intention. For example, M. L. Xiong et al. (2008) found through a survey of 383 construction workers that organizational identification negatively influences employees' turnover intention and concluded that employees' organizational identification also increases their work initiative and willingness to contribute to the organization. L. Zhang et al. (2014) found that employees with higher levels of organizational identification are more motivated to innovate and recognize the organization's relevant policies and systems more. It can thus be seen that organizational identification can effectively enhance employees' work initiative, increase their satisfaction with their jobs, strengthen their sense of well-being, honour and belonging at work, and is a key factor reducing employees' turnover intention. However, most scholars do not study organizational identification in specific industries and fields, but only explore it in general and on the macro level, resulting in research results that are neither industry-specific nor operable.

Therefore, this thesis takes needs-based theories of motivation and intergenerational theory as the theoretical basis and studies the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry in the context of its transformation and upgrading. It also explores whether occupational well-being and organizational identification mediate the relationship between work values and turnover intention of millennial employees. The purpose is to put forward effective strategies to reduce the turnover rate in a targeted manner, provide solutions to the healthy development of the manufacturing industry, and gather human capital for the thorough implementation of China's strategy to develop into a manufacturing powerhouse. To achieve this purpose, the present thesis puts forward the following questions:

(1) How are the basic working conditions (such as working hours and turnover intention) of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry?

(2) How do the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry affect their turnover intention?

(3) Do the occupational well-being and organizational identification of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry mediate the relationship between work values and turnover intention?

1.4 Research methods

The present study is an empirical study which mainly adopted questionnaire survey method to collect the feedback of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry on items related to organizational identification, occupational well-being, work values and turnover intention to provide data support for the model evaluation. SPSS 23.0 software was used to conduct reliability, validity and consistency tests as well as structural equation modelling (SEM) of the questionnaire data, analyse the socio-demographical variables of the sample, and empirically test the hypotheses of this thesis. Finally, explanations of the statistical analyses results were provided.

1.5 Thesis structure

A large amount of literature on the theories related to millennials, work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention was reviewed. On this basis, the research significance of this study was justified. Based on the needs-based theories of motivation, intergenerational theory and organizational identification theory and taking into consideration the development status of China's manufacturing industry and the characteristics of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, this thesis constructed a model on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry with work values as the independent variable, turnover intention as the dependent variable, and occupational well-being and organizational identification as mediators. A questionnaire was designed based on the mature scales of occupational well-being, work values and turnover intention that are highly recognized in the academia, with items designed based on the Likert scale. Through the questionnaire survey, the views of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry were collected. The collected data were analysed using SPSS 22.0 software, and the model was tested using SEM to arrive at corresponding conclusions. The present thesis is structured as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction. It mainly introduces the research background, research significance, research purpose, research questions, research methods and thesis structure. It is the general outline of the whole thesis and underpins the structure of the whole thesis, providing a framework for the development of the subsequent chapters.

Chapter 2: Literature Review. Existing literature on the key concepts of this thesis such as millennials, work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention as well as the relationships between these concepts is reviewed in a comprehensive manner to learn about the research results related to the work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Besides, a comprehensive review of the progress and limitations of related research results in existing fields is made to justify the significance of this study. On this basis, the author put forwards the research hypotheses and a model on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry.

Chapter 3: Research Methods. The whole process of questionnaire design is elaborated on; the survey process is described; and the reliability and validity analyses of the Work Values Scale, Occupational Well-being Scale, Organizational Identification Scale and Turnover Intention Scale are conducted.

Chapter 4: Empirical Study 1 and Hypotheses Testing. Descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, variance analysis, SEM and analyses of the hypotheses testing results are made.

Chapter 5: Empirical Study 2. The background of Sample 2 is introduced, reliability and validity analyses of the scales made, and structural model tested.

Chapter 6: Discussions, Conclusions and Prospects. The current conditions of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry are discussed from the perspectives of demographic statistics and variance analysis results; the research hypotheses are tested; main contributions of this study are summarised to provide managerial implications for managers, millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and the society at large; limitations of this study are pointed out; and suggestions for further research are given.

1.6 Chapter summary

This chapter introduces the research background, research purpose, research questions, research

design, research significance and chapter arrangement of this thesis. It reflects the structure and maps out the general framework of this thesis, laying a foundation for subsequent chapters.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter defines the concept of millennials and reviews the literature on the four main variables of this study, namely work values, organizational identification, occupational well-being and turnover intention, and puts forward the research hypotheses and research model.

2.1 Generation theories and millennials

2.1.1 Generation cohort

The concept of “generation cohort” was first put forward by the sociologist Mannheim (1952) who defined “generation cohort” as the group of individuals born in the same period and influenced by the same social environment, which includes political, economic, cultural and other aspects. A generation cohort shares some similar characteristics. For example, they were born in the same period, were exposed to similar things and social factors, have similar “social positions” in the society, and live in similar social environments. Because of this, they have similar values and are more convergent in their thoughts and behaviours. Strauss and Howe (1991) as well as Eyerman and Turner (1998) regard a generational cohort as a group of individuals who share a common collective memory and are in the same “social location”. Because different generation cohorts grow up in different environments, they significantly differ from each other in terms of perceptions, behaviours and psychological characteristics.

2.1.2 Classification of generation cohorts

Scholars in the U.S. and Europe classify generation cohorts into four generations according to the periods of historical events (Wey Smola & Sutton, 2002). The first generation, which refers to the Traditional Generation born before World War II, is also known as the Silent Generation; the second generation refers to the Baby Boomers born between 1946 and 1964; the third generation, referring to Generation X born between 1965 and 1980, is also known as the Lost Generation; and the fourth generation, referring to Generation Y born after 1981, is also known as the Millennials. Generation Y were born in a period of peace free from wars, during which the rapid rise of the Internet drastically changed people’s life and affected people’s way of thinking and behaviours.

Generation Y is the most dynamic and innovative generation and is also synonymous with millennials in the West.

In the early days, the classification of generation cohorts in China also drew on the experience of Western studies using major historical events as thresholds. For example, Ralston et al. (1999) classify the generation cohorts in China into three generations. Specifically, the first generation refers to those born after the founding of New China and during the Cultural Revolution (1949-1965). They name it the Development Generation; the second generation consists of those born during the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), referred to as the Cultural Revolution Generation; and the third generation refers to those born after 1977 and is addressed as the millennials. Egri and Ralston (2004) also classify China's generation cohorts by major historical thresholds. Based on their classification, the first generation refers to the Socialist Development Generation born between 1949 and 1966; the second generation is the Cultural Revolution Generation born between 1967 and 1978; and the third generation is the Reform and Opening Up Generation born between 1979 and 1989. In recent years, scholars in China have begun to explore the differences among different generation cohorts, which are mainly measured in terms of time periods (J. Chen, 2012; W. X. Li et al., 2008; F. X. Liu, 2010). German scholars use ten years as a period and classify the generation cohorts in China into the post-50s (those born between 1950 and 1959), the post-60s (those born between 1960 and 1969), the post-70s (those born between 1970 and 1979), the post-80s (those born between 1980 and 1989) and the post-90s (those born between 1990 and 1999). Currently, this way of classification is widely accepted in China due to its simplicity and operability, but it does not reflect major historical events. H. Chen and Yan (2014) as well as H. L. Guo and Zhang (2017) use a certain point in time as the basis for classification and classify China's generation cohorts into two generations. The first generation refers to the group born before 1980, referred to as the non-millennials; and the second generation is the group born after 1980, referred to as the millennials. X. Y. Su et al. (2021) classify the generation cohorts in China into three generations by factoring in the major economic events in China. Specifically, the first generation is the generation born before the implementation of the reform and opening-up (before 1978), hence referred to as the Pre-Reform and Opening Up Generation; the second generation, born between 1978 and 1991, is known as the Reform and Opening Up Generation; and the third generation is the generation born after 1992, referred to as the Market Economy Generation.

2.1.3 The “millennials”

Chinese scholar Cai (2008) classifies millennials into four stages. The first stage spans from the late 1970s to the early 1980s, and millennials born in this stage are referred to as millennials in a broad sense. Due to the implementation of the reform and opening-up in 1978, China's economy and society were fully open to the outside world, and the spring breeze of reform blew all over the country. Although those born in the late 1970s were influenced by the planned economy, they also jumped on the bandwagon of the reform and opening -up. As a result, they have more complex characteristics. On the one hand, they are resilient, dedicated to their work and hard-working like their predecessors born in the 1960s and the 1970s. On the other hand, they are also characterized by strong self-confidence, pursuit of independence, individuality and a strong sense of self-esteem like the post-80s. The second stage spans from 1980 to 1989. People born in this stage are the post-80s in the true sense and are known as “millennials” in a narrow sense. Due to the influence of the family planning policy, most members of this group are the only children of their families, who have been regarded as the pearl of their parents since childhood and are thus known as the spoiled generation. As a result, their values differ significantly from the values of other age groups. The third stage spans from 1990 to 1999, and people born in this stage are the post-90s in the true sense. They live in a more open and tolerant era, with more abundant material life and further liberated ideas. Thus, they belong to the generation who grew up with all needs met. The fourth stage refers to the period from 2000 to the present, who are known as the post-00s. After China's accession to the World Trade Organization in 2000, China put forward the goal of establishing a moderately prosperous society in all respects, and the international landscape became more open. Compared to their counterparts in other stages, the post-00s are physically and mentally mature at a younger age and receive more extensive and comprehensive information.

Hansford et al. (2002) refer to the social group born after 1980 as millennials. Bassett (2008) further narrows the scope of millennials by referring to those born between 1980 and 1985 who are accustomed to using the Internet to communicate as millennials. Most Chinese scholars also define millennials as the group born after 1980, but the focus of their understanding of millennials also differs significantly. According to Z. G. He (2006), due to the influence of the family planning policy, most millennials are only children whose family conditions are more affluent, and they have better access to education. According to Xie (2007), millennials refer to those who were born after 1980 and have just joined the workforce.

2.1.4 The “millennial” employees

Existing studies show that many scholars classify millennials and non-millennials based on the periods in which they were born. Besides, most scholars regard the year 1980 as a dividing line. In other words, employees born before 1980 are older generation employees, whereas those born after 1980 are millennials (Beard et al., 2008; Zemke et al., 1999). S. Zhou (2009) found in the data from *China Statistical Yearbook* that there were 204 million people born in the period between 1980 and 1989 and that currently most of the people in this group have joined the workforce and have become the majority of employees in enterprises. It can thus be seen that the academia generally agrees that millennial employees refer to the group of people who were born after 1980 and have joined the workforce.

2.1.5 The “millennial” employees in this thesis

In 1978, China implemented the reform and opening-up policy, which enabled the integration of advanced western ideas and concepts in China. The wave of opening facilitated the continued and rapid development of China's economy and society. The spring breeze of reform created the miracle of China's development. Currently, China has been steadily occupying the position as the world's second largest economy. The reform and opening-up changed the social environment understood and perceived by the people born in this period, causing them to be exposed to things that are significantly different from other generation cohorts. Because of this, the people born after 1980 are significantly different from other generation cohorts.

In the 1980s, the Internet appeared and gradually gained popularity across the globe. The rapid development of the Internet influenced and changed the way people think, behave and perceive the world. The group born in the age of the Internet received Internet education since childhood and are deeply influenced by the Internet. Because of this, most of them are open-minded and more innovative. They are good at using the Internet to communicate with others and deal with all kinds of work.

In 1980, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China (CPC) advocated that a couple should have only one child; in 1982, CPC established family planning as a basic national policy and included it into China's Constitution. Since the implementation of the family planning policy broke the tradition of a family with many children, most people born after 1980 are the only children of their families, who were pampered by their parents and did not have to worry about

their means of living thanks to the reform and opening-up. Therefore, they are more affluent and emotionally cared for compared to the previous generations.

At present, the Chinese society generally accepts the classification of generations by time nodes, and the ways of classifying the post-80s and the post-90s have become the mainstream perception of the Chinese society. With reference to the mainstream classification of generation cohorts in China, millennials in this thesis refers to the group of people born after 1980.

Since this study explores the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, the population researched must meet three characteristics: First, they belong to the category of millennials; second, they have joined the workforce; and third, they are employees in the manufacturing industry. The previous paragraph has clearly defined millennials studied in this thesis as the group of people born after 1980, which includes not only the post-80s and post-90s but also the post-00s, post-10s and post-20s. This study defines millennial employees as those who were born after 1980 and have joined the workforce. This group grew up after the implementation of China's reform and opening-up and have been exposed to new things since childhood. As a result, their values, world outlook and outlook on life are also different from those of the previous groups. Specifically, they are more forward-thinking, more diversified in their values, more purposeful at work and more realistic in their pursuit of life.

2.1.6 Existing studies on millennial employees

As millennial employees differ significantly from the post-60s and the post-70s in values, attitudes toward work, sense of responsibility at work and career pursuits, and their turnover rate is high, they have brought significant instability and uncertainty to the production, operation and development of enterprises. To solve this problem, more and more scholars are shifting their attention to the studies on millennial employees.

1. Studies related to the behaviour of millennial employees

W. H. Zhang (2021) studied the influence of work pressure on the innovative behaviour of millennial employees and concluded that challenging pressure would stimulate positive emotions of millennials, while hindering pressure would reduce the enthusiasm of millennials. T. Z. Chen (2021) studied the followership behaviour of post-90s employees and concluded that the millennial employees born after 1990 and their leaders have formed eight common characteristics of followership. Specifically, both sides have reached a consensus on positive characteristics reflected

in four aspects, namely innovative thinking, learning behaviour, courage and passion as well as voice behaviour; they have also reached a consensus on negative characteristics in four aspects, namely impulsion and capriciousness, lack of patience, lack of responsibility and low resistance to pressure. H. Lu et al. (2021) concluded from their study that benevolent leadership facilitates the innovative behaviour of millennials. M. Su (2021) integrated the behavioural characteristics, influencing factors and decision models of impulsive turnover of millennial employees and concluded that impulsive turnover is a behaviour of bounded rationality with significantly negative effects, and therefore needs to be actively managed by leaders.

2. Existing studies on incentivizing and motivating millennial employees

By analysing the incentive and motivation factors of millennial employees born after 1980, J. Yang (2008) concluded that there are significant differences between post-80s employees and non-post-80s employees in terms of openness to experience, sense of responsibility and neuroticism. Besides, the post-80s employees attach more importance to motivation and incentive factors for personal growth as well as such factors related to work atmosphere. J. B. Li (2021) classifies millennial employees into two types: the “strong” type and the “sticky” type, and argues that the “strong” type of millennial employees should be motivated and incentivized by establishing reasonable salary mechanism, increasing employee engagement, and effectively adopting promotion policy, whereas the “sticky” type of millennial employees should be motivated and incentivized by enriching employee training methods, establishing a corporate culture recognized by employees, and assisting employees to form a career planning system. According to W. Yan (2020), millennial employees born after 1995 should be motivated and incentivized by meeting their psychological needs, establishing a reasonable salary system, building a management style and management system in line with the post-95 generation, developing an excellent organizational culture, and providing continuous training opportunities. M. T. Chen and Ding (2020) studied the measures to motivate and incentivise knowledge-based millennials. They hold that enterprises should establish learning organizations, pay attention to personalized motivation, improve performance appraisal, and innovate the art of leadership to form positive motivation for the knowledge-based millennial employees and stimulate their work potential and enthusiasm.

3. Existing studies on the management of millennial employees

Yao (2021) introduced the Taoist idea of flexible management into the human resource management of millennial employees and concluded that the Taoist idea of flexible management

helps to improve the effectiveness of human resource management. Jian et al. (2021) studied the management of millennial employees' innovative talents and concluded that enterprises should focus on six aspects to strengthen management of innovative millennial employees. Specifically, enterprises should clarify their own development route and reasonably plan the career for innovative talents; establish a sound training system to strengthen the training of innovative millennial talents; optimize the people-oriented management system; set up an incentive mechanism for employees; shape the corporate culture; and set up an efficient talent team.

4. Existing studies on the characteristics of millennial employees

In addition to the above studies, some scholars have also conducted fruitful studies on the psychology of millennial employees (Lv et al., 2010; Shi, 2019; L. W. Yang, 2021), the cultivation of millennial employees (Fu, 2020), and the selection of growth paths for millennial employees (W. L. Dai & Lu, 2021; X. L. Sun et al., 2021).

2.1.7 Characteristics of millennial employees

Existing literature on millennial employees mainly covers the following aspects. Bassett (2008) believes that millennial employees have a liberal personality, are eager to be respected by their co-workers and leaders, pursue a free and comfortable working environment, have their own views and ways of working, do not like to be constrained and limited, and pursue a sense of fulfilment and self-worth within the organization. Eisner (2005) argues that Generation Y pursues a sense of fairness within the organization, a balance of pay and reward, as well as work-life balance. According to T. Z. Chen (2021), millennial employees born after 1990 have innovative thinking, learning behaviour and courageous passion, but are impulsive and capricious, lack patience, have a weak sense of responsibility, and are less resistant to stress. Y. R. Zhao (2021) contends that millennial employees have a strong desire to learn, a fast pace of work, a strong sense of innovation, a keen consciousness of challenge and a high need for self-fulfilment. However, at the same time, they have insufficient resistance to stress, a poor sense of teamwork due to their strong sense of self, a low level of loyalty to the organization and a low level of obedience to their superiors. L. W. Yang (2021) holds that millennial employees are generally highly educated, pursue freedom, love and are good at learning, and have diversified values. However, they also have strong self-awareness, insufficient sense of cooperation and insufficient stress resistance. According to Yuan (2021), millennial employees cherish ideals and ambitions, want to be recognized by the

organization and leaders, have distinctive personalities and obvious differences among individuals, possess less ability to focus on things, lack persistent patience for work, and value fairness and transparency in the organization. To summarize the existing studies, the analysis of the characteristics of millennial employees mainly focuses on two aspects: personality characteristics and work characteristics.

1. Personality characteristics of millennial employees

Millennial employees are the main players of the current labour market. In the manufacturing industry, millennials have an absolute advantage in terms of number. Martin (2005) found that “Generation Y” employees love freedom and challenges, are adventurous, pay more attention to work-life balance, and pursue the unrestrained state of work and life. Twenge et al. (2010) believe that “Generation Y” employees have a strong sense of individuality, like to be self-centred, like to follow their own behaviours and styles of work to complete relevant work tasks, and pursue autonomy at work. They are more willing to engage in more mobile jobs rather than fixed ones and are less loyal to the organization. Burkus (2010) also argues that Generation Y employees are more likely to seek variable and challenging jobs, exhibit some mobility, and have less loyalty to the organization. Rottink (2017) found in his study that Generation Y employees have three distinctive characteristics compared to their predecessors. Specifically, they like freedom; they tend to be self-centred; and they have a natural hedonistic spirit. Millennial employees have very different outlooks on life and career than employees of the previous generations, and their attitudes and behaviours toward work are not consistent. These are reflected in various aspects, such as abilities, demand characteristics and personality traits (Williams et al., 2017).

Chinese scholars have also conducted a lot of studies on the characteristics of millennial employees. According to Z. S. Li (2007), most millennial employees have received higher education, are influenced by Chinese and foreign cultures and trends, and have diversified values and distinctive personality characteristics; most of them pursue freedom, advocate freedom, and have an active mind. But their sense of responsibility and self-restraint are weak, and their loyalty to the organization is not high. Hou et al. (2014) found that millennials value the material rewards brought by their work as well as the satisfaction of their inner needs in the work process and have individualized self-awareness and unique ways of thinking. Meanwhile, as most millennial employees have received higher education, they have an active mind and strong innovation ability, dare to question authority, and dare to express their own views and ideas. Y. P. Li and Xu (2013)

found that millennial employees pursue equality, want to get along peacefully with their co-workers and leaders, wish to receive corresponding respect, and value the spiritual care from their leaders and co-workers. L. Zhang and Lian (2017) pointed out that millennial employees are generally self-centred and choose their jobs more based on their own interests and whether their jobs can bring them a sense of accomplishment. Besides, they are more confident, pursue a good working environment and a pleasant working atmosphere at work, and pay attention to both career development and material rewards.

Overall, millennial employees were born after the reform and opening-up. The great abundance of material life enabled them to grow up in the context of economic services and diversified value pursuits. Their personal characteristics, behaviours and attitudes towards work exhibit different characteristics from the previous generations. The present study has summarized the following aspects of such characteristics based on a synthesis of relevant literature.

(1) Diverse values. Millennial employees were born after the reform and opening-up when the domestic social environment changed drastically, and various foreign trends and cultures accompanied their growth. Due to their different living environments and different growth experiences, they have developed diverse values. This value diversity is significantly reflected in their pursuit of work-life balance. Millennial employees regard work as not only a means to earn a living but also a way to realize self-worth. They care about income, but value more the quality of life, the balance between payment and income, as well as a sense of fairness in the organization and society.

(2) Better educated. Millennial employees were born after China's reform and opening-up, when quality education was widely implemented. Therefore, most of them have received higher education, have certain skills and knowledge reserve, can master computer skilfully, are familiar with the application of the Internet, and have good comprehensive quality and ability. It is exactly because they have access to new things from all aspects of society that they have broadened horizons, a keen consciousness of innovation and strong pioneering spirit.

(3) Fond of enjoying life. Due to the significant improvement in material conditions, millennial employees do not carry the same heavy burden as their predecessors did. Thus, they do not consider work a means to earn a living entirely. Instead, they pursue work-life balance. Many of them belong to the moon clan; the income from their work is almost used for their daily expenses; and many of them do not have the habit of saving. They seek to enjoy life and wish to live a healthy,

optimistic and positive way of life. Besides, the economic situation of their families is not something they have to worry too much about. As a result, they are more willing to enjoy life and pursue the wonderful experience brought by life after work.

(4) Low resistance to pressure. Millennial employees were born in the era with abundant materials, and most of them have not experienced hardships. Thus, they tend to lack the experience and courage to deal with setbacks. Besides, they are often half-hearted due to the lack of patience and persistence. If they can survive the blows of setbacks, they will learn from the experience and constantly correct their behaviour, exhibiting a strong learning ability.

(5) Harmonious interpersonal relationships. Most millennial employees are only children. Although they are self-centred, they are willing to communicate with the group through such means as the Internet, WeChat and Weibo, are willing to participate in various activities and gatherings, and are good at building harmonious interpersonal relationships. This independent ability also allows them to adapt quickly to the environment and have strong flexibility. In addition, since most millennial employees are the only children of their families, they tend to enjoy close and harmonious relationships with the family.

2. Characteristics of millennial employees at work

Millennial employees have the following four main characteristics:

(1) Pursuit of self-worth realization. Most millennial employees have a strong consciousness of innovation, a pioneering spirit and positive work attitudes. However, they are often self-centred and hope to get the recognition of the organization or the leadership through their own efforts to complete a major work project independently. Thus, they lack the sense of teamwork and cooperation. This is also a manifestation of their high demands and standards for self-worth realization. If they think that their current job cannot realize their ideal and ambition, they will have turnover intention and choose a new job. This also shows that millennial employees do not have a high degree of organizational loyalty.

(2) Clear work attitudes. As most millennial employees have received good education and have their own unique ways of thinking about work and mode of work, they prefer a flexible work schedule, and have the characteristics of pursuing freedom, not being constrained and a weak sense of hierarchy. They dare to express their own ideas about the problems in the organization and do not believe in the authority of the leaders. They are willing to participate in the management of the organization but keep a certain distance from the leaders.

(3) Persistence to their own career philosophy. Most millennial employees have received higher education and have formed their own values, world outlook and outlook on life. The work they choose to engage in is mostly based on their interests and preferences. They also pay close attention to their own gains and losses at work, and do not pay attention to communication and cooperation. They think that they just need to do their own things well and do not care so much about the development of the organization. However, if millennial employees have a daring attitude towards their career, they will put great efforts into the relevant work and expect to achieve the desired results.

(4) A pioneering spirit and a strong awareness of innovation. Millennial employees have their own work philosophy and are good at integrating some innovative ways of work and work methods into the work. Their broad vision can provide innovative opinions and suggestions for the development of the organization. In addition, just like “new-born calves are not afraid of tigers”, millennials have a pioneering spirit and dare to face difficulties at work, confront hardships, and take things seriously. But this is also a double-edged sword. Excessive pioneering spirit also causes millennials to lack a sense of cooperation and become hard to manage.

2.1.8 Summary of existing theories and literature on millennials

By reviewing the definition of generation cohort, this section first defines millennials, millennial employees and millennial employees in the scope of this thesis. Then the characteristics of millennial employees are analysed in combination with the behavioural characteristics shown by millennials in China. As millennial employees are key players of the current workforce, the research on the concept of millennials also took an early start. Although different scholars have different perceptions of the concept of millennials, the generally accepted standard for the categorization of millennials in China is still based on the period of birth. And through an analysis of their characteristics, it is found that millennial employees significantly differ from employees of older generations. Therefore, it is of great value and significance to study millennial employees, especially millennial employees in manufacturing enterprises.

2.2 Work values

2.2.1 Work values

A large body of research has been conducted by scholars on the definition of work values, and different scholars have different definitions of work values because of the different perspectives and focuses of their studies. From the studies done by Chinese and foreign scholars, work values are mainly defined from four perspectives, namely meaning of work, need satisfaction, psychological characteristics and intrinsic motivation.

1. Definition from the perspective of the meaning of work

Robbins (1998) holds that work values are individuals' perceptions of their own work or the value and meaning of a particular occupation. Lou (1990) considers work values to be an individual's comprehensive evaluation of the purpose, meaning and value of work. Qin and Tan (2006) believe that work values reflect individuals' value judgments about their own survival and development through work and whether work itself has development potential. Elizur and Sagie (1998) as well as Dose (1997) argue that work values map the values of individuals, are an extended expression of individual values in the workplace, and are the value judgments that individuals make about the work itself and the results of the work.

2. Definition from the perspective of need satisfaction

Super (1970) regards work values as the intrinsic needs of individuals to work and to satisfy their needs by pursuing work-related goals. Kalleberg (1977) argues that work values are the degree to which individuals are recognized and respected through their work and want to obtain a better work environment and management qualifications through their work. Schwartz (1999) regards work values to be the expression of individual values at work, and the goal is to realize self-worth by being paid for work.

3. Definition from the perspective of psychological characteristics

Pryor (1979) argues that individuals' preferences for work form work values, which originate from individuals themselves and are not forced or influenced by the outside world. Ning (1996) holds that work values show the social nature of individual behaviour and are individuals' internal evaluation of the value of work. J. Hu and Mo (2004) consider work values an important part of individual values, which are expressed as the attitudes held by individuals toward work.

4. Definition from the perspective of intrinsic motivation

Feather (1980) argues that work values are the driving force of people's thoughts and behaviour standards. Elizur (1984) believes that work values can influence individuals' ways of thinking and motivate them to engage in relevant work activities. J. H. Ma and Ni (1998) hold that work values act on individuals' ways of thinking and are the value judgments of individuals' work behaviours and the relationships between individuals and organizations. They can influence individuals' styles of work and attitudes toward work.

In summary, the above definitions show that work values are a reflection of individuals' values at work. They reflect the relationship between needs and satisfaction of individuals, the preference selection of individuals based on psychological characteristics and the internal motivation of individuals to strive for a certain goal. Although the focuses of the four dimensions differ, in practice, people work to obtain material rewards to support their families and spiritual rewards to realize their self-worth. People choose work to find a suitable job for themselves so that they can perceive the joy and happiness of work. An individual's work attitude and work behaviour reflect his/her own personality characteristics and values. Considering the topic of this thesis and with reference to existing studies, the author defines work values as individuals' perceived preference for a specific job based on their needs and values.

2.2.2 Dimensions of work values

At present, there are different ways of classifying the dimensions of work values in existing studies, including two dimensions, three dimensions, four dimensions, five dimensions and multiple dimensions.

Studies on the two dimensions of work values are represented by M. F. Miller (1974) and Herzberg et al. (1959), who focused on intrinsic value and extrinsic value dimensions; Jin and Li (2005); Rokeach (1973), and T. X. Wu et al. (1995) proceeded from the dimensions of purpose-oriented values and work-oriented values.

In terms of the three-dimensional approach to work values, H. Yu and Huang (2000) focused on the dimensions of extrinsic work values, intrinsic values and intrinsic rewards; J. H. Ma and Ni (1998) studied the dimensions of organizational environment, job evaluation and personal requirements; W. Q. Ling et al. (1999) conducted research on the dimensions of development, reputation and healthcare; Elizur (1984) analysed the instrumental, cognitive and affective

dimensions; and Super (1970) explored the dimensions of intrinsic value extrinsic value and accompanying value.

The four dimensions of work values include intrinsic value, extrinsic value, social value and reputation (Ros et al., 1999; Schwartz, 1999); social position and enterprise development, organizational culture and way of management, work pay and environment, and personal growth (L. Wang et al., 2003); and physical environment, self-expression of social relations, self-development and consciousness of innovation (Y. M. Lu et al., 2020).

The five dimensions include intrinsic motivation, convenience, relationship with co-workers, career and resource adequacy, and financial (Kalleberg, 1977); enterprising spirit, economic value, way of life, reputation and job stability (Ning, 1996).

The multiple dimensions could be recreation, health and transportation, organizational economy and safety, dignity, stability and freedom from anxiety, social interaction, self-growth, and personal fulfilment (T. X. Wu et al., 1995); and respect for reputation, self-expression development, material rewards, work-life balance, work behaviour, as well as harmony and pleasure (H. Zhao, 2005).

The above studies show that although scholars differ in their understanding of the constitutive dimensions of work values, they have one thing in common: Most of them agree that work values consist of at least three dimensions, namely intrinsic values, extrinsic values as well as social and related values.

2.2.3 Results of existing studies on work values from different perspectives

1. Existing studies with work values as the dependent variable

Existing studies with work values as the dependent variable are mainly concentrated in the studies on the factors influencing work values, and scholars have mainly analysed in terms of demographic variables to explore the effects of gender, age, education level and marital status on work values. Jurgensen (1978) argues that there is a significant difference between women's work values and men's work values, with women valuing intrinsic rewards more while men are more focused on extrinsic rewards. K. H. Xu and Ding (2020) studied the values of skilled workers in the new era and found the work values of skilled workers aged 21-30 years to be different from those of other groups of skilled workers, and the difference mainly lies in that skilled workers are more concerned with development and the pursuit of the sense of achievement. Meanwhile, male

skilled workers have higher salary and career expectations than their female counterparts, and the higher the education level of skilled workers, the stronger the preference for work values, and the stronger their spiritual orientation (K. H. Xu & Ding, 2020). D. W. Xu (2019) analysed the impact of individual differences on employees' values using employees in the construction industry as sample and found that employees of different ages and education levels have significant differences in their work values. Specifically, older employees attach more importance to intrinsic-factors preference while younger employees pursue more extrinsic preferences; highly educated employees pursue job fulfilment more whereas less educated employees value pay and rewards more. W. X. Li and Li (2008) conducted an empirical study with 316 employees in the securities industry as sample. Their study showed that the work values of employees in the securities industry are significantly related to gender, age, position and education level, and that the work values of employees are positively related to age, position and education level. Jurgensen (1978) studied the effect of marital status on work values and found that men's work values change significantly before and after marriage, while women's work values are less affected by change in the marital status. Kohn and Schooler (1983) identified position to be a factor influencing employees' values. Specifically, the lower the job position, the more employees pursue extrinsic values and are more easily stimulated by external temptations; in contrast, employees with higher job positions pay more attention to intrinsic values and pursue a sense of achievement and satisfaction at work.

2. Existing studies with work values as an independent variable

Kang et al. (2020) studied the influence of work values on job performance with 409 clinical nurses as sample and work values as the independent variable. The results of their study show that work values positively affect job performance. X. Liu et al. (2016) conducted an empirical study on the relationship between work values and job satisfaction of civil servants through a questionnaire survey of 684 civil servants working for the central and local government authorities. The results of their study showed a significantly positive relationship between work values and job satisfaction. Y. H. Sun and Xu (2020) explored the relationship between work values and entrepreneurial intention among college students and found that values of comfort and security are significantly and negatively related to entrepreneurial intention, while ability growth and status independence values and entrepreneurial psychological capital are significantly and positively related to entrepreneurial intention.

3. Existing studies with work values as a mediator

Ji and Zeng (2008) studied the mediating effect of perceived organizational support on the relationship between work values and job performance with knowledge-based employees as sample. Their study suggests that work values partially mediate the effect of perceived organizational support on job performance. W. Huang and Xu (2017) examined the cross-level effects of corporate culture on employee engagement with work values as a mediator using SMEs in the Yangtze River region as sample. Their research results show that work values partially mediate the relationships between involvement, sense of mission and engagement, respectively and fully mediate the relationship between coherence and engagement. J. Q. Yan et al. (2016) conducted a questionnaire survey among 420 millennial migrant workers to analyse the impact of social support received by millennial migrant workers on their job performance. Their study shows that social support received by millennial migrant workers positively influences job performance and that work values mediate the relationship between the two.

4. Existing studies with work values as a moderator

Zhan et al. (2016) conducted an empirical study based on organizational support theory and explored the relationship between work values and employee voice with perceived organizational support as a mediator. The results show that perceived organizational support significantly moderates the relationship between work values and employee voice behaviour. Y. Zhang and Yao (2021) used employees from five manufacturing companies in Northeast China as sample and analysed whether work values moderate the relationship between psychological capital and employee innovation as well as that between transformational leadership and employee innovation. The results of the study indicate that psychological capital and transformational leadership have a significantly positive effect on employee innovation, and that work values have a significantly positive moderating effect on the relationship between psychological capital and employee innovative behaviour as well as on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee behaviour. Ren et al. (2019) studied the relationship between occupational well-being and employee innovation performance using work values as a moderator.

2.2.4 Summary of literature on work values

A review of the existing literature on work values shows that the existing studies on work values are very extensive, including the definition, dimensions, measurement, antecedents and outcome variables of work values, and that the relevant research results have greatly enriched the theory of

work values and laid a solid foundation for the theory to guide practice. However, it is not difficult to find that there is no unanimous definition of work values. Instead, work values are mainly defined from four aspects; the dimensions of work values are also classified into various categories, mainly two dimensions, three dimensions, four dimensions, five dimensions, six dimensions and multiple dimensions; as to the measurement of work values, scholars mainly adopt two approaches: one is to apply mature scales developed by Chinese and foreign scholars, and the other is to develop their own scales; for the measurement of work values, scholars mainly adopt two approaches: one is to draw on mature scales from domestic and foreign scholars, and the other is to develop their own scales. Theoretical research on work values has been conducted with work values as a dependent variable, an independent variable, a mediator and a moderator, and the results of relevant studies have shown significant differences. The research sample of work values are mainly adolescents, enterprise employees, teachers and doctors. In summary, the research results on work values are abundant, but there are also certain limitations, which are mainly manifested as follows:

(1) The understanding of the nature and connotations of work values is not comprehensive, detailed and in-depth enough.

(2) Most of the scales used in the present study are scales developed by other scholars or self-made scales. In particular, the self-made scales are mostly drawn from the mature scales developed by foreign scholars, the reliability and validity of which are not high due to the lack of consideration of cultural and background differences.

(3) The research samples are too focused on a certain industry. It is necessary to deepen the research of different industry fields and groups of people. Notably, there is little literature on the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry.

2.2.5 Existing studies on the work values of millennials

1. Existing studies on the work values of millennials

Due to the significant differences in upbringing and living environment, millennials also differ from other groups in work values. Relevant scholars have mainly studied the work values of millennials from the perspective of individual characteristics. Wey Smola and Sutton (2002) as well as Cennamo and Gardner (2008) conclude that employees of different age groups and generations have different work values and exhibit different work values at work. Studies by scholars such as Macky et al. (2008), Cennamo and Gardner (2008), Lyons and Kuron (2014), as

well as Ng and Parry (2016) all conclude that significant differences in the values of employees from different generations lead to their significantly different work values, and that work values also have an impact on employees' job satisfaction, job performance and turnover rate. X. H. Yang (2008) points out that China's millennials have experienced different development stages such as the reform and opening-up and socialist development and that most of them have received higher education and are influenced by the one-child policy as well as diversified ways of thinking and cultures; they pursue a comfortable and pleasant working environment and want to be recognized and put in important positions at work to realize their self-worth; and they have a high turnover rate and strong personality characteristics. K. H. Liu and Xie (2020) also consider millennials to be a special group who are influenced by both Western thinking and traditional Chinese values. Besides, their work values are different from those of the general groups. The differences are mainly reflected in their weakened concept of compliance with organizational rules and regulations as well as reduced attention to salary and compensation. Instead, the value of their work lies in giving full play to their maximum efficiency and realizing their own value. K. H. Liu and Xie (2020) proposed strategies to master communication skills with the millennials, solve intergenerational conflicts, and enhance the collective identity of millennials. Y. M. Lu et al. (2020) studied the relationship between work values and work behaviours of millennials in private enterprises and found that the work values of millennials mainly consist of five aspects, namely self-expression, material environment, social relationship, self-development and consciousness of innovation. Twenge et al. (2010) and Burkus (2010) found through their studies that the work values of millennials bear the characteristics of the times. Specifically, they wish their work and life to be in balance with and complementary to each other; like to engage in free and pleasant work; hope that work brings them an adequate sense of achievement; pursue fairness and justice in the workplace; and disregard authority.

Hou et al. (2014) found that the work values of millennials in China consist of five dimensions: utilitarian orientation, intrinsic-factors preference, interpersonal harmony, innovative orientation and long-term development. The work values of millennials have a significant positive effect on both intra-role and extra-role performance, and millennials will behave in a way that is consistent with their work values. In the meantime, the organization's creation of a work environment and development space that match the values of millennials can help them achieve higher performance goals. Influenced by their work values, millennials value the material rewards of their work, seek

to satisfy and match their internal needs and preferences, disregard authority and emphasise interpersonal equality and a harmonious organisational climate, dare to challenge traditions and promote organisational innovation, seek good career development and look forward to broad development opportunities. It is clear from previous research that there are significant differences between the work values of millennials and those of other groups, and such differences need to be studied extensively and in depth.

2. Existing studies on the relationship between work values and turnover intention of millennials

Seen from the exiting studies, most scholars believe that there is a negative relationship between work values and turnover intention. Meng et al. (2020) studied the relationships among work values, organizational justice and turnover intention of millennials using social exchange theory and collected data from a sample of 810 participants. The results show that work values have a strong predictive effect on employees' turnover intention and that there are intergenerational differences in the predicting effect. T. T. Zhao (2020) studied the relationship between work values and turnover intention of millennials using empirical research methods. The results of her study show that the work values of millennials are negatively related to their turnover intention. Specifically, higher levels of work values of millennials are associated with higher degrees of occupational well-being and job satisfaction, and subsequently lower levels of turnover intention; and conversely, higher levels of turnover intention otherwise. Z. L. Shen (2019) used work values as the basic theory and used SPSS software to analyse the data collected from millennials. The results show that both work values and job satisfaction of millennials negatively influence their turnover intention.

2.3 Occupational well-being

2.3.1 Occupational well-being

More than 2,000 years ago, Aristotle introduced the term well-being, arguing that all human activities are aimed at achieving well-being. Philosopher Rousseau also pointed out that man's desire for well-being will never disappear (J. J. Rousseau, 2008). With the development of economy and society, the research on well-being is gradually getting more and more in-depth, and well-being is introduced into work, forming a research theory on occupational well-being.

Currently, the academia mainly studies well-being from three dimensions: subjective well-being, psychological well-being and integrated well-being.

The term “occupational well-being” was first coined by Van Horn et al. (2004), though the concept dates back to much earlier days. Other scholars have used other terms to refer to the same concept, such as “well-being in the workplace” (Danna & Griffin, 1999), “workplace well-being” (Bennett et al., 2017), “happiness at work” (Fisher, 2010), “work-related well-being” (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012), “workers’ well-being” (Diener & Tay, 2012), “employee well-being” (Keeman et al., 2017), and “well-being at work” (Weziak-Bialowolska et al., 2020). For the purpose of consistency and clarity, this thesis adopts “occupational well-being” introduced by Van Horn et al. (2004).

Some scholars define occupational well-being from the perspective of subjective well-being. Specifically, Veenhoven (1991) defines occupational well-being as an individual’s subjective overall judgment of the quality of his or her life and how good or bad it is. Danna and Griffin (1999) hold that well-being in the workplace is a comprehensive judgement of the quality of work formed by employees by combining their own psychological and physiological indicators, with psychological indicators referring to their emotions and physiological indicators referring to their health. Wright and Cropanzano (2004) argue that occupational well-being reflects the degree of psychological satisfaction of the employee, expressed as having more positive and happy emotions and less negative emotions at work. Diener et al. (1999) argue that occupational well-being refers to the positive emotions experienced by employees in the course of their work and the life satisfaction this brings. J. Y. Wang and Hu (2006) view occupational well-being as an overall assessment of the work of employees in an organization and the positive emotions this generates. Zeng (2013) considers occupational well-being the pleasure and satisfaction experienced by employees in the organization and the positive emotional experiences this brings.

Some scholars define occupational well-being from the perspective of psychological well-being. For example, Wen (2006) argues that occupational well-being refers to the psychological satisfaction that employees gain from their work and the resulting state of mental and psychological pleasure. Y. Xu (2008) defines occupational well-being as the real emotional and psychological experience of employees in the organization in the process of achieving self-worth through their own efforts, as well as the overall perception of their own occupations and abilities. S. H. Li (2009)

holds that occupational well-being refers to employees' need for self-fulfilment at work and the positive emotions experienced therefrom.

Some scholars define occupational well-being from the perspective of integrating subjective well-being and psychological well-being. For example, Fisher (2010) argues that occupational well-being is the positive judgment made by employees in an organization about the work they do or the positive emotions they experience from their work. Miao et al. (2009) hold that occupational well-being is an individual's overall perception of all aspects of work, including work content, work environment and interpersonal relationships and that it refers to the psychological or mental positive or negative emotions that employees in an organization develop by judging the impact of various parties in the organization on them. Xanthopoulou et al. (2012) contend that work-related well-being is mainly composed of job satisfaction, work engagement and the positive affect work brings to the individual. Zou et al. (2015) believe that occupational well-being is the satisfaction and sense of achievement experienced by employees in an organization after they have made positive efforts to complete their work tasks. Wu (2011) defines occupational well-being as the satisfaction and pleasure that individuals experience in the process of acquiring life materials through work and achieving self-worth through work.

It can be seen from the above definitions that scholars have put forward different definitions of occupational well-being from the perspective of subjective well-being. The focuses of different definitions differ, but the above definitions have two aspects in common. One is that occupational well-being is a positive emotion, and the other is that occupational well-being reflects satisfaction with the job. Therefore, the author holds that from the perspective of subjective well-being, occupational well-being can be defined as the degree to which employees in an organization are satisfied with their jobs and the positive and happy emotions they experience as a result.

2.3.2 Measurement of occupational well-being

Currently, the most representative and widely used scales for measuring occupational well-being are the subjective well-being scale developed by Warr (1990) consisting of five dimensions, namely affective well-being, competence, aspiration, autonomy and integrated functioning; the psychological well-being scale developed by Ryff and Keyes (1995) consisting of six dimensions, personal growth, autonomy, positive relations with others, purpose in life, environmental mastery

and self-acceptance; and the integrated well-being scale developed by Van Horn et al. (2004) consisting of affective, professional, social, cognitive and psychosomatic dimensions.

Meanwhile, scholars at home and abroad have also drawn on relevant research results to classify the dimensions of occupational well-being in different ways, and the dimensions classified range from two dimensions to seven dimensions. Specifically, Schaufeli et al. (2002) identify two underlying dimensions of work-related well-being, which are identification and activation. They argue that low identification and activation manifest as a negative work state, whereas high identification and activation manifest as a positive and active work state. Grant et al. (2007) divide occupational well-being into three dimensions, psychological, physical and social. The psychological dimension refers to having pleasant emotions; the physical dimension refers to being physically healthy; and the social dimension refers to having good social relations. Feldt et al. (2013) also identify three dimensions of occupational well-being, namely work engagement, job burnout and recovery experiences. In his study of the occupational well-being of civil servants in Macau, Y. Xu (2008) classifies job well-being into five dimensions: self-affirmation, job rewards, interpersonal relationships, job satisfaction and job goals. Wu (2011) also divides occupational well-being into five dimensions in his study of occupational well-being of employees in private companies, and the five-dimensions are employee belonging, career, total compensation, stress level and employee autonomy. Wen (2006) identifies seven dimensions of occupational well-being, namely job value, self-acceptance, development prospects, welfare benefits, interpersonal relationships, autonomy and environmental mastery, and validated the superiority of the model through empirical studies.

It can be seen from the above review that as the research on occupational well-being gets more and more in-depth, the academia has identified more influencing factors. As a result, the division of the dimensions of occupational well-being has become more diversified and detail-oriented.

2.3.3 Influencing factors of occupational well-being

A review of the existing studies shows that academic research on the factors influencing occupational well-being has focused on two aspects: external stimuli and internal stimuli.

1. External stimuli. External stimuli have the most direct impact on occupational well-being, and external factors include various aspects such as salary and income, social support, work pressure and interpersonal relationships.

(1) Existing studies on the influence of salary and income on occupational well-being

P. Hu et al. (2019) studied the influence of job income on subjective well-being with teachers in regular institutions of higher learning as participants. They found a significant association between income and subjective well-being. Specifically, the higher the income, the stronger the subjective well-being. J. Xiao and Chen (2018) conducted an empirical study based on a questionnaire survey among migrant workers in some enterprises in Urumqi and Changji to analyse the factors influencing the occupational well-being of migrant workers. They concluded that learning development, interpersonal atmosphere, salary level and superior care are all associated with the occupational well-being of migrant workers. Some scholars also found that the relationship between income and occupational well-being is not significant. For example, Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) examined the relationship between income and occupational well-being with income as the independent variable and occupational well-being as the dependent variable. Their study indicates a very weak relationship between income and occupational well-being.

(2) Existing studies on the influence of social support on occupational well-being

Social support mainly consists of family support, organizational support, as well as social and interpersonal relationships. The study conducted by Demerouti et al. (2004) suggests that support for work from family members affects employees' occupational well-being as well as employees' physical and mental health. Carlson et al. (2014) found that a balance between work-family interactions helps employees achieve higher satisfaction and exhibit a greater sense of well-being. Miao et al. (2009) argue that organizational support is an important factor influencing employee well-being, and that organizations can create a good working environment and provide good material security for employees, which helps employees work more effectively and achieve the unity of the organization's work goals with their self-worth pursuits, thus enhancing their well-being and sense of accomplishment. B. Xiong and Li (2020) identified a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and employees' occupational well-being. In addition, they found that self-efficacy partially mediates the positive influence of organizational support on employees' occupational well-being.

(3) Existing studies on the influence of work stress on occupational well-being

J. Q. Chen and Huang (2020) explored the influence of work stress on occupational well-being among professional women and concluded that work stress negatively affects occupational well-being, that work-family conflict mediates the negative influence of work stress on occupational

well-being, and that family well-being moderates the negative influence in this process. F. L. Zhou (2020) analysed the relationship between work stress and occupational well-being taking nurses working in the intensive care units (ICUs) of three Grade A hospitals as sample and concluded that there is a close association between work stress and occupational well-being of ICU nurses.

(4) Existing studies on the influence of interpersonal relationships on occupational well-being

Z. W. Li et al. (2018) studied the impact of collectivist atmosphere on employee turnover with occupational well-being and organizational identification as mediators. The results of their study show that occupational well-being and organizational identification mediate the relationship between collectivist atmosphere and employees' turnover intention and could reduce employee turnover by influencing collectivist atmosphere. C. Zhang (2012) identifies interpersonal relationships to be an important factor influencing migrant workers' occupational well-being.

2. Internal stimuli. A review of the existing studies shows that the internal stimuli influencing occupational well-being mainly include self-efficacy, personality traits and self-actualization.

(1) Existing studies on the influence of self-efficacy on occupational well-being

Feng et al. (2008) hold that job insecurity is currently widespread in organizations and that self-efficacy can moderate the relationship between job insecurity and occupational well-being. S. H. Li (2009) points out that self-efficacy is related to occupational well-being in that the higher the self-efficacy, the more employees can perceive the well-being of their occupation, otherwise the less employees can perceive occupational well-being.

(2) Existing studies on the influence of personality traits on occupational well-being

H. J. Wang (2018) studied the relationship between personality traits and subjective well-being of young teachers in Inner Mongolia and found that personality traits and subjective well-being are intrinsically linked. C. R. Chen et al. (2012) found through a review of 43 relevant studies that neuroticism, psychoticism, as well as introversion and extroversion are related to occupational well-being. Specifically, neuroticism and psychoticism negatively influence occupational well-being while introversion and extroversion positively influence work well-being.

(3) Existing studies on the influence of self-actualization on occupational well-being

Song (2011) argues that compared to all other employees, the post-80s knowledge-based employees are more eager to realize their value through work, and the realization of work value can significantly enhance their occupational well-being. Millennials are more eager to play a role

in their organization and realize their self-worth; and the higher the degree of self-worth realization, the stronger their occupational well-being.

1. Studies from other perspectives. Lin et al. (2014) and X. G. Zhang et al. (2012) studied the effect of individual-environment fit on job well-being. Z. Zhang (2016) explored the mediating effect of job involvement on the relationship between subordinate-supervisor fit and occupational well-being. W. J. Wu et al. (2012) studied the effect of psychological capital on occupational well-being. X. T. Wang et al. (2017) identified an association between working hours and occupational well-being reflected in that too long working hours will negatively influence employees' occupational well-being.

2.3.4 Results of existing studies on the occupational well-being of millennials

1. Existing studies on the occupational well-being of millennials

Some scholars have studied the relationship between performance and occupational well-being of millennials and concluded that performance has a positive influence on the occupational well-being of millennials (T. Zhang, 2021; Y. Zhang, 2020). Some scholars have studied the relationship between family conflict and occupational well-being. They identify an association between family conflict and occupational well-being. Specifically, the more family conflict millennials have to deal with, the less occupational well-being they will experience; conversely, the more occupational well-being they will experience (X. Li et al., 2020). G. Chen and Zhang (2019) conducted a study on the influencing factors of the occupational well-being of millennials and concluded that the factors affecting the occupational well-being of millennials mainly include two levels: personal factors and organizational factors. Specifically, personal factors include values and professionalism; and organizational factors include work environment and workload. On this basis, they put forward suggestions for improving the occupational well-being of millennials from both personal and organizational levels. In addition, some other scholars have studied how the influencing factors of the occupational well-being of millennials, such as working hours, intergenerational relationships and personality traits are related to their occupational well-being.

2. Existing studies on the relationship between the occupational well-being and turnover intention of millennials

Scholars have conducted extensive research on the relationship between the occupational well-being and turnover intention of millennials in conjunction with their respective research fields.

Specifically, some scholars have studied the relationship between occupational well-being and turnover intention with occupational well-being as the independent variable (C. W. Huang, 2020); some scholars used occupational well-being as a mediator (Liang et al., 2020; M. Zhang, 2016). The scholars' findings generally validate that the occupational well-being of millennials is associated with their turnover intention, and the stronger the occupational well-being of employees, the higher their satisfaction with the organization, which will significantly reduce their turnover intention; conversely, weak occupational well-being will influence employees' evaluation of the organization and subsequently cause them to have turnover intention.

2.3.5 Summary of existing studies on occupational well-being

The above analysis shows that scholars have conducted extensive research on the concept, influencing factors and structural dimensions of occupational well-being in organizations. But there is limited literature on organizational identification from the perspective of occupational well-being. The same is true with the research on turnover intention from the perspective of occupational well-being. Besides, the mediating role of occupational well-being has seldom been studied, let alone the research on occupational well-being in specific scenarios, specific industries and specific groups. Particularly, there are very few studies on the occupational well-being of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. So, the research results are not very relevant and practical, and more relevant studies need to be conducted.

2.4 Organizational identification

2.4.1 Organizational identification

The concept of organizational identification has a long history. It first originated in the 1950s based on the social identity theory and social psychology. Organizational identification is a comprehensive concept that integrates the relevant research results of both social identity and psychology. Identification refers to the affective orientation toward a specific thing. As organizational identification involves a wide range of fields and multiple disciplines, currently the academia has not reached a consensus on its definition.

Cheney (1983) defines organizational identification as the process where individuals integrate into the various elements of the social environment, and it mainly reflects individuals' degree of

acceptance towards and the process of accepting social elements. Mael and Ashforth (1992) define organizational identification as employees' sense of belonging to the organization, indicating the degree of acceptance of the organization among employees. Chinese scholars Hsu and Cheng (2002) regard organizational identification as individuals' self-definition in the organization. It is a process where individuals belong to the organization. Organizational identification occurs when individuals' self-definition is associated with the organization's behavioural characteristics. Y. M. Shen (2007) holds that organizational identification is a process where individuals regard themselves as the centre and affirm themselves by certain standards and that in the organization's development process, organizational identification also reflects individuals' selves.

Ricketta (2005) summarizes the definition of organizational identification into three dimensions. The first is the cognitive dimension, which explains organizational identification from the perspective of individuals' perception. In other words, it is the process of perceiving the sense of belonging brought by the organization to individual members. It reflects the consistency between individuals and the organization. Dutton et al. (1994) argue that organizational identification is a cognitive link between an individual and the organization, and that organizational identification allows employees to define themselves with organizational characteristics. Pratt (1998) regards organizational identification as a perception of the degree of alignment between individual values and organizational values among organization members. Brown (1969) considers organizational identification as the perception and positioning of an individual's role in an organization. It is manifested as the organization's attractiveness to the individual, the alignment between the individual's goals and the organization's goals, the individual's loyalty to the organization, and the individual's willingness to fulfil his or her responsibilities and duties as a member of the organization. According to Cheney (1983), organizational identification is the process by which individuals take actions to relate themselves to socially relevant contextual elements and to recognize and identify with the relevant social elements (such as others, family, group, collective, group and nation) in terms of such aspects as values and goals. D. M. Rousseau (1998) holds that organizational identification is a psychological state in which individuals perceive themselves as part of an organization.

The second is the affective dimension, which explains organizational identification in terms of the affective relationship that an employee has with the organization. It refers to the emotional attachment that employees form to the organization, and such emotional attachment brings

employees together to motivate them to form organizational consistency. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) define organizational identification from the affective perspective. Specifically, organizational identification arises due to an individual's attraction and expectation of a self-defined relationship based on maintaining an emotionally satisfying relationship with the target of identification. Wei et al. (2007) argue that organizational identification is a subjective feeling generated by employees after organizational-level variables are absorbed through personal feelings. Schneider et al. (1971) define organizational identification as an individual's affective commitment to the organization and a process in which individuals integrate the goals and values of the organization with their own goals and values and gradually develop consistency.

The third is the social dimension. It is the explanation of organizational identification from a sociological perspective, according to which organizational identification is the behaviour and attitude of employees to maintain consistency with the organization based on their own organizational identities. Ashforth and Mael (1989) believe that organizational identification belongs to the category of social identity and is a special form of social identity. It is the process where individuals form consistent attitudes and behaviours with the organization. The organization is the target for individuals to identify with. It can keep individuals in step with the organization and become the basis of individual attitudes and behaviours. This is mainly reflected in the individual's self-recognition as a member of the organization, the interdependence between the individual and the organization, and the alignment of personal values and behavioural attitudes with those of the organization. Y. B. Wang (2004) holds that organizational identification refers to a state where organization members are consistent with the organization they join in terms of behaviours and perceptions, feel both a sense of belonging to and a psychological contract with the organization, and thus demonstrates organizational citizenship behaviour characterized by whole-hearted dedication to the organization's activities.

Different scholars have defined the concept of organizational identification from different perspectives, and these definitions have been studied from the perspectives of individual perception, emotional characteristics and sociology. Although there are differences in the definition of organizational identification because of different focuses, the above definitions have three points in common: First, identification reflects the relationship between an individual and the organization; second, identification is related to the concept of self. Individuals form organizational identification when they believe that their own behavioural attitudes and values are consistent with those of the

organization; third, organizational identification is centred on employees' selves. It is employees' selves reflected from the organization according to their self-standards as well as their identification and search for self-identity.

2.4.2 Measurement of organizational identification

2.4.2.1 Scales of organizational identification

The use of scales to measure organizational identification started in the 1980s. Different scholars have developed many scales with reference significance by integrating the focuses of their respective studies. Because scholars do not have a consistent understanding of the dimensions of organizational identification, there are also major differences in the academic classification of organizational identification. Among the available scales, the more famous and representative ones are the one-dimensional scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992); the three-dimensional scale developed by Cheney (1983); the four-dimensional scale developed by Van Dick et al. (2004); and the three-dimensional single scale developed by Edwards and Peccei (2007). Chinese scholars have also conducted extensive research on organizational identification theory and developed many representative scales, among which the representative ones are the three-dimensional scale developed by Y. B. Wang (2004), the four-dimensional scale developed by H. Wang (2008) and the nine-dimensional scale developed by J. M. Sun and Jiang (2009).

1. An analysis of the organizational identification scale developed by Ashforth and Mael (1989)

Ashforth and Mael (1989) argued that organizational identification is composed of only a single dimension rather than multiple dimensions. Thus, they studied organizational identification as a whole and developed a six-item scale to measure it from the psychological state of individual cognition. Because the Mael and Ashforth (1992) scale is unidimensional, the results are not precise. And it is precisely because the scale is holistic and does not reflect differences across industries that it can be used across industries and is particularly suitable for measuring employees who just entered the workforce.

In the author's view, Ashforth and Mael (1989) measured organizational identification mainly from the perspective of individuals' perceptions of the organization. However, through the interpretation of the existing studies above, organizational identification consists of not only personal perceptions but also affective dimension and social factors. As the definition of

organizational identification by Patchen (1970) (organizational identification is an individual's perception of the similarity between the organization itself and its members, a sense of belonging deriving from the individual's feeling of membership, and the individual's emotional and behavioural support for the organization. Organizational identification is a holistic construct that needs to be measured in different dimensions to get more accurate results). As reiterated by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), organizational identification is a holistic concept with multiple dimensions and should not be measured solely from a cognitive perspective.

2. An analysis of the organizational identification scale developed by Cheney (1983)

Cheney (1983) integrated the Patchen (1970) definition of organizational identification and constructed an Organizational Identification Scale (OIS) consisting of three dimensions: individual's identification with his/her position in the organization (membership), similarity between individual's values and organizational values, and similarity among members of the organization (similarity) and loyalty to the organization (loyalty). The Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIQ) was developed based on this scale. Through continuous revisions and improvement, the final questionnaire contains 25 items. As the research gets more in-depth, multiple different measurement versions of OIQ have emerged, all of which have high levels of reliability and validity. According to relevant scholars, the Cronbach's α of each OIQ remains between 0.71 and 0.95. Since this method of measurement can reflect the degree of individuals' organizational identification across different dimensions, it is more refined and precise in the measurement of organizational identification and is thus generally recognized by the academia.

Although the internal reliability of the OIQ is very high and its internal consistency is very strong, some scholars have questioned OIS as theoretical research gets more and more in-depth. For example, Riketta (2005) suggested stopping using the OIQ for it overlaps with the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), which are used to measure attitudinal organizational commitment. Specifically, eight out of the 25 items are almost identical to those in the OCQ and ACS. The main reason for this result is that when Cheney first developed the OIQ, many of the items were directly referenced from the already existing commitment measures. V. D. Miller et al. (2000) also found that after a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of questionnaires from four different organizations, the OIQ could not measure members' organizational identification; it could only be used to measure members' affective commitment to the organization.

3. An analysis of the organizational identification scale developed by Van Dick et al. (2004)

Van Dick et al. (2004) developed a scale to measure organizational identification based on social identity theory using the empirical research method. The scale measured organizational identification from four dimensions: cognitive, affective, evaluative and behavioural. The scale consists of 30 items and has been repeatedly measured and tested, showing strong applicability and scientific validity. The scale also demonstrates that organizational identification is composed of not only a single cognitive dimension. However, the scale has not been widely popularized and used by the academia mainly because of the differences in the perception of the dimensions of organizational identification. Currently, it is generally recognized in the academia that organizational identification is composed of two dimensions: cognition and affective, though a few scholars also recognize that organizational identification is composed of three dimensions: cognitive, affective and evaluative. However, the four dimensions put forward by Van Dick et al. (2004) is not highly recognized in academia. Hence, the acceptance of the scale is correspondingly low, resulting in scholars' tendency to prefer other more mature scales when choosing an organizational identification scale. In addition, Chinese scholars Bao and Xu (2006) point out that both the reliability and validity of the organizational identification scale developed by Van Dick et al. (2004) are not satisfactory when measuring the relationship between organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviour due to the overlap and crossover between the organizational behaviour of organization members and organizational citizenship behaviour in the organization.

4. An analysis of the organizational identification scale developed by Y. B. Wang (2004)

Y. B. Wang (2004) developed an organizational identification scale containing three dimensions of survival, belonging and success based on human's needs for survival, relationship and growth in theories of motivation. The scale consists of 13 items and is a representative organizational identification scale in China. However, the scale was developed based on human needs. Yet in fact, human needs are diverse and not limited to the three dimensions of survival, relationship and growth. Instead, they are influenced by various factors. Therefore, the scale needs to be improved in practice.

5. The three-dimensional scale developed by Edwards and Peccei (2007)

Edwards and Peccei (2007) define organizational identification as a psychological connection between an individual and the organization, where the organization, as a social entity, can be deeply

perceived by the individual and functions as part of the individual's emotional and cognitive self-definition. They developed a six-item organizational identification scale consisting of three dimensions: a sense of organizational belonging and membership, self-categorization and labelling, sharing of organizational goals and values. The results show that the three-dimensional structure outperformed the unidimensional and two-dimensional structures in both structural validity and data fitting, with Cronbach's α being above 0.85. However, the findings also indicate low discriminant validity among the three dimensions due to high intergroup correlations. Therefore, the two scholars conclude that it is necessary to use the six items as a single holistic to measure organizational identification instead of using them as items of the three sub-dimensions.

6. The four-dimensional single scale developed by H. Wang (2008)

H. Wang (2008) defined the connotation of organizational identification in the Chinese context, determined the structure of organizational identification in the Chinese cultural context, and developed a four-dimensional organizational identification scale in the Chinese cultural context. He holds that organizational identification is formed by four dimensions, respectively appreciation and gratitude to supervisors, a sense of belonging to the organization, pride in the organization and working harmoniously with co-workers. The author believes that this scale can reflect Chinese characteristics to a certain extent, but it needs to be improved in practice due to the lack of research on the antecedents and outcome variables of organizational identification or other attitudes.

7. The two-dimensional single scale developed by J. F. Liu and He (2008)

V. D. Miller et al. (2000) argue that organizational identification consists of three dimensions: cognitive, affective and evaluative. Based on the study conducted by V. D. Miller et al. (2000), J. F. Liu and He (2008) hold that in the process of constructing an organizational identification model, cognition and evaluative dimensions are close in meaning and can thus be integrated. After the integration, the dimensions of organizational identification are further reduced to include only affective and evaluative dimensions.

8. The nine-dimensional organizational identification scale developed by J. M. Sun and Jiang (2009)

Taking into account the Chinese context and China's historical and cultural characteristics, J. M. Sun and Jiang (2009) developed a scale consisting of nine dimensions: sense of belonging, organizational appeal, member similarity, identity perception, organizational involvement, individual-organization alignment, interpersonal relationships, gratitude and allegiance, as well as

contractual relationships, six of which are similar to the results of Western studies, and three of which are reconstructed according to China's reality. The scale can reflect organizational identification in the Chinese context to a certain extent, but further refinement is needed because the factors influencing organizational identification are not entirely consistent across different types of millennials in different industries.

In addition, some other scholars have conducted research from the levels of organizational identification and classify the structure of organizational identification into situational identification and deep identification. Situational identification refers to the identification relationship formed by organization members due to the existence of common interests with the organization, while deep identification refers to the cognitive patterns formed by organization members toward the organization across time, roles and situations (Rousseau, 1998). Some scholars classify organizational identification structure in terms of the strength of identification. For example, Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) divide organizational identification into four levels, namely identification, ambivalent identification, neutral identification and disidentification, in terms of the strength of identification. Identification means that employees in the organization perceive their organizational membership and form a strong congruence with the organization; ambivalent identification means that due to the complexity and instability of the organizational environment, employees in the organization perceive that their organizational membership and congruence with the organization are not solid; neutral identification means that the loose relationship between employees in the organization and the organization or the inconsistency between the organizational values and the values of employees results in employees' unclear emotions, attitudes, behaviours, values and concepts. In such cases, employees show neither identification with the organization nor disidentification with the organization; and disidentification refers to the complete inconsistency or even conflict between employees' individual emotions and values and the emotions and values of the organization, resulting in employees' indifference, negativity and even resistance to the organization.

In summary, different scholars have put forward different dimensions of organizational identification, reflecting their different perceptions of organizational identification, which further enriches the research on the composition of organizational identification.

2.4.2.2 Summary of studies on the measurement of organizational identification

At present, the above-mentioned scales are mostly used to measure organizational identification in China, but there are some problems that cannot be ignored in the application of the above scales. First, there are significant differences between Chinese and foreign cultures, which are also reflected in organizational behaviour, and organizational identification itself is closely related to individual values, cultural perceptions and behavioural characteristics. Western scales predominantly reflect Western cultures, but do not reflect Chinese cultural connotations. Therefore, using Western scales to measure organizational identification in China is inappropriate to some extent.

Second, the current measurement of organizational identification is a static measurement, which neither places scale selection in specific events and specific industries nor reflects the development history and trajectory of organizational identification measurement. It lacks the ability to explore organizational identification at the individual, social and organizational levels, and thus has certain limitations and constraints.

Third, most existing studies on organizational identification measurement are based on a cross-sectional design. In other words, they use a cross-sectional approach to measurement. The biggest disadvantage of a cross-sectional study is that conclusions can only be drawn at one point in time, and it is not easy to see the continuum of development and key transition points.

2.4.3 Antecedents of organizational identification

An analysis of the existing literature shows that the existing academic research on the antecedents of organizational identification mainly focuses on the organizational level and the individual level, of which the organizational level is divided into extra-organizational factors and intra-organizational factors.

In terms of extra-organizational factors, organizational reputation, family members' influence and public or customer evaluations all have an impact on individuals' organizational identification. These extra-organizational factors essentially satisfy employees' personal self-concept continuity, enhance personal differentiation and self-esteem, and therefore cause employees to identify with the organization. Albert and Whetten (1985) hold that organizational reputation has a significant positive association with organizational identification, and the better an organization's reputation is, the stronger sense of superiority and satisfaction employees feel. Organizational reputation

reflects the integrity of an organization, and the better the reputation of the organization, the higher the social recognition of the organization, and therefore the higher the recognition of the employees in the organization. This recognition gives employees in the organization a sense of pride and belonging, thus enhancing employees' identification with the organization.

In terms of intra-organizational factors of organizational identification, scholars have found that organizational support, leadership style, organizational climate, organizational values, organizational culture and organizational motivational styles can all have an impact on employees' organizational identification. E. Y. Zhou and Liu (2021) conducted a survey among 25 state-owned enterprises to study the influence of paternalistic leadership on employees' organizational identification and found that paternalistic leadership can influence employees' performance through organizational identification. Peng et al. (2022) collected data from a sample of 332 participants by means of a questionnaire survey and analysed the influence of pro-environmental organizational climate on employees' green behaviour using SPSS software. They identified a positive relationship between pro-environmental organizational climate and employees' green organizational behaviour. Tian and Tao (2021) collected data from 361 questionnaires to study the intrinsic mechanism by which charismatic leadership influences the innovative performance of millennials and found that charismatic leadership has a significantly positive influence on the innovative performance of millennials; besides, leadership identification, professional identification and organizational identification partially mediate the above relationship, respectively. In an empirical study of the dimensions of the perceived organizational support of employees, W. S. Ling et al. (2006) found that perceived organizational support has a positive effect on organizational identification, organizational affective commitment and other altruistic behaviours. They also studied the influence of organizational culture on employees' organizational identification, with innovative culture having the strongest influence, followed by supportive culture and then by bureaucratic culture. H. Zhang and Song (2016) found that corporate culture has the effect of enhancing employees' sense of mission, responsibility, honour, belonging and achievement, and that a high-quality corporate culture helps to enhance employees' organizational identification. It can thus be seen that the influences of different intra-organizational factors on organizational identification vary, which is an objective manifestation of the different effects of different intra-organizational factors on organizational identification.

At the individual level, Wei et al. (2009) found that individuals' perceptions of organizational identification consist of five dimensions, namely, leading by example, external recognition, clarification of rules and regulations, care and compassion and consistent behaviour. Further, Wei et al. (2009) found that all the above five dimensions have a strong positive association with employees' organizational identification through regression analysis and linear analysis. Mael and Ashforth (1992) identified a significant impact on organizational identification from organization members' length of work in the organization and job satisfaction. Bartel (2001) noticed a certain negative association between length of work and organizational identification. Specifically, the longer employees work in an organization, the more likely they are to become bored, which will reduce their perceived organizational identification. Best and Nelson (1985) studied the effect of nostalgia on organizational identification. Their study suggests that people whose lives feature discontinuity will be more likely to become nostalgic, and the longer they work in an organization, the more they are reluctant to leave the organization because of nostalgia, and thus the stronger their organization identification. In other words, there is a positive relationship between nostalgia and organization identification. Johnson and O'Leary-Kelly (2003) found for the first time that personality traits of organization members are associated with organizational identification. They point out that extraversion in the Big Five Personality Traits positively affects organizational identification, while neuroticism negatively affects organizational identification. Subsequent scholars began to focus on the influence of cognitive and psychological variables such as individual motivation and psychological empowerment on organizational identification. For example, Cooper and Thatcher (2010) point out that individual self-concept orientation and motivation influence employees' identification with the group level such as the organization and project teams as well as the relational level such as co-workers, subordinates and superiors. H. Chen (2010) notes that the four dimensions of psychological empowerment all have positive effects on the degree of individual organizational identification.

2.4.4 Outcome variables of organizational identification

Currently, scholars have conducted extensive research on the outcome variables of organizational identification. Scholars generally agree that organizational identification can influence employees' behavioural attitudes and value concepts. Existing studies in this area are mainly conducted from the perspectives of such aspects as organizational satisfaction, job satisfaction, turnover intention,

work values, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. The existing studies on the outcome variables of organizational identification can be broadly divided into two aspects: identification aggregation and situated identification. Identification aggregation refers to the internal assimilation and integration of the organization, and situated identification refers to the adaptive organizational identification generated by the organization according to the external circumstances.

From the perspective of identification aggregation, organizational identification is beneficial in that it ensures that members make decisions in the interest of the organization even in the absence of supervision. Dukerich et al. (2002) point out that there is a significant relationship between organizational identification and organizational citizenship behaviour. The stronger the organizational identification, the more employees can develop emotional and psychological congruence with the organization, and the more employee cohesion can be increased, thus making the organization more united and stable to realize the objective of healthy development. Turner and Tajfel (1986) found that organizational identification is the emotional link between the organization and individuals, and that organizational identification enables employees to give up their personality characteristics, accept organizational characteristics, and agree with the organization's behavioural attitudes and values, forming a community of common destiny with the organization. Dutton et al. (1994) found that once the employees in an organization have formed organizational identification, they will have stronger willingness to cooperate with each other and will participate more actively in all the work of the organization to help the organization achieve better development results. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) believe that organizational identification is positively related to organizational commitment, and that organizational identification promotes organizational commitment, allowing employees within the organization to feel a stronger sense of well-being and pride, thus promoting organizational citizenship behaviour. Q. Y. Wang (2020) studied the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention based on a questionnaire survey among employees in state-owned enterprises and non-public enterprises. She concluded that organizational identification can significantly reduce the turnover rate of employees. Si (2019) conducted a questionnaire survey with employees of enterprises and public institutions as sample. The analysis of data collected from 187 respondents shows that organizational identification is significantly related to employees' turnover intention ($R = -0.406$). Herrbach and Mignonac (2004) conducted a one-year follow-up study on a sample of 249 respondents starting

from 2004 and found that the perceived external prestige of an organization and the need for organizational identification have significant effects on turnover intention. The above literature shows that employees' organizational identification has a significant impact on their attitudes and behaviours. The stronger the employees' organizational identification, the more they will value organizational interests, the more they will be willing to align with the organization and achieve organizational goals by increasing cooperation and automatically performing organizational citizenship behaviours. From the perspective of situated identification, organizational identification increases member commitment and shareholder commitment. Hong (2012) argues that organizational identification has the effect of enhancing the legitimacy of organizational operations, generating adaptive organizational situated identification, and improving organizational performance, allowing enterprises to develop a competitive advantage.

2.4.5 Existing studies on the organizational identification of millennials

Jia and Ji (2021) distributed questionnaires among 307 millennials in coal mining enterprises in Shanxi Province by means of a survey questionnaire and found that all dimensions of organizational identification significantly and negatively affect millennial miners' counterproductive behaviour and that millennial miners' organizational identification could promote miners' production behaviour. S. Y. Yu et al. (2020) studied the influence of organizational identification and supervisor identification on millennials in the service industry in the Yangtze River Delta region based on interview and questionnaire survey methods and found that organizational identification and supervisor identification have a significantly positive influence on the innovative behaviour of millennials. K. He (2016) investigated millennials' perceptions of organizational identification and counterproductive behaviour in 20 companies and collected 336 questionnaires. His research results showed that organizational identification and perceived organizational justice have a significantly negative influence on counterproductive behaviour of millennials and that perceived organizational justice moderates the influence of organizational identification on counterproductive behaviour.

2.4.6 Existing studies on the organizational identification of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

Z. H. Liu et al. (2020) found through a survey of manufacturing enterprises in Heyuan City, Guangdong Province that enhancing the organizational identification of millennial employees in manufacturing enterprises plays an important role in enhancing the occupational well-being and sense of belonging of millennials, and proposed that enterprises may improve millennials' organizational identification by fostering a corporate culture in line with their personality characteristics, meeting their personalized needs, encouraging and supporting them to participate in management, and helping them plan their careers rationally to realize the healthy development of the organization. W. Q. Guo (2019) conducted an empirical study on how the organizational identification of millennials is related to organizational support and affective commitment as well as the relationship between the organizational support provided by enterprises and affective commitment of millennials with small and medium-sized manufacturing enterprises in Zhejiang Province as sample. The results showed that the organizational support provided by enterprises impacts the affective commitment of millennials, and that the organizational identification of millennials mediates the relationship between organizational support and affective commitment. In other words, organizations influence the organizational identification of millennials by providing support, and employees' organizational identification in turn affects their affective commitment. C. S. Dai (2018) conducted an empirical study based on questionnaire survey method to explore the relationship between organizational identification and innovativeness of millennials with situational variables as moderators and adopted SPSS software for validity, reliability and consistency tests. The results of the study suggest a significantly positive relationship between each of the three dimensions of organizational identification (membership, loyalty and similarity) and the innovative behaviour of millennials, respectively. Jiao (2017) found through research that human resource management (HRM) is significantly and positively related to millennials' performance, and that organizational identification mediates the relationship between the two. In other words, organizational identification affects the performance of millennials through HRM.

2.4.7 Existing studies on the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

By the time of this thesis, a search through China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) had not shown literature related to organizational identification and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. But there are some similar studies, such as a study on the relationship between career identification and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry (C. Q. Du, 2020), a study on the influence of personal-organizational value matching of millennials on turnover (Jiang, 2019), and a study on the relationships between organizational appeal, organizational commitment and turnover intention: An empirical analysis of millennials (Zong, 2015). It can thus be seen that there are limited studies on the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, which is where the innovation of the present study lies.

2.4.8 Summary of existing studies on organizational identification

The above review shows that scholars have conducted extensive research centring on the concept of organizational identification as well as its influencing factors, constitutive dimensions, antecedents and outcome variables. Scholars generally agree that organizational identification affects employees' behavioural attitudes, affective tendencies, value orientations and behavioural performance in organizations. They have explored the influencing factors and mechanisms of action from the perspectives of different dimensions. Seen from existing studies, most scholars focus on the relationship between organization members and the organization. Most of them focus on a wide range of groups without differentiating the groups of research population, nor do they place the research context in specific industry scenarios. Consequently, the research results cannot be used as a strong reference for specific groups and specific fields, and the research conclusions drawn can hardly guide the organizational identification practices of specific groups and industries.

2.5 Turnover intention

2.5.1 Turnover intention

“Turnover intention” is defined as an employee’s intention to voluntarily change jobs or companies (Schyns et al., 2007). S. H. Zhang and Liu (2016) regard turnover intention as employees’ idea to leave the organization because they are dissatisfied with the work in the organization. Turnover intention emphasizes a state of mind of the employee in the organization and belongs to the change in the employee’s mind rather than the practice of action. If the employee chooses to implement this intention, then turnover will become a fact; whereas if the employee chooses not to implement the intention, then the employee will continue to work in the organization. McCarthy et al. (2007) argue that turnover intention helps to predict employees’ turnover and is an employee’s psychological activity to leave the organization. Mobley (1977) regards turnover intention as an employee’s idea of leaving an organization after a period of careful consideration. P. L. Huang and Tian (2006) believe that turnover intention arises from employees’ idea of wanting to leave the organization, and when this idea arises, employees will take various measures to avoid it or face it directly, and turnover is also stimulated by this idea. L. Zhang et al. (2013) consider turnover intention to be caused by employees’ dissatisfaction with their work, and this dissatisfaction includes dissatisfaction with such aspects as salary, management, interpersonal relationships and promotion. This state of mind has a certain predictive effect on turnover, reflects the state of mind of employees at work, and can effectively predict their behaviour.

2.5.2 Models of turnover intention

Employees’ turnover intention is a psychological process in the period before an employee leaves the organization. Frequent employee turnover can trigger business crisis and temporarily disrupt the production and operation of enterprises. At present, there is a large amount of literature on turnover intention by Chinese and international scholars, and several representative research models have been formed.

2.5.2.1 Intermediate Linkage Model of Employee Turnover by Mobley (1977)

Mobley (1977) proposed the famous Intermediate Linkage Model of Employee Turnover in 1977, according to which turnover intention mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and

turnover and has the function of predicting turnover compared to other variables. Thus, turnover intention became an important variable in the research on turnover. However, turnover intention is only a psychological process before an employee leaves, and the decision to leave is also influenced by personal factors and other external factors. Mobley (1977) classified these influencing factors into two categories: one is the determination and ability to find new job opportunities; the other is the determination and ability to give up the existing job. Since then, many scholars have conducted a lot of research on this model, further developed the Intermediate Linkage Model, and formed many operational and targeted research models.

2.5.2.2 Steers and Mowday (1981) Turnover Model

Steers and Mowday (1981) proposed a turnover model. They found that the main reason for employees to leave their jobs is job burnout. Specifically, when employees first join the workforce, they are enthusiastic about their jobs due to their curiosity and pursuit of their careers. But as time goes by, the sense of accomplishment and well-being brought by their jobs becomes less and less, and they begin to experience burnout, which gradually gives rise to their turnover intention as they wish to get rid of this emotion by changing jobs. The study by Steers and Mowday (1981) further expanded on the factors influencing turnover and considered the relevance of some non-job-related factors. In addition, they argue that organizational commitment is also an important variable influencing turnover and that reduced job satisfaction does not absolutely lead to turnover due to the mediating effect of organizational commitment.

2.5.2.3 A causal model of turnover by Price and Mueller (1981)

Price and Mueller (1981) proposed a causal model of turnover by drawing on and assimilating the existing studies on turnover intention. They argue that such factors as opportunity, job stress, pay, routinization, promotional chances and negative affectivity all influence individuals' turnover decision. In addition, the model also analyses which factors reduce the probability of turnover. Because the model mixes the positive and negative influencing factors of turnover intention and integrates the knowledge of various disciplines, the model is highly complex and requires analysis of various variables when predicting and analysing specific cases of turnover intention. Although it can form some recommendations for reference, the model is not effective in predicting turnover intention due to the complexity of operation and the need for knowledge in various fields.

2.5.2.4 Existing studies on turnover model by Chinese scholars

H. Lu and Zhao (2019) studied the impact of disruptive leadership on employee turnover and constructed a disruptive leadership turnover model. The model analysed the impact of disruptive leadership and perceived organizational justice on employee turnover, reflecting that disruptive leadership has a significantly positive influence on employee turnover whereas perceived organizational justice has a significantly negative influence on employee turnover. They also found that employees' emotional intelligence positively moderates the relationship between perceived organizational justice and turnover intention.

Q. Wu (2010) constructed a model of the factors influencing the turnover of polytechnic students using factor analysis. He included pay system, job expectations, personal, school and family factors, external environment, job motivation and organizational environment as influencing factors. The research model not only focuses on the influencing factors inside the company but also studies and analyses the influencing factors outside the company. Tan (2017) constructed a model based on occupational burnout, occupational stress and turnover intention. The model shows that occupational stress positively influences employees' turnover intention, that occupational burnout partially mediates the relationship between occupational stress and turnover intention, and that social support moderates the influence of burnout on turnover intention.

2.5.3 Influencing factors of turnover intention

Scholars outside China have conducted extensive research on the influencing factors of turnover intention. For example, Iverson (1999) argues that the factors influencing employee turnover mainly include four aspects: personal variables, environmental variables, job-related variables and employees' own variables. Price (1977) regards income, integration between the individual and the job, formal communication within the enterprise, basic communication among employees and the enterprise's management model as factors influencing employee turnover. Muchinsky and Morrow (1980) argue that economic, personal and job-related factors affect employees' turnover. Allen and Griffeth (1999) studied the factors influencing employee turnover from the perspective of organizational justice, arguing that justice in the organization's pay package, justice in the organization's employee management system and justice in the organization's work assignment arrangements affect employee turnover. Quarles (1994) found that in terms of organizational influences, employees' job role perceptions have a significant impact on their turnover. Particularly,

employees' role stress, role ambiguity and role conflict are significantly and positively related to their turnover. In addition, employee's organizational engagement also influences their job satisfaction, which further indirectly causes employees to have turnover intention and subsequently induces turnover. Zeffane (1994) argued that many scholars have examined employees' turnover intention only from unilateral factors without considering the interactions among different variables. So, he started from whether employees' individual characteristics match with organizational characteristics and argued that the higher degree of fit between individual characteristics and organizational characteristics, the more employees will show positive work enthusiasm, and the lower the turnover intention. Otherwise, the higher the turnover intention.

Scholars in China have also conducted a lot of research on the influencing factors of turnover intention. For example, W. Q. Ling et al. (2001) found through study that organizational commitment is significantly and negatively related to turnover intention, that job satisfaction is also significantly and negatively associated with turnover, and that these two factors play a decisive role in employee turnover while other variables are all influenced by these two variables. On this basis, W. Q. Ling et al. (2005) summarised seven aspects of factors affecting employee turnover through an empirical study, including job motivation and achievement, corporate culture, salary and benefits, promotion and training, company profits and prospects, interpersonal relationships and working conditions. C. Wang and Song (2021) examined the influence of social workers' public service motivation on their turnover intention and found that perceptions of personal care and a socially caring organizational ethical climate have a significantly positive moderating effect on the relationship between social workers' public service motivation and turnover intention. Q. Ma and Han (2021) analysed the factors influencing the turnover of rural primary healthcare workers and concluded that work intensity, pay-reward imbalance and reduced job satisfaction are the main factors for rural primary health care workers to quit their jobs, and that job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between work intensity and turnover intention as well as the relationship between pay-reward imbalance and turnover intention. In addition, the influence of demographic characteristics and job variables on employees' turnover intention was also explored (Cui, 2003), so were the factors influencing employees' turnover intention from the perspective of their personal growth and organizational commitment (Weng & Xi, 2011) and the factors influencing employees' turnover intention from the perspective of personal factors, organizational factors and macroeconomic factors (X. P. Zhao et al., 2003). These studies have not only laid a

solid theoretical foundation for us to understand employees' turnover intention from a more open and broader perspective but also provided good references for enterprises to improve their employee management system and formulate reasonable employee motivation plans.

In fact, employees are influenced by various factors from the generation of turnover intention to the turnover decision. Turnover intention does not necessarily lead to actual turnover. Instead, it is only a predictor variable of turnover. Scholars such as Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992) as well as Somers (1996) found that employees' age, gender, education level and length of working have a certain predictive effect on employees' turnover. Somers (1996) noted that after employees develop turnover intention, they will start looking for new jobs, and new job opportunities are the most direct source of influence on employees' turnover. Zeffane (1994) regarded turnover as the result of the interaction between employees' turnover and finding new job opportunities and believed that new job opportunities strengthen employees' determination to make the decision to quit. Besides, employees' employability and work level are also important factors influencing their turnover. This is because employability indicates an employee's ability to obtain a new job, and if the employee lacks the ability and confidence to do so, he/she will find it difficult to quit despite his/her turnover intention.

2.5.4 Existing studies on the turnover intention of millennials

In recent years, the turnover rate of millennials has been increasing year by year, and the high turnover rate has had a significant impact on the development of enterprises. In this context, the study of the characteristics, causes and influencing factors of the turnover of millennials has also become a topic of keen interest.

2.5.4.1 Existing studies on the turnover characteristics of millennials

X. L. Wang (2010) collected data related to the turnover of 1,256 participants in the Pearl River Delta region who were in different age groups and classes by means of a questionnaire survey. She found that on average, the post-60s left their jobs after 10.82 years, the post-70s after 5.02 years, and the post-80s after 1.94 years. Besides, she also found that the turnover rate of the highly educated millennials was lower than that of the less-educated millennials, that the turnover rate of those engaged in leadership positions was lower than that of general employees, and that higher job satisfaction was negatively associated with the turnover rate of employees. The turnover of millennials occurred mainly in three stages, namely half a month, three months and two years after

entering the workforce, and the reasons for leaving mainly included inability to adapt to the work environment, obvious emotional characteristics and egoism.

2.5.4.2 Existing studies on the reasons for turnover of millennials

N. Ma (2021) argues that the factors leading to the turnover of millennials mainly include internal and external factors. Specifically, internal factors include difficulty in realising self-worth, mismatch between corporate culture and their own values, and difficulty in having their own needs met; external factors include insufficiently perceived organizational justice within the organization, outdated management style, non-fulfilment of organizational promises and disproportion between efforts and rewards. From the perspective of enterprises, Ge (2019) holds that poor integration of pay with employee performance, lack of a sound corporate culture and low satisfaction with welfare benefits are the reasons leading to the turnover of millennials. L. W. Yang (2021) believes that the main reasons for the turnover of millennials include changes in their upbringing, influences from the family atmosphere, rigidity of interpersonal relationships caused by the difference in employee values, incompatibility between the management model and the characteristics of millennials, as well as the more employment options provided to millennials by the relaxed and favourable employment environment. In addition, there are some other studies showing that job resources (Y. B. Li & Cai, 2021), organizational political climate (Tao & Feng, 2020) and job satisfaction (H. Liu, 2019) are significantly related to the turnover of millennials.

2.5.4.3 Existing studies on the countermeasures to the turnover of millennials

J. Zhang et al. (2015) analysed the loyalty of the post-90s employees in the manufacturing industry in Changzhou City and made the following recommendations: creating a people-oriented corporate culture; making good human resource planning; formulating a reasonable and long-term supply and demand plan; attaching importance to the promotion of corporate culture when recruiting new employees; formulating a career plan for employees that suits their development; and improving the salary system. H. L. Xiao (2021) found through research that personal-organizational value fit can actively mobilize the initiative of millennials. The higher degree of person-organization value fit, the more employees can feel a sense of belonging to the enterprise, which in turn mobilizes their initiative and subsequently reduces turnover rate. J. H. He and Han (2021) conducted an empirical study based on a questionnaire survey with a sample of 218 participants and found that enhancing leadership behaviour and improving organizational culture can effectively motivate

millennials' enthusiasm for work and significantly enhance their sense of identification with the organization, thus reducing their turnover rate. J. Yang (2008) constructed a model of motivational factors for millennials through interviews and survey questionnaires. He believes that regulating work tasks, helping millennials' personal development, and building a harmonious and comfortable working atmosphere are conducive to motivating millennials and reducing their turnover rate. J. B. Li (2021) made a comparative analysis of the two types of millennials, namely the strong type and the sticky type, and constructed a model of motivation for millennials. The study showed that for employees of the strong type, adopting a reasonable salary model, increasing employees' participation in the management of the organization, and providing promotion channels for employees can help create positive sources of motivation and reduce the turnover rate; in comparison, for employees of the sticky type, strengthening and enriching the training for employees, building a corporate culture that matches the values of millennials, and helping millennials plan their careers reasonably can form positive sources of motivation to reduce their turnover rate. As the overall quality and value preferences of millennials recruited by different enterprises are not the same, the ways to reduce turnover rate also differ. To form targeted measures, it is necessary to explore and study millennials in a specific scenario to form the most suitable and effective motivation model.

2.5.5 Existing studies on the turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

As of September 5, 2021, a search on CNKI using "manufacturing industry", "millennials" and "turnover intention" as keywords had shown a total of 31 research results related to millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, including three papers published in academic journals and 28 dissertations. In other words, not many studies are focused on the specific industry of manufacturing, and there are limited studies on millennials in the specific industry of manufacturing. After sorting the literature, the existing research results mainly focus on the turnover of millennials, the influence of leadership style on millennials, the organizational identification and self-identification of millennials and the factors influencing the job performance of millennials.

W. C. Ma et al. (2021) studied the relationship between career growth and employee turnover in the manufacturing industry based on a random sample of workers in a manufacturing enterprise

in Guangzhou. A total of 33 manufacturing enterprises were sampled and 1,000 questionnaires were distributed. The results showed that career growth of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry can reduce employees' turnover rate. In the context of the high turnover rate of millennials, T. R. Li (2020) conducted a case study of Enterprise N with questionnaire survey method and case interview method to explore the causes and influencing factors of turnover of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. The research results show that the factors leading to the turnover of millennials include poor salary, an unsound social security system, lack of corporate benefits and unsmooth promotion channels for employees. Based on the study, she put forward relevant suggestions and recommendations for reducing turnover rate. In response to the current undersupply of employees in China's manufacturing industry, C. Q. Du (2020) studied the influence of manufacturing workers' occupational identification on their turnover intention by way of distributing questionnaires among employees in front-line manufacturing enterprises nationwide. A total of 420 valid questionnaires were recovered for analysis. The results showed that (1) the occupational identification of employees in the manufacturing industry is negatively related to their turnover intention; (2) occupational well-being is negatively related to turnover intention; and (3) the corporate culture in line with employees is negatively associated with turnover intention.

In response to the frequent job-hopping among young employees in the manufacturing industry in recent years, Y. Y. Chen (2020) analysed the reasons affecting the turnover of young employees in the manufacturing industry and drew the following conclusions: (1) The ages of young employees in the manufacturing industry affect their turnover rate; the younger the age, the higher the turnover intention; (2) the income of young employees in the manufacturing industry is negatively related to their turnover rate; (3) the skill level of young employees in the manufacturing industry is negatively associated with their turnover rate; (4) the physical health of young employees in the manufacturing industry has a significant effect on their turnover rate; and (5) the nature of the employer has a significant impact on the turnover rate of young employees in the manufacturing industry. Ge (2018) conducted a study on the turnover of millennials in steel enterprises with XC Steel Company as a case. The PEST model was used to analyse the external environment of XC Steel Company, and questionnaires were distributed to understand the reasons for the turnover of employees in XC Company. The study concluded that the factors of salary, working environment, career development and management model are the reasons for the turnover of millennials in XC Company. On this basis, strategies are put forward accordingly to address the

high turnover rate of millennials, such as improving the salary of millennials, creating a comfortable working environment, smoothening and expanding career promotion channels for millennials, and adjusting the management model of the company. Kou (2017) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention of millennials based on a questionnaire survey among employees in the automotive industry. She adopted SPSS software to analyse the collected data. The results of the study showed that job satisfaction is significantly related to personality traits and turnover intention. Besides, job satisfaction and personality traits can predict turnover intention, and personality traits mediate and moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention.

2.5.6 Summary of existing studies on the turnover intention of millennials

It can be seen from the above-mentioned existing studies that internal factors such as the internal system, salary system, organizational culture, leadership style, management level, development capacity and promotion channels of the organization all affect employees' job satisfaction, which will subsequently affect employees' turnover intention; from the perspective of individual employees, the assessment of employees' own abilities, whether they identify with the organization's culture, whether they are satisfied with their jobs, the degree of their recognition of the organization's atmosphere, the breadth and depth of their participation in the organization's activities, whether they have opportunities to participate in training and whether the promotion channels are smooth will all affect their recognition of the organization, which will subsequently affect their turnover intention; from the perspective of the match between the characteristics of the organization and the characteristics of employees, employees tend to experience high levels of satisfaction and subsequently have a low turnover rate if their personal styles and characteristics are consistent with the style and characteristics of the organization; and from the perspective of the external environment of the organization, the employment environment, the temptation of higher salaries from other organizations and the labour market demand will all stimulate employees to leave in order to obtain greater benefits and achieve greater development. However, despite the diverse perspectives, the following limitations are identified regarding the studies on the turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry:

The scope of research is relatively limited. Most of the existing studies mainly focus on the reasons for the turnover of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, the

countermeasures to turnover, as well as the motivation for and cultivation of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Due to the large scope and scattered focuses, the existing research is not very systematic. Besides, different scholars have integrated their own characteristics and research expertise in their studies, leading to significant differences in the research conclusions on the same facts, and no research conclusions with overall relevance, universal applicability and wide acceptance have been drawn yet.

There are limited studies targeted at a specific sector. Seen from the existing literature, studies on millennials tend to be general and targeted at groups, and there are limited studies on a targeted sector. As millennials are engaged in a wide variety of occupations and different industries have different industry rules and systems, the characteristics and differences millennials exhibit in different industries are also very different. Although this kind of general research can play a guiding role for relevant industries to some extent, it does not focus on the characteristics of specific industries. As a result, the research results are not entirely relevant and their practical application in specific industries is not ideal.

2.6 Research hypotheses

2.6.1 Relationship between work values and occupational well-being

Super (1970) argues that work values are reflected in individuals' intrinsic needs for work to satisfy their own needs in the pursuit of work-related goals. Millennials are more focused on their own feelings and inner experience than their older generation counterparts. Compared to all other employees, the post-80s knowledge employees are more interested in realising their values through their work, and the realisation of work values plays a significant role in enhancing their occupational well-being (Song, 2011). J. Chen (2012) found through research from the perspective of intergeneration theory that the work values dimension is significantly related to well-being and mental health symptoms among three generations of employees, but there are differences among the three generations. Gao (2011) found from the perspective of hierarchy of needs theory and self-worth theory of motivation that there is a significant positive association between the work values and subjective well-being of teachers in special education primary schools, and that all dimensions of work values have a positive predictive effect on all dimensions of subjective well-being. Zheng and Han (2014) studied the influence of work values on the occupational well-being of the post-

80s nurses based on the hierarchy of needs theory. The results indicated a positive association between work values and occupational well-being.

Based on needs-based theories of motivation and intergenerational theory and considering the characteristics of millennials and those of China's manufacturing industry, millennials want their work to be recognised by others and their self-worth to be reflected from the perspectives of millennials' work values theory and need satisfaction. The more they want to promote their self-growth and realise their self-worth through their work, the more they will devote themselves to their work once their sense of self-fulfilment and satisfaction is positively echoed, from which they will obtain a higher level of occupational well-being. Through the above analysis, this thesis proposes the following research hypothesis:

H1: Work values are positively related to occupational well-being.

2.6.2 Relationships between occupational-wellbeing, organizational identification and turnover intention

It can be seen from the existing literature that there is a significantly negative relationship between occupational well-being and turnover intention. C. W. Huang (2020) conducted a study using the employees of Enterprise H as sample and found a negative relationship between occupational well-being and turnover intention. Besides, higher levels of occupational well-being of organization members can more effectively reduce their turnover rate. Y. Yang and Zhang (2020) found through their study that occupational well-being has a strong predictive effect on turnover intention. G. J. Yang (2018) conducted a survey among 674 enterprise employees on the relationships among job stress, occupational well-being, organizational commitment and turnover intention and found that occupational well-being is similarly negatively related to turnover intention. In summary, scholars generally agree that there is a negative relationship between occupational well-being and turnover intention.

Most millennial employees in the manufacturing industry consider the work environment poor, the work content boring and the payment inadequate. These factors seriously affect their well-being and are direct causes of their high turnover rate. Therefore, enhancing the occupational well-being of millennials has a significant moderating effect on their turnover intention. The intrinsic logic is that occupational well-being is essentially a feeling about work experienced by millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. The greater their occupational well-being, the greater the

consistency between the working conditions provided by the organization and their actual needs, and the stronger response to the psychological contract between themselves and the organization, thus stimulating their sense of belonging to the organization and reducing their turnover rate.

Occupational well-being, as employees' psychological perception, can stimulate employees to develop a sense of satisfaction with their jobs (Moore & Hofman, 1988). Van Dick et al. (2004) found that enhancing occupational well-being has a significant role in enhancing organizational identification and job satisfaction. H. Han (2020) used male nurses in Inner Mongolia as sample and identified a positive association between the occupational well-being and professional identification of male nurses in Inner Mongolia. J. L. Huang (2020) studied the influence of organizational justice on occupational well-being using the questionnaire survey method and introduced organizational identification as a variable. The study shows that organizational identification significantly and positively influences occupational well-being.

Zou et al. (2015) consider occupational well-being as the sense of satisfaction and sense of achievement experienced by employees in an organization after they have made positive efforts to complete their work tasks. Wu (2011) regards occupational well-being as the satisfaction and pleasure that individuals experience in the process of acquiring life materials through work and achieving self-worth through work. From the perspectives of the needs-based theories of motivation, subjective well-being, sense of satisfaction and sense of achievement in the occupational well-being theory, and needs satisfaction in work values, this thesis argues that the stronger the sense of occupational well-being of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, the more they will cherish the sense of belonging and sense of honour brought by the organization and the more likely they will maintain a happy and joyful mood in the work process, and this feeling will further act on their positive evaluation of the organisation and the work by themselves, thus further stimulating occupational well-being and enhancing their organizational identification. The lack of response to the sense of satisfaction and sense of achievement in occupational well-being also directly affects their evaluation of the organization and leads to turnover intention.

Based on the above analysis, this thesis puts forward the following research hypotheses:

H2: Occupational well-being is positively related to organizational identification.

H3: Occupational well-being is negatively related to turnover intention.

2.6.3 The relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention

Organizational identification, which reflects the relationship between employees and the organization, is a subjective evaluation of employees' own behavioural attitudes and values as well as those of the organization. Organizational identification has been formed when the two are in alignment. The findings of most existing studies support that organizational identification has a predictive effect on turnover intention, and the two are negatively associated. Bamber and Iyer (2002) found in their study that organizational identification of the members of an organization helps significantly reduce employees' turnover intention. Q. Y. Wang (2020) conducted a questionnaire survey among employees in state-owned enterprises and non-public enterprises and concluded that organizational identification can significantly reduce the turnover rate of employees. Xing et al. (2019) analysed the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention among contract staff outside the establishment of a public hospital using 304 contracted medical professionals in a public hospital as sample. The results indicated a negative relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention. D. W. Xu (2019) studied the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention of social workers and concluded that there is a negative relationship between the two.

In summary, scholars generally believe that organizational identification is negatively related to turnover intention. Although millennials differ from their predecessors in terms of behavioural characteristics, value orientation, personality traits and views, cultural background and living environment, the general conclusion of existing studies on the organizational identification of millennials supports a negative association between their organizational identification and turnover intention. Y. Zhang (2020) analysed the relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention with post-90s millennials as sample and concluded that the organizational identification of millennials would negatively affect their turnover intention. Organizational identification theory reveals the internal mechanism between individuals and organizations, effectively explaining individual behaviour and organizational characteristics. According to organizational identification theory and the needs-based theories of motivation and from the perspectives of the work values and self-development needs of millennials, organizational identification can enhance the satisfaction of their self-development needs in organizational development, increase their work initiative, strengthen their sense of belonging and sense of mission, and motivate them to actively take up their work responsibilities, thus reducing the

turnover rate. This thesis believes in a negative relationship between the organizational identification and turnover intention among millennials, and therefore proposes the following research hypothesis.

H4: Organizational identification is negatively related to turnover intention.

2.6.4 The mediating roles of occupation well-being and organizational identification in the relationship between work values and turnover intention

Work values, which are the reflection of employees' life values in the workplace, mirror the relationship between employees' psychological characteristics and preferences and organizational psychological characteristics and preferences, the relationship between employees' needs and satisfaction, and an individual's perception of the value and significance of a particular occupation (Lou, 1990; Robbins, 1998; Schwartz, 1999; Super, 1970). Work values have an impact on employees' job satisfaction and turnover rate (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Macky et al., 2008; Ng & Parry, 2016), particularly so for millennials. The study by L. Zhang and Lian (2017) suggested that millennials are generally self-centred and choose their jobs based more on their own interests and whether the job can bring them a sense of fulfilment.

Occupational well-being reflects employees' satisfaction with their jobs (Li, 2009; Wen, 2006), and individuals' occupational well-being acts on their thoughts about whether to quit their jobs (S. M. Chen & Zhang, 2013; Y. Han & Liu, 2009; Liang et al., 2020). Many scholars have used occupational well-being as a mediator to study employees' turnover behaviour. For example, Liang et al. (2020) chose post-90s coal miners as their sample and found that occupational well-being partially mediates the positive influence of relative deprivation on turnover intention. Cheng and Lin (2017) found that occupational well-being partially mediates the negative predictive effect of organizational support consistency on employee turnover behaviour.

Cheney (1983) argues that organizational identification can enhance employees' work initiative and strengthen their performance; Dukerich et al. (2002) argue that the stronger the organizational identification, the more emotionally as well as psychologically aligned employees are with the organization, and the more cohesive they are, thus making the organization more united and solid and achieving the goal of healthy development. H. Han (2020) used male nurses in Inner Mongolia as sample and found that the occupational well-being of male nurses in Inner Mongolia is positively associated with their professional identification.

The occupational well-being of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry has a significant effect on reducing their turnover rate. Occupational well-being can enhance employees' sense of belonging to the organization and their sense of identification with the organization, which causes them to form a sense of dependence on the organization in their minds. L. Chen (2012) took the millennials in some enterprises in Beijing as sample and found that compared with other groups of employees, millennials are more interested in playing a role in the organization and realising their self-worth, and the higher the degree of their self-worth realisation, the stronger their occupational well-being. Richter et al. (2006) contend that employees' professional identification affects their self-esteem and sense of belonging. Employees' sense of belonging reinforces their self-perception as members of the organization; employees' self-esteem is satisfied by having a sense of belonging; and employees' well-being is enhanced and turnover reduced based on the perception as members of the organization.

Based on the above review and analysis, millennials' pursuit of self-worth realisation, the needs-based theories of motivation, the perspectives of satisfaction and achievement in occupational well-being and the viewpoint of self-worth realisation in organizational identification theory, this thesis predicts that occupational well-being and organizational identification have an impact on work values and turnover intention, and therefore proposes the following research hypotheses.

H5: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention.

H6: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.

H7: Work values negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification.

In summary, the set of hypotheses of this thesis is shown in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 The set of hypotheses of this thesis

Set of hypotheses
H1: Work values are positively related to occupational well-being.
H2: Occupational well-being is positively related to organizational identification.
H3: Occupational well-being is negatively related to turnover intention.
H4: Organizational identification is negatively related to turnover intention.
H5: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention.
H6: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.

H7: Work values negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (1) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification.

In view of this, this thesis explores the mechanism of the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. A theoretical model of the relationship between work values and turnover intention is proposed for millennial employees in the manufacturing industry (Figure 2.1).

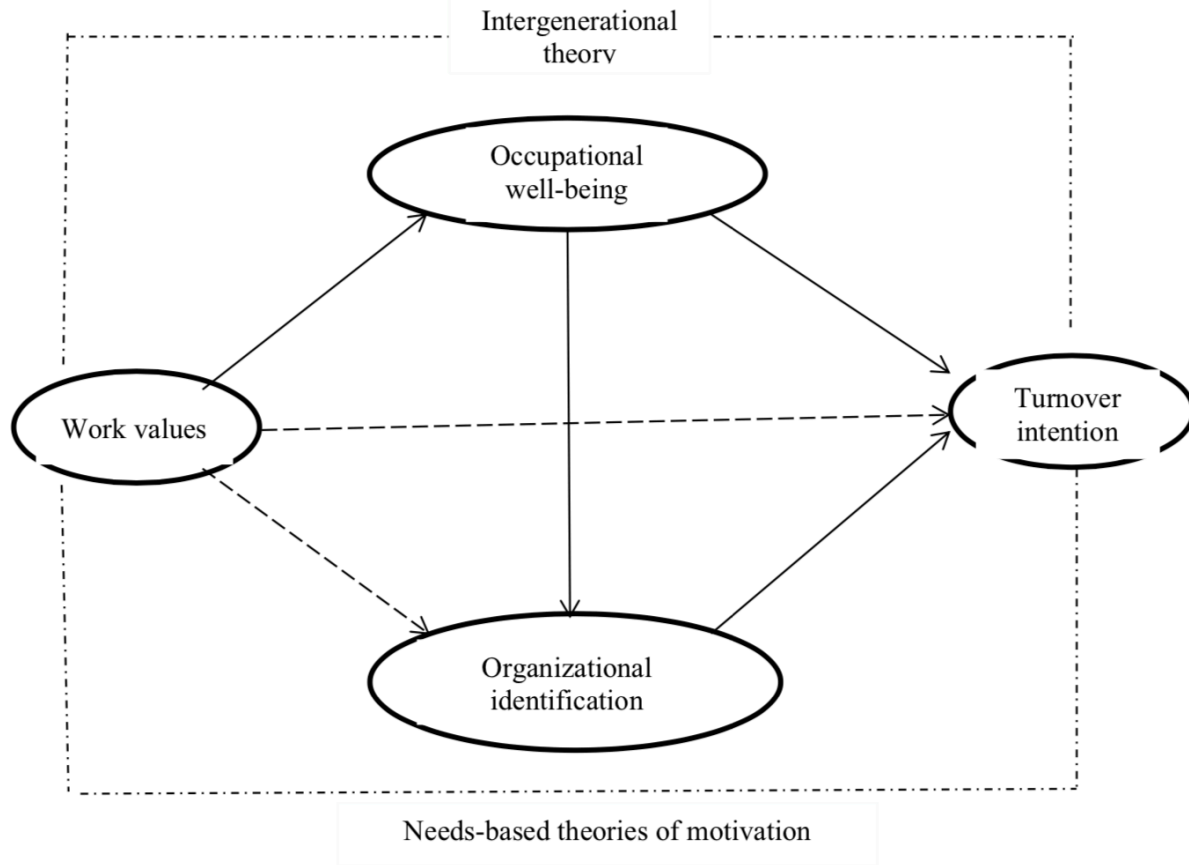


Figure 2.1 Research model of this thesis

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter systematically reviews existing literature on millennials as well as definitions and characteristics of millennial employees, the definition, dimensions and influencing factors of work values, the definition, measurement and influencing factors of occupational well-being, the definition, measurement, antecedents and outcome variables of organizational identification, the definition, models and influencing factors of turnover intention, as well as the characteristics of the turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. On this basis, the

research hypotheses are put forward, and the research model is initially constructed, providing a theoretical basis and direction for the subsequent research.

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Chapter 3: Research Methods

This chapter introduces the scales used for measuring the variables, the data collection process and data processing methods.

3.1 Questionnaire design

In the instruction part of the questionnaire, the purpose of the study was introduced to the respondents so that they could understand the significance of the study. It was also written in beginning of the questionnaire that the collected data would be kept confidential. Besides, an expression of gratitude was conveyed. All these contents could help to dispel the respondents' doubts and ensure that the most accurate information could be obtained.

The questionnaire design of this thesis is based on the following procedures:

First, this thesis included the four variables, namely organizational identification, occupational well-being, work values and turnover intention, in the same survey questionnaire. Considering employees' actual psychological state, the variables were arranged in the sequence of work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention.

Second, to ensure the clarity and conciseness of the questionnaire, the author invited a few representative millennials to read the questionnaire carefully. The purpose was to identify and optimize the unreasonable, ambiguous or unclear expressions to ensure the face validity of the questionnaire.

Finally, a 5-point Likert scale was used to collect respondents' views, with "1" indicating "totally disagree", "2" "disagree", "3" "neither disagree nor agree", "4" "agree", and "5" "totally agree".

3.2 Survey procedure

After designing the questionnaire, the author contacted five manufacturing enterprises in Shanghai City and Zhejiang Province, China to participate in the study. The head of the HSE department of each enterprise was entrusted to distribute the printed questionnaires to millennial employees. It was explained that the questionnaire was for academic purpose by government departments to

understand the work conditions of employees in the manufacturing sector and to facilitate the formulation of corresponding policies for reference in the future, and that the questionnaire would be filled out anonymously. Besides, after completion, each respondent would be given a box of tissues as reward. Respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire in a truthful manner. Because the department is predominantly responsible for communicating with the government and implementing government regulations and daily operations, clarification of academic purpose could help minimize psychological resistance from employees. A centralized collection box was used for collecting the completed questionnaires.

WS, YH, KP, HJ and HY companies participated in the questionnaire survey. WS Company, located in Shanghai, China, was a high-tech electronic display material manufacturing company with an annual turnover of 400 million yuan and about 260 employees, 60% of whom were millennials. YH, located in the central region of Zhejiang Province, China, was mainly engaged in the production of refrigerants and refrigeration equipment. It was a listed company in China, with an annual turnover of about three billion yuan and more than 400 employees. KP, located in the west region of Zhejiang Province, China, was a high-tech company producing automotive power battery materials, with an annual turnover of about 500 million yuan and more than 250 employees, of whom about half were millennials. HJ, also located in the west region of Zhejiang Province, China, was a fine chemicals company producing pharmaceutical intermediates with an annual turnover of about 200 million yuan and over 140 employees, of whom around 1/3 were millennials. HY was a listed group company specialized in the research and development, production and sales of lithium new energy materials with an annual turnover of more than 15 billion yuan. A manufacturing factory of HY was selected for the questionnaire survey of the present study. The factory employed more than 800 employees, half of whom were millennials.

To ensure the diversity and representativeness of the sample data, five companies with different industry backgrounds, enterprise scales and leading technology levels were selected for the questionnaire survey. As shown in Table 3.1 below, the sample enterprises included the large group company HY, high-tech companies WS and KP at the forefront of the industry, and traditional manufacturing company YH. A total of 800 questionnaires were distributed in the five companies, and 746 of them were recovered, representing a recovery rate of around 93.2%. After eliminating the questionnaires with such problems as modifications, multiple choices, omissions and alterations, a total of 635 valid questionnaires were retained, representing a valid recovery rate of around 79.4%.

Table 3.1 Table of questionnaire survey statistics

Sample enterprise	Number of distributed questionnaires	Number of recovered questionnaires	Number of invalid questionnaires	Number of valid questionnaires
WS	182	167	13	154
YH	30	11	0	11
KP	120	116	5	111
HY	400	398	82	316
HJ	58	54	11	43
Total	800	746	111	635

3.3 Data analysis methods

The present thesis mainly adopts SEM to test the relationships between work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention as well as the mediating roles of occupational well-being and organizational identification in the relationship between work values and turnover intention. The main data analysis methods used include descriptive statistics, variance analysis, correlation analysis and SEM.

1. Descriptive statistics: descriptive statistics are the most used analysis method for analysing the basic situation of the sample. It was used in this thesis to understand the composition of the sample, including the age structure, marital status, length of service, gender characteristics, level of education and monthly income.

Independent samples t-test and the one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA): independent samples t-test was used to describe the differences in each variable among millennial employees by gender. One-way ANOVA was used to analyse whether the differences of each variable by demographic characteristics were significant.

Correlation analysis: correlation analysis is a data analysis method to analyse whether two or more variables are correlated with each other. The strength of correlation is generally expressed in terms of the correlation coefficient, the value of which generally ranges from -1 to 1. The closer to 0 the absolute value of the correlation coefficient, the weaker the correlation; the closer to 1 the value of the correlation coefficient, the stronger the correlation. This thesis uses correlation analysis to analyse the correlations among work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention.

Structural equation modelling (SEM): SEM is a multivariate statistical method that consists of two parts, a measurement model of the variables and a structural model of the hypothetical

dependencies among the variables. The accuracy of the model predictions is greatly improved. The advantages of SEM lie in its consideration of the measurement error of the variables, adoption of multi-level presentation of the variables and analysis of the interactions among multiple variables, which greatly improve model prediction accuracy. In this thesis, AMOS 24.0 was used to construct a structural equation model to analyse the fit indices and compare for the model with the best GoF. The smaller the CMIN/DF value, the better the model fit provided that the CFI value must be no smaller than 0.9.

3.4 Measurement tools and their reliability and validity

The variables of the present study include work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention. To reflect the characteristics of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, the author adopted the existing mature scales of work values, occupational well-being and turnover intention to measure the three variables and developed a scale consisting of items in line with the characteristics of the manufacturing industry and millennial employees based on literature review and in-depth interviews to measure the organizational identification of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry.

3.4.1 Reliability and validity analyses of the Work Values Scale

Work values reflect individuals' values at work and are the perceptions of individuals' preferences for particular jobs based on the mapping of needs and values. There are various approaches to the measurement of work values. Some scholars classify work values into two dimensions (Herzberg et al., 1959; Jin & Li, 2005; M. F. Miller, 1974; Rokeach, 1973; T. X. Wu et al., 1995); some into three dimensions (Elizur, 1984; W. Q. Ling et al., 1999; Super, 1970); some into four dimensions (Ros et al., 1999; Schwartz, 1999; L. Wang et al., 2003); some into five dimensions (Kalleberg, 1977; Ning, 1996); and some into multiple dimensions (T. X. Wu et al., 1995; H. Zhao, 2005). Based on a review of the aforementioned literature and the characteristics of the sample, the author chose the Work Values Scale developed by Hou et al. (2014). The scale based on the characteristics of millennial employees in China consists of five dimensions, namely utilitarian orientation, intrinsic-factors preference, interpersonal harmony, innovative orientation and long-term development. The scale well reflects the achievement orientation, self-orientation, dislike of rules

and regulations, as well as preference for working with freedom, comfort and autonomy. See Table 3.2 below for details.

Table 3.2 Work Values Scale

Dimension	Item content
Utilitarian orientation	My job should provide me with a good salary package. My job salary should continuously increase. I pursue maximization of my own interests at work. I should get equivalent payoff for hard work.
Intrinsic-factors preference	My job should be in alignment with my interests. My job should be valuable and important. My job should be interesting. My job should allow for flexible working hours.
Interpersonal harmony	The work atmosphere should be harmonious. The leaders and superiors should be approachable. Co-workers should respect each other. The team should have good interpersonal relationships.
Innovative orientation	The work philosophy should be innovative. I like engaging in challenging work. The work I am engaged in is not routinized but requires thinking and innovation. I like engaging in innovative work.
Long-term development	My job should allow for good room for development. My job should have good development prospects. My job should promise a good career development plan. The employer should provide us with a sound promotion mechanism.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the Work Values Scale confirmed a clear five-factor structure with high GoF (CMIN/DF = 4.13; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.07; SRMR = 0.03; IFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.92; RFI = 0.90).

The average variance extracted (AVE) value of the scale was 0.70, which was greater than 0.5. Besides, the AVEs of all the dimensions of the scale were all greater than 0.5, indicating good convergent validity of the scale. The Cronbach's α of each dimension was between 0.77 and 0.90, all greater than 0.7, indicating good reliability.

3.4.2 Reliability and validity analyses of the Occupational Well-being Scale

Based on the sample, this thesis defines occupational well-being as the degree to which employees in an organization are satisfied with their work as well as the positive and happy emotions they experience as a result. There are various views on the dimensions of occupational well-being. Some scholars classify it into two dimensions (Schaufeli et al., 2002); some into three dimensions (Feldt et al., 2013; Grant et al., 2007; Van Horn et al., 2004); some into five dimensions (Warr, 1990; Wen, 2006; Q. Wu, 2011); and some other scholars classify it into six dimensions (Ryff & Keyes,

1995). The above classifications of dimensions reflect the views of different scholars, which are objective differences resulting from different samples and perspectives. Despite the diversity of dimensions, the academia generally recognizes and widely uses the three-dimensional occupational well-being scale developed by Van Horn et al. (2004), which was also used by Luo (2011) and Q. W. Yang (2016), indicating that the scale has good reliability and validity. Therefore, the present study also draws on this scale, which divides occupational well-being into three dimensions. See Table 3.3 below for details.

Table 3.3 Occupational Well-being Scale

Dimension	Item content
Professional well-being	I can grow and develop in my work.
	My abilities are fully developed and demonstrated in my work.
	My job has bright development prospects.
Affective well-being	My present job meets the needs of my interests.
	My job is uplifting and challenging.
Social well-being	I am able to recognize my past performance in my work and continue to work hard.
	I receive coordination and assistance from my co-workers at work.
	My work is understood and supported by my family.
	I have very good relationships with my co-workers.
	I can adapt well to my present work environment.
	I am good at seizing opportunities and creating a favourable work environment.

CFA of the Occupational Well-being Scale confirmed a clear three-factor structure with high GoF (CMIN/DF = 2.03; CFI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.04; SRMR = 0.01; IFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.99; RFI = 0.98).

The AVE value of the scale was 0.74, which was greater than 0.5. Besides, the AVEs of all the dimensions of the scale were all greater than 0.5, indicating good convergent validity of the scale. The Cronbach's α of the Occupational Well-being Scale was 0.94, and the Cronbach's α value of each dimension ranged from 0.82 to 0.91, all greater than 0.7, indicating good reliability.

3.4.3 Reliability and validity analyses of the organizational identification scale for millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

There are three main perspectives on the measurement of organizational identification abroad: (1) one-dimensional, represented by the single-dimensional scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992), which considers organizational identification to be a perception of organizational members based on their own identity. The scale, formed by six items, is the most widely used scale in academia; (2) three-dimensional, of which the three-dimensional organizational identification scale formed by 25 items developed by Cheney (1983) is the most representative; and (3) four-

dimensional, represented by the four-dimensional organizational identification scale formed by 28 items developed by Van Dick et al. (2004).

In Chinese academia, Y. B. Wang (2004) developed an organizational identification measurement scale formed by three dimensions of survival, belonging and success and measured by 13 items; J. M. Sun and Jiang (2009) developed a nine-dimensional scale; and H. Wang (2008) developed a four-dimensional scale consisting of 19 items.

The scale developed by J. M. Sun and Jiang (2009) is based on a study in the Chinese context and is able to reflect the differences between Chinese and Western cultures. This thesis selected the items in the organizational identification scale that match the characteristics of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Then subject matter experts' judgement was used based on the description method of Schriesheim et al. (1993) to assess the 15 items in the selected content (see Table 3.4 below).

Table 3.4 Organizational Identification Scale for millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

Item content
1 My organization is characterized by interpersonal harmony.
2 My organization has a good social reputation and social image.
3 I identify with the culture and values of my organization.
4 My organization has a good work atmosphere.
5 The work I am currently engaged in is very helpful for enhancing my personal abilities and qualities.
6 Promotion channels in my organization are smooth.
7 My organization's benefits and salary levels are satisfactory to me.
8 My organization is able to plan and start a career for me.
9 The work I am engaged in is interesting and challenging.
10 My organization's success is also my own success.
11 I feel happy when my organization is successful, and I feel worried when my organization is in trouble.
12 I feel insulted when someone criticizes my organization.
13 My superior often cares about my work and gives me guidance and help at work.
14 I am grateful for my superior because he/she has taught me many things.
15 Leaders of my organization often care about my life and can facilitate my life.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was initially conducted on the Organizational Identification Scale. Principal component analysis (PCA) was adopted, and the maximum variance rotation method was selected for factor rotation. The results of the KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the scale was suitable for factor analysis (KMO value = 0.959 > 0.9, Bartlett's $X^2 = 8697.159$, $p = .000 < .05$). Reliability analysis and EFA of the organizational

identification variable were conducted using SPSS software. The Cronbach's α of the scale turned out to be 0.96, which was greater than 0.7, indicating that the organizational identification variable had good reliability. Besides, the AVE value of the scale was 0.63, which was greater than 0.5, indicating that the convergent validity of the scale was good.

3.4.4 Reliability and validity analyses of the Turnover Intention Scale

Turnover intention is the idea of an employee in an organization to want to leave the organization due to his/her dissatisfaction with his/her job. Turnover intention emphasises an employee's state of mind within the organization and is a change in the employee's mind rather than a practice. If the employee chooses to implement this intention, then turnover will become a fact, whereas if the employee does not implement this intention, the employee will continue to work in the organization. Some scholars have measured turnover intention using a single item (Cheng et al., 2015) whereas others have measured it using multiple items (Aryee et al., 2002). The scale developed by Mobley et al. (1978) has gained widespread recognition in China. So, this thesis directly draws on it. See Table 3.5 below for details.

Table 3.5 Turnover Intention Scale

Item content
1 I often think about quitting my present job.
2 I would probably look for a new job in the near future.
3 I have no plan for a long-term career in the company.

CFA of the Turnover Intention Scale confirmed a clear single-factor structure with high GoF (CMIN/DF = 2.13; CFI = 0.99; RMSEA = 0.04; SRMR = 0.00; IFI = 0.99; NFI = 0.99; RFI = 0.99). The AVE value of the scale was 0.74, which was greater than 0.5, indicating good convergent validity of the scale. The Cronbach's α of the Turnover Intention Scale was 0.97, which was greater than 0.7, indicating good reliability of the scale (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6 Reliability and validity analyses results of each variable

Variable	Dimension	CR	AVE
Work values	Utilitarian orientation	0.94	0.70
	Intrinsic-factors preference	0.77	0.57
	Interpersonal harmony	0.81	0.52
	Innovative orientation	0.85	0.57
	Long-term development	0.86	0.61
			0.90
Occupational well-being		0.94	0.74
	Professional well-being	0.88	0.70
	Affective well-being	0.80	0.58
	Social well-being	0.91	0.69

Organizational identification	0.96	0.63
Turnover intention	0.97	0.74

3.4.5 Measurement model

Based on the EFA analyses results, CFA of the measurement model was conducted using self-reported variables. The same method was used for the four-factor model as well as the three-factor and two-factor models. The summary of the four results is shown in Table 3.7 below, which shows that among the four types of factor analyses, the four-factor model, which had significantly better fit than the other models, was the best option. Besides, it also basically met the fit indices $CMIN/DF = 4.038$, $GFI = 0.867$, $AGFI = 0.839$, $CFI = 0.931 > 0.9$, $RMSEA = 0.033 < 0.074$. Therefore, the four-factor model was used for CFA.

Table 3.7 Fit indices of the confirmatory factor analyses (N=635)

Evaluation index	X^2/df	AGFI	GFI	RMSEA	NFI	IFI	CFI
Desired value	<3	>0.9	>0.9	<0.07	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9
Four-factor model ^a	4.038	0.839	0.867	0.033	0.911	0.931	0.931
Three-factor model ^b	6.577	0.731	0.775	0.039	0.853	0.872	0.872
Two-factor model ^c	8.937	0.635	0.693	0.045	0.799	0.817	0.817
Single-factor model ^d	13.716	0.522	0.595	0.32	0.69	0.706	0.705

Table 3.7 shows that: model^a used the original four factors, namely work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention; model^b combined occupational well-being and work values into one factor; model^c combined occupational well-being, organizational identification and work values into one factor; and model^d combined all variables into one factor.

The AVE values for each of the variables above confirmed that the convergent validity of each variable was satisfactory, that there was significant discriminant validity between the variables via self-reported confirmatory factors, and that the four-factor model was optimal. The data test results were consistent with the variable settings and allowed for subsequent inferential analyses.

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter designs the survey questionnaire formed by the scales of all the four variables, namely, work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention, based on needs-based theories of motivation, intergenerational theory, organizational identification theory, the characteristics of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and existing

research results. The validity and reliability of each scale are analysed, and the four-factor model is identified as the optimal measurement model, laying the foundation for the empirical research in subsequent chapters.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter reports the key research results, including demographic characteristics, results of variance analyses and correlation analysis and hypotheses testing.

4.1 Data analyses

4.1.1 Descriptive statistics

1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

In this thesis, descriptive statistics of the frequencies of the sample's demographic characteristics were conducted using SPSS 22, and the results are presented in Table 4.1. In terms of gender, the valid sample consisted of 416 male employees, accounting for 65.5%, and 219 female employees, accounting for 34.5%. Regarding age, there were 130 employees (20.5%) aged 18-25 years old; 142 employees (22.4%) aged 26-30 years old; 160 employees (25.2%) aged 31-35 years old; and 203 employees (32%) aged 36-41 years old. As to marital status, 396 employees were married, accounting for 62.4%; 223 employees were unmarried, taking up 35.1%; and 16 employees had other types of marital status, accounting for 2.5%. In terms of education level, 69 employees (10.85%) had received junior high school education or below; 256 employees had received senior high school or technical secondary school education (40.25%); 303 employees (47.64%) had received junior college or college education; and eight employees (1.26%) had received graduate education or above. Overall, the education level of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was much higher than that of non-millennial employees.

2. Job characteristics of the sample

This thesis collected four aspects of job characteristics of the sample, including job position, actual monthly working hours, monthly salary and length of service. In terms of job position, there were 440 grassroots employees (69.3%), 148 grassroots managers/technicians (23.3%), and 47 middle managers/technicians (7.4%); as to monthly working hours, most respondents (72.9%) worked more than the standard monthly working hours (174 hours) under the eight-hour system with five days of work a week set by the state; 346 employees (54.5%) worked between 174 and 240 hours per month; 117 employees (18.4%) worked more than 240 hours per month; and 172

employees (27.1%) worked no more than 174 hours per month. Regarding monthly salary, the average salary level of the manufacturing industry was 5,000-10,000 yuan. Twenty-eight employees (4.4%) earned less than 5,000 yuan per month; 541 employees (85.2%) earned 5,000-10,000 yuan per month; 60 employees (9.43%) earned 10,000-15,000 yuan per month; and six employees (0.94%) earned 15,000-20,000 yuan per month.

Table 4.1 Background information of the sample (N=635)

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	416	65.5
	Female	219	34.5
Age	18-25 years old	130	20.5
	26-30 years old	142	22.4
	31-35 years old	160	25.2
	36-41 years old	203	32.0
Marital status	Married	396	62.4
	Unmarried	223	35.1
	Other (such as divorced)	16	2.5
Education level	Junior high school education or below	69	10.9
	Senior high school or technical secondary school education	255	40.2
	Junior college or college education	303	47.64
	Graduate education or above	8	1.26
Length of service	1 year or less	205	32.3
	1-2 years	99	15.6
	2-5 years	137	21.6
	5-10 years	104	16.4
	Over 10 years	90	14.2
Job position	Grassroots employees	440	69.3
	Grassroots managers/technicians	148	23.3
	Middle managers/technicians	47	7.4
Monthly working hours	≤174h	172	27.1
	174h-240h	346	54.5
	240h or more	117	18.4
Monthly salary level	Less than 5,000 yuan	28	4.4
	5,000-10,000 yuan	541	85.2
	10,001 yuan or more	66	10.4

4.1.2 Independent samples-T test and one-way ANOVA by demographic characteristics

To compare the differences in means across research variables for millennial employees with different demographic characteristics and to make subsequent recommendations for management practices more relevant, this study used independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA to test the significance of differences in means by demographic characteristics and job characteristics.

1. Variance analysis of the variables by education level

According to the analysis results, there were significant differences in turnover intention ($F = 8.822, p = .000 < .05$) among groups with different education levels. As shown in Table 4.2 below, the turnover intention of the group with senior high school or technical secondary school education (mean = 2.138; SD = 0.864) was significantly higher than that of the group with junior high school education or below (mean = 2.032, SD = 0.899) and that of the group with graduate education or above (mean = 1.406; SD = 0.499).

There were no significant differences in organizational identification among groups with different education levels; there were no significant differences in work values among groups with different education levels; and groups with different education levels did not show significant differences in occupational well-being ($F = 2.526, p = .057 > .05$).

Table 4.2 Variance analyses of organizational identification and turnover intention by education level

Variable	(I) Education level	(J) Education level	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Organizational identification	Graduate education or above	Junior high school education or below	.18659	.26596	.483	-.3357	.7089
		Senior high school or technical secondary school education	.31982	.25567	.211	-.1822	.8219
		Junior college or college education	.03383	.25506	.895	-.4670	.5347
Turnover intention	Graduate education or above	Junior high school education or below	-.62636*	.31455	.047	-1.2441	-.0087
		Senior high school or technical secondary school education	-.73145*	.30238	.016	-1.3252	-.1377
		Junior college or college education	-.39243	.30167	.194	-.9848	.2000

2. Variance analysis of the variables by age group

There were significant differences in work values ($F = 11.777, p = .000 < .05$) among different age groups. The group aged 18-25 years old (Mean = 4.719; SD = 0.415) had significantly stronger work values than the group aged 31-35 years old (mean = 4.483, SD = 0.555) and the group aged 36-41 years old (mean = 4.406; SD = 0.537).

There were significant differences in organizational identification ($F = 6.928, p = .000 < .05$) among different age groups. The group aged 18-25 years old (mean = 4.397; SD = 0.759) had significantly higher levels of organizational identification than the group aged 31-35 years old (mean = 4.212, SD = 0.686) and the group aged 36-41 years old (mean = 4.046; SD = 0.722).

As shown in Table 4.3 below, there were significant differences in turnover intention ($F = 8.56$, $p = .000 < .05$) among different age groups. Specifically, older age groups showed higher levels of turnover intention. The group aged 36-41 years old (mean = 2.130 SD = 0.853) showed significantly higher turnover intention than the group aged 31-35 years old (mean = 2.022, SD = 0.873), the group aged 26-30 years old (mean = 1.894; SD = 0.790) and the group aged 18-25 years old (mean = 1.667; SD = 0.7843).

Different age groups did not show statistically significant differences in occupational well-being ($F = 0.856$, $p = .464 > .05$).

Table 4.3 Variance analyses of work values, organizational identification and turnover intention by age group

Variable	(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Work values	18-25 years old	26-30 years old	.10773	.06148	.080	-.0130	.2285
		31-35 years old	.23590*	.05980	.000	.1185	.3533
		36-41 years old	.31319*	.05684	.000	.2016	.4248
Organizational identification	18-25 years old	26-30 years old	.12599	.08658	.146	-.0440	.2960
		31-35 years old	.18462*	.08422	.029	.0192	.3500
		36-41 years old	.35116*	.08004	.000	.1940	.5083
Turnover intention	18-25 years old	26-30 years old	-.22706*	.10229	.027	-.4279	-.0262
		31-35 years old	-.35457*	.09951	.000	-.5500	-.1592
		36-41 years old	-.46259*	.09457	.000	-.6483	-.2769

3. Variance analysis of the variables by marital status

As shown in Table 4.4 below, there were significant differences in work values ($F = 9.082$, $p = .000 < .05$), organizational identification ($F = 8.427$, $p = .000 < .05$) and turnover intention ($F = 10.722$, $p = .000 < .05$) among groups with different types of marital status. The unmarried group (mean = 4.644; SD = 0.471) showed significantly stronger work values than the married group (mean = 4.485, SD = 0.521). The unmarried group (mean = 4.341; SD = 0.720) showed significantly higher levels of organizational identification than the married group (mean = 4.155, SD = 0.698) and the group with other types of marital status (such as divorced) (mean = 3.734, SD

= 1.005). Turnover intention of the group with other types of marital status (such as divorced) (mean = 2.531, SD = 1.020) was significantly stronger than that of the married group (mean = 2.035, SD = 0.842) and that of the unmarried group (mean = 1.772; SD = 0.836).

There were no significant differences in occupational well-being ($F = 3.217, p = .041 < .05$) among different marital status groups.

Table 4.4 Variance analyses of variables by type of marital status

Dependent variable	(I) Marital status	(J) Marital status	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Work values	Married	Unmarried	-.15936*	.04291	.000	-.2436	-.0751
		Other (such as divorced)	.21405	.13074	.102	-.0427	.4708
Occupational well-being	Married	Unmarried	-.07970	.05376	.139	-.1853	.0259
		Other (such as divorced)	.30607	.16379	.062	-.0156	.6277
Organizational identification	Married	Unmarried	-.18527*	.05982	.002	-.3027	-.0678
		Other (such as divorced)	.42117*	.18228	.021	.0632	.7791
Turnover intention	Married	Unmarried	.26284*	.07070	.000	.1240	.4017
		Other (such as divorced)	-.49599*	.21541	.022	-.9190	-.0730

4. Variance analysis of the variables by length of service

There were significant differences in work values ($F = 11.859, p = .000 < .05$), occupational well-being ($F = 5.001, p = .01 < .05$), organizational identification ($F = 9.446, p = .000 < .05$) and turnover intention ($F = 12.343, p = .000 < .05$) among groups with different length of service. The group with no more than one year of service (mean = 4.683; SD = 0.416) showed significantly stronger work values than those with two to five years of service (mean = 4.471, SD = 0.534), over ten years of service (mean = 4.379, SD = 0.556) and five to ten years of service (mean = 4.353, SD = 0.538).

The group with over ten years of service (mean = 4.152; SD = 0.678) showed significantly higher levels of occupational well-being than the groups with five to ten years of service (mean = 4.236, SD = 0.589) and no more than one year of service (mean = 4.473, SD = 0.672).

The group with over ten years of service (mean = 3.993; SD = 0.762) showed significantly higher levels of organizational identification than the groups with five to ten years of service (mean = 4.020, SD = 0.710), two to five years of service (mean = 4.110, SD = 0.626) and no more than one year of service (mean = 4.402; SD = 0.735).

The group with five to ten years of service (mean = 2.281; SD = 0.880) showed significantly

higher levels of turnover intention than the groups with two to five years of service (mean = 2.125, SD = 0.827), above ten years of service (mean = 2.111, SD = 0.905) and no more than one year of service mean = 1.715; SD = 0.822). See Table 4.5 below for details.

Table 4.5 Variance analyses of variables by length of service

Variable	(I) Length of service in the present company	(J) Length of service in the present company	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Significance	95% Confidence interval	
						Lower	Upper
Work values	1 year or less	2 years	.03141	.06148	.610	-.0893	.1521
		2-5 years	.21191*	.05531	.000	.1033	.3205
		5-10 years	.32876*	.06047	.000	.2100	.4475
		Over 10 years	.30330*	.06352	.000	.1786	.4280
Occupational well-being	1 year or less	2 years	.09296	.07792	.233	-.0600	.2460
		2-5 years	.09670	.07010	.168	-.0410	.2344
		5-10 years	.23621*	.07664	.002	.0857	.3867
		Over 10 years	.32009*	.08050	.000	.1620	.4782
Organizational identification	1 year or less	2 years	.05648	.08624	.513	-.1129	.2258
		2-5 years	.29193*	.07759	.000	.1396	.4443
		5-10 years	.38201*	.08483	.000	.2154	.5486
		Over 10 years	.40938*	.08910	.000	.2344	.5844
Turnover intention	1 year or less	2 years	-.02021	.10140	.842	-.2193	.1789
		2-5 years	-.41037*	.09123	.000	-.5895	-.2312
		5-10 years	-.56662*	.09975	.000	-.7625	-.3707
		Over 10 years	-.39648*	.10477	.000	-.6022	-.1907

5. Variance analysis of variables by gender using independent samples-T test

As shown in Table 4.6 below, there were significant differences in occupational well-being ($T = -3.775, p = .00 < .05$), work values ($T = -4.016, p = .000 < .05$), organizational identification ($T = -3.794, p = .000 < .05$) and turnover intention ($T = 4.410, p = .000 < .05$) between different gender groups. Specifically, males (mean = 4.476; SD = 0.549) had lower levels of work values than females (mean = 4.648; SD = 0.437); males (mean = 4.284; SD = 0.671) experienced lower levels of occupational well-being than females (mean = 4.484; SD = 0.569); males demonstrated lower levels of organizational identification (mean = 4.132; SD = 0.732) compared to females (mean = 4.358; SD = 0.683); and males (mean = 2.063; SD = 0.894) showed higher levels of turnover intention than females (mean = 1.752; SD = 0.746).

Table 4.6 Variance analysis of variables by gender

		Levene's test		T test of the mean equation						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error	95% confidence interval for difference Lower Upper	
Work values	Assumption of equal variances	13.109	.000	-	634	.000	-.17177	.04278	-.25576	-.08777
	Assumption of unequal variances			-	538.941	.000	-.17177	.03991	-.25017	-.09336
Occupational well-being	Assumption of equal variances	17.797	.000	-	634	.000	-.20076	.05318	-.30520	-.09633
	Assumption of unequal variances			-	513.106	.000	-.20076	.05057	-.30010	-.10142
Organizational identification	Assumption of equal variances	2.959	.086	-	634	.000	-.22634	.05966	-.34349	-.10919
	Assumption of unequal variances			-	473.818	.000	-.22634	.05839	-.34108	-.11161
Turnover intention	Assumption of equal variances	12.636	.000	4.410	634	.000	.31083	.07048	.17243	.44923
	Assumption of unequal variances			4.661	519.813	.000	.31083	.06668	.17983	.44183

6. Variance analysis summary

Millennial employees in the manufacturing industry showed significant differences in work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention by such demographic characteristics as gender, type of marital status and length of service; significant differences were identified in all variables except occupational well-being among different age groups; and groups with different education levels showed significant differences ($p = .000 < .05$) in organizational identification and turnover intention. The results of the independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA for each variable are summarised in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7 Independent samples t-test and one-way ANOVA of different groups by demographic characteristics

	Gender	Age	Marital status	Length of service	Education level
Work values	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Occupational well-being	Yes			Yes	
Organizational identification	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Turnover intention	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

4.1.3 Correlation analysis

The means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of all the research variables involved in this study are shown in Table 4.8 below. The results of Pearson correlation analysis showed that the mean value of work values (\pm Std) was 4.535 ± 0.5139 ; that of occupational well-being was 4.353 ± 0.644 ; that of organizational identification was 4.209 ± 0.723 ; and that of turnover intention was 1.955 ± 0.857 . At the significance level of $p < 0.01$, work values were positively correlated with occupational well-being ($r = .559$) and organizational identification ($r = .537$); occupational well-being was positively correlated with organizational identification ($r = .781$); occupational well-being was negatively correlated with turnover intention ($r = -.548$); and organizational identification was negatively correlated with turnover intention ($r = -.612$).

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Table 4.8 The means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of all variables

Variable	Mean	S. D.	Gender	Age	Marital status	Length of service	Educational level	Monthly working hours	Monthly salary level	Work values	Occupational well-being	Organizational identification	Turnover intention
Gender			1										
Age			-.178**	1									
Marital status			.078*	-.546**	1								
Length of service			-.204**	.641**	-.436**	1							
Education level			.060	-.353**	.159**	-.164**	1						
Monthly working hours			-.190**	.360**	-.257**	.326**	-.317**	1					
Monthly salary level			-.114**	.070	-.094*	.149**	.188**	-.059	1				
Work values	4.535	0.519	.157**	-.228**	.089*	-.235**	.058	-.224**	.054	1			
Occupational well-being	4.353	0.644	.148**	-.053	.013	-.198**	.079*	-.205**	.009	.559**	1		
Organizational identification	4.209	0.723	.149**	-.175**	.056	-.269**	.138**	-.284**	-.017	.537**	.781**	1	
Turnover intention	1.955	0.857	-.173**	.195**	-.076	.234**	-.163**	.373**	-.119**	-.612**	-.548**	-.612**	1

Note: ** means $p < 0.01$; and * means $p < 0.05$.

4.2 Model testing

4.2.1 Initial model construction

This section introduces the structural equation model construction and model optimisation carried out based on the research hypotheses and data collected using software such as AMOS 24.0, SPSS 20.0 and Process 3.4 to ultimately determine the most appropriate research model.

The initial model was constructed using a stepwise comparison, with Model 1 based on the hypotheses testing in Chapter 2 and containing mainly the hypotheses on the influence relationships among all variables. Models 2 and 3 were based on Model 1 but highlighted other influential relationships among variables. Model 4 was a reverse model of Model 1, where work values was analysed as the dependent variable and turnover intention as the independent variable. Each of the four models is described as follows.

Model 1: The influence relationships among the variables are: work values influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being; work values influence turnover intention by first influencing organizational identification, which influences occupational well-being; work values influence turnover intention, and work values influence turnover intention by influencing organizational identification. The fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 984.25$, $df = 268$, $\chi^2/df = 3.673$, $GFI = 0.88$, $CFI = 0.94$, $TLI = 0.932$, and $RMSEA = 0.033$. All the other indices met or exceeded the judgment criteria except that GFI basically met the criteria. Therefore, the model can be considered to have overall sound goodness-of-fit. The relationships among the variables were significant, except for the relationship between work values and organizational identification ($p = .078 > .05$) and that between work values and turnover intention ($p = .519 > .05$), which were not significant. See figure 4.1 below for details.

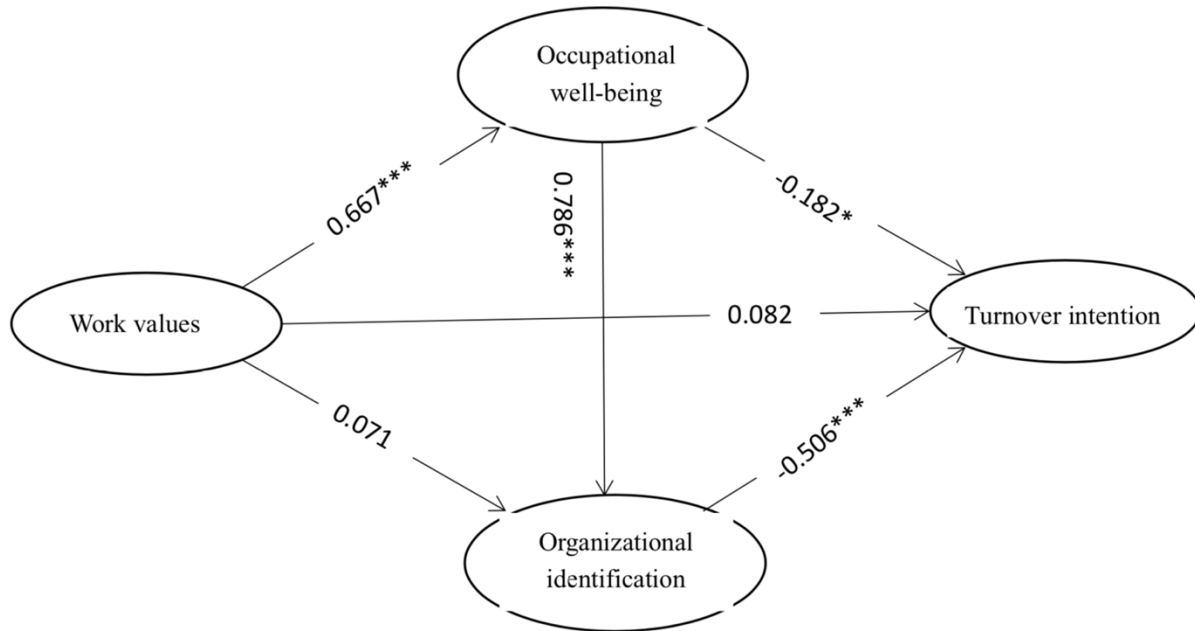


Figure 4.1 Empirical analysis result of Model 1

Model 2: The influence relationships among the variables are: work values influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being; work values influence turnover intention by influencing organizational identification. The fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 1291.32$, $df = 270$, $\chi^2/df = 4.783$, $GFI = 0.856$, $CFI = 0.914$, $TLI = 0.904$, and $RMSEA = 0.077$. All the indices except GFI met the judgment criteria. The influence relationships among variables were statistically significant. See Figure 4.2 below for details.

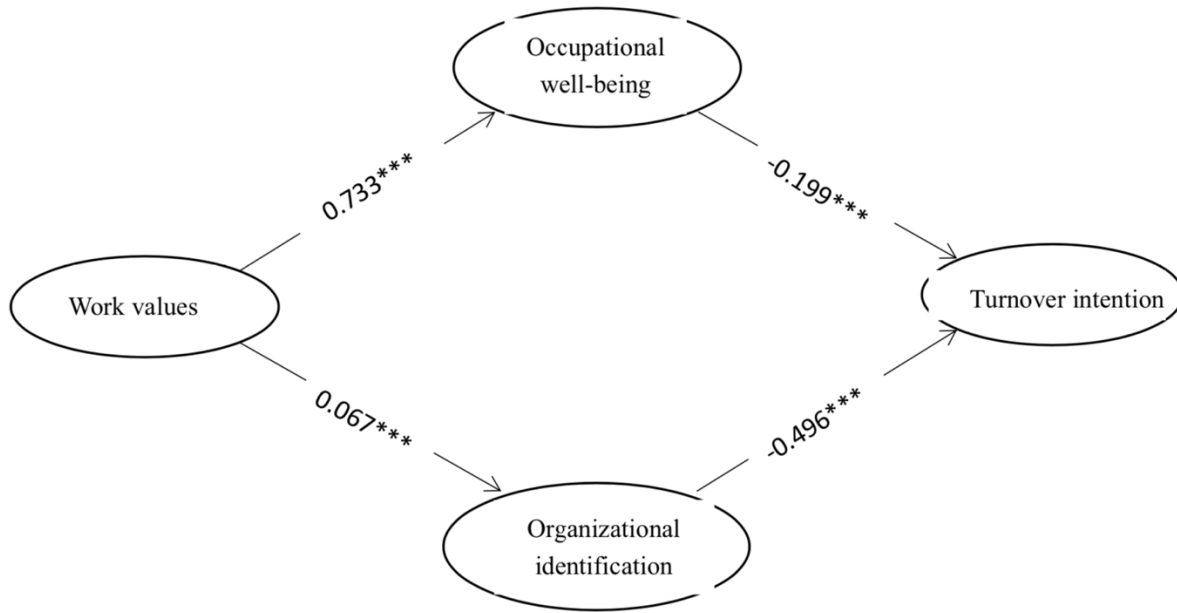


Figure 4.2 Empirical analysis result of Model 2

Model 3: The influence relationships among the variables are: work values influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being; work values influence turnover intention by influencing organizational identification; and work values directly influence turnover intention. The fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 1289.82$, $df = 269$, $\chi^2 / df = 4.795$, $GFI = 0.856$, $CFI = 0.914$, $TLI = 0.904$, and $RMSEA = 0.078$. All the indices except GFI met the judgment criteria. The influence relationships (pathways) among variables were statistically significant except for the direct influence of work values on turnover intention ($p = .309 > .05$), which was not significant. See Figure 4.3 below for details.

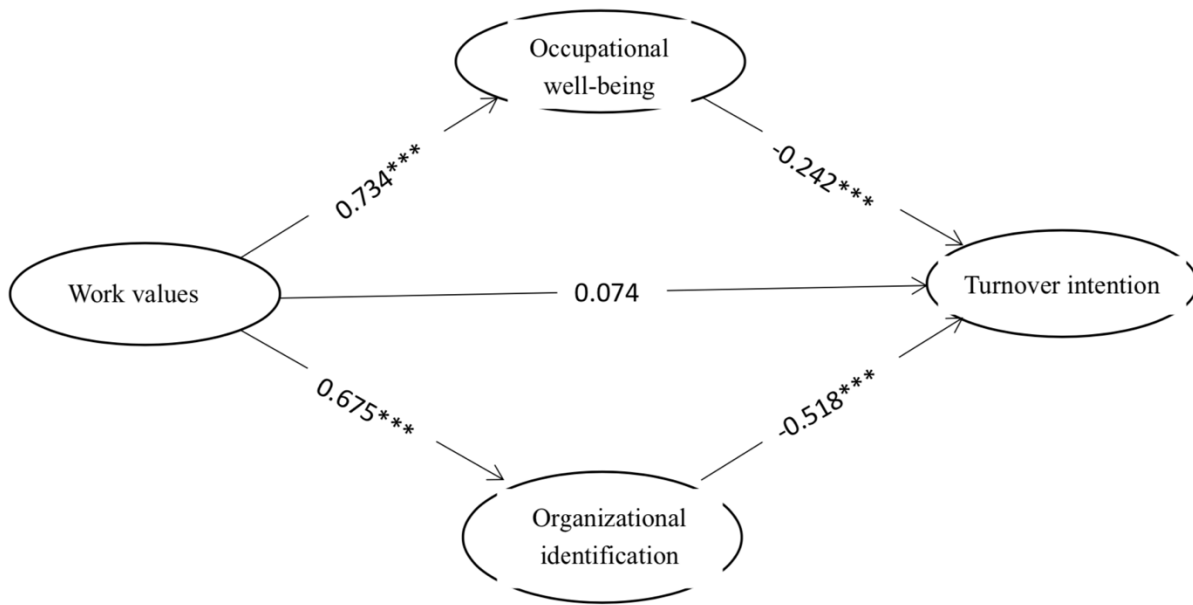


Figure 4.3 Empirical analysis result of Model 3

Model 4: The influence relationships among the variables are: turnover intention influences work values by influencing occupational well-being; turnover intention-work values relationship is sequentially mediated by occupational well-being and organizational identification; turnover intention directly influences work values; and turnover intention influences work values by influencing organizational identification. The fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 984.25$, $df = 268$, $\chi^2/df = 3.673$, $GFI = 0.88$, $CFI = 0.94$, $TLI = 0.932$, and $RMSEA = 0.033$. All the other fit indices fully met the criteria except that GFI basically met the criteria. The influence relationships among variables under this model are shown in Figure 4.4 below.

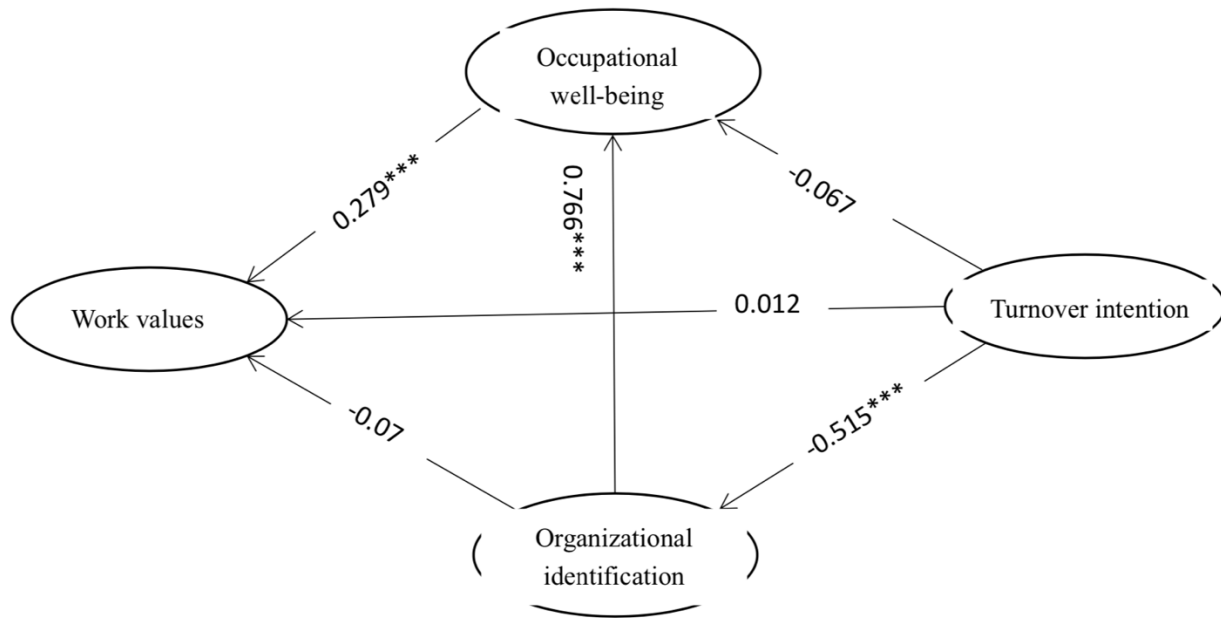


Figure 4.4 Empirical analysis result of Model 3

4.2.2 Models comparison

To select a more appropriate model, each fit criterion of the four models from the initial model construction in the previous section was compared and analysed, using a multi-group comparison method. Models 2, 3 and 4 were analysed against Model 1 in groups. As shown by the analysis results presented in Table 4.9, Models 2 and 3 were significantly different from Model 1.

Table 4.9 A comparison of models

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2 /df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df	<i>p</i>
Model 1	984.25	268	3.673	0.88	0.940	0.932	0.033	-	-	-
Model 2	1291.32	270	4.783	0.856	0.914	0.904	0.077	307.07	2	***
Model 3	1289.82	269	4.795	0.856	0.914	0.904	0.078	305.57	1	***
Model 4	984.25	268	3.673	0.88	0.940	0.932	0.065	-	-	-

The RMSEA of Model 4 was 0.065, which was much greater than that of Model 1, except which the other indicators of Model 4 were consistent with those of Model 1. However, the model only met the criteria from the numerical perspective. It was not in line with the research context according to the basic theories of this study, the work reality of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and the literature research. Besides, its RMSEA value, which was greater than that of Model 1, was not the optimal option. So, Model 4 did not meet the requirements of the study. Based on an overall consideration of the purpose and theoretical basis of this study, the

reality of the questionnaire survey and the results of the comparative analysis of the models, Model 1 was to be used as the basic theoretical model for this study to carry out the subsequent analyses.

Model 1 uses work values as the independent variable to analyse its impact on turnover intention and the roles played by occupational well-being and organizational identification in this process. In the pathway of influence, when work values increase by one unit, occupational well-being would increase by 0.667 units; when organizational identification increases by one unit, turnover intention would decrease by 0.506 units; and when occupational well-being increases by one unit, organizational identification would increase by 0.786 units; and when occupational well-being increases by one unit, turnover intention would decrease by 0.182 units accordingly. The influence of work values on organizational identification ($p = .078 > .05$) and the influence of work values on turnover intention ($p = .519 > .05$) were not significant. This was consistent with the work reality of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry in Zhejiang, China learned from the questionnaire survey and had a strong theoretical basis and realistic explanatory power.

The empirical results of the influence relationships among the variables from the above models show that H1, H2, H3 and H4 were all supported.

4.3 Mediating effect analysis

According to the model, there are three mediating pathways in this study: (1) work values influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being; (2) work values-turnover intention relationship is sequentially mediated by occupational well-being and organizational identification. (3) Work values influence organizational identification by influencing occupational well-being. Pathways 1 and 2 are manifested as multiple mediation, while the mediation in (2) is sequential mediation. The study used 3000 Bootstrap and 95% confidence interval analysis.

Since both the first and second pathways of multiple mediation analysed the different pathways of influence from work values on turnover intention, it was necessary to separately analyses the mediating effect values of each of these two pathways. This study used the custom language programming feature of AMOS. Specifically, a1 was defined as the pathway by which work values influence occupational well-being, b1 the pathway by which occupational well-being influences turnover intention, c the pathway by which occupational well-being influences organizational identification, and b2 the pathway by which organizational identification influences turnover

intention. The following multiple mediation statements were formed.

$$\text{ind1} = \text{p.a1} * \text{p.b1}$$

$$\text{ind2} = \text{ind1} + \text{ind2} + \text{c}$$

$$\text{total_mediation} = \text{ind1} + \text{ind2}$$

$$\text{r1} = \text{ind1} / \text{total}$$

$$\text{r2} = \text{ind2} / \text{total}$$

$$\text{diff} = \text{ind1} - \text{ind2}$$

The results of the above custom syntax are shown in Table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10 Custom syntax analysis results of the multiple mediation effects test

Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
ind1	-0.309	-0.616	-0.061	.014*
ind2	-0.675	-0.958	-0.456	.001**
total	-0.185	-0.497	0.038	
total_mediation	-0.984	-1.313	-0.77	
r1	1.674	-2.058	23.659	
r2	3.657	-11.253	54.373	
diff	0.366	-0.089	0.823	

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Combining the overall analysis of mediating effects and the analysis of multiple mediating effects, the results of the analysis of mediating effects are summarised in Table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11 Standardized mediation analysis results of the model

Mediation			Bias-Corrected 95% CI		Standar dized	<i>p</i>	<i>Percent</i>
			Lower	Upper	Directs		
Work values → Turnover intention	(1) Work values → Occupational well-being → Turnover intention	Indirect Effects	-0.616	-0,061	-0.309	.014*	31.4%
	(2) Work values → Occupational well-being → Organizational identification → Turnover intention	Indirect Effects	-0.958	-0.456	-0.675	.001**	68.6%
	Total mediation		-1.313	-.770	-.984	.000***	-
Work values → Organizat ional identificat ion	Work values → Occupational well- being → Organizational identification	Indirect Effects	0.874	1.37	1.077	.001**	Full mediation

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Because the direct effect of work values on turnover intention was not significant in the basic model analysis ($p = .519 > .05$), the effect of the above two mediating pathways was shown to be

full mediation. By verifying the pathway by which work values influence turnover intention through occupational well-being ($p < .05$) and the pathway by which work values influence turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification ($p < 0.001$), both the first and second mediating pathways were significant while the third mediating pathway was not significant (work values and organizational identification). Therefore, the 3rd mediating pathway was manifested as fully mediation. In other words, work values influence organizational identification through occupational well-being ($p < 0.01$), validating the full mediation. Combining the tests of mediation in the above three pathways, the mediating effect, parallel mediation and sequential mediation of the model was all confirmed.

Combining the mediation analysis results, H5 (Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention.), H6 (Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.) and H7 (Work values negatively impact turnover intention through occupational well-being and organizational identification.) were all validated.

4.4 Chapter summary

In this chapter, descriptive statistics and correlation analysis were conducted on the data, and SEM was conducted to test the theoretical hypotheses put forward in the previous chapter. As shown in Table 4.12 below, all the hypotheses put forward in this thesis were supported.

Table 4.12 Hypotheses testing results

Set of hypotheses	Testing result
H1: Work values are positively related to occupational well-being.	Supported
H2: Occupational well-being is positively related to organizational identification.	Supported
H3: Occupational well-being is negatively related to turnover intention.	Supported
H4: Organizational identification is negatively related to turnover intention.	Supported
H5: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention.	Supported
H6: Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.	Supported
H7: Work values negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification.	Supported

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Chapter 5: Study 2

This chapter introduces Study 2 which replicated the questionnaire and analysis strategy used in Study 1. A total of 225 valid questionnaires were collected to validate the hypothesized model in study 1. The results provide further support for the findings of study 1.

5.1 Sampling of Study 2

To ensure the referability of the sample data, the data collection and analysis methods adopted in Empirical Study 2 were the same as those in Empirical Study 1. A total of 252 questionnaires were distributed to two of the manufacturing companies in Quzhou national industrial park in Zhejiang Province, China, and 250 questionnaires were recovered. After eliminating the questionnaires that were not completed in a standard way, 225 valid questionnaires were recovered, representing a valid recovery rate of 89.2%.

In terms of gender, the sample consists of 164 male employees, accounting for 72.9%, and 61 female employees, accounting for 27.1%. The ratio of male to female millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was close to that of the sample of Empirical Study 1. Regarding age, 21 employees were aged 18-25 (9.3%) years old, 43 employees 26-30 (19.1%) years old, 81 employees 31-35 (36.0%) years old, and 80 employees 36-41 (35.3%) years old. The age structure of the sample was also similar to that of Empirical Study 1. As to marital status, there were 158 married employees, accounting for 70.2%, 55 unmarried employees, accounting for 24.4%, and seven employees who were in other marital status group, accounting for 3.1%. The percentage of married respondents was substantially higher than that of unmarried respondents and respondents who were in other marital status group. As regards education level, 26 employees had received junior high school education or below, accounting for 11.6%; 135 employees had received senior high school or technical secondary school education, accounting for 60%; and 64 employees (28.4%) had received junior college or college education. The overall education level was also similar to that of the sample of Empirical Study 1. The percentage of grassroots job positions to all the job positions was 72%, meaning that most employees were grassroots employees. Concerning actual monthly working hours, most employees (77.8%) worked more than the standard monthly working hours (174 hours) under the eight-hour system with five days of work a week set by the

state; 125 employees (55.6%) worked between 174 and 240 hours per month; 50 employees (22.2%) worked more than 240 hours per month, meaning that these employees worked more than eight hours every day in a month, showing high intensity of overtime work; and 50 employees (22.2%) worked no more than 174 hours per month. With respect to monthly salary, 80.8% of the respondents earned 5,000-10,000 yuan per month. Overall, the actual monthly working hours and monthly salary level of the sample of Empirical Study 2 were basically the same as those of the sample of Empirical Study 1.

5.2 Reliability and validity analyses of the variable scales of Study 2

The results of the reliability analysis of organizational identification of Study 2 using SPSS 23.0 showed a Cronbach's α value of 0.959, indicating that the organizational identification variable of Study 2 had sound reliability. A further analysis showed that for the organizational identification variable, CR = 0.96, and AVE = 0.615 > 0.5. The Cronbach's α for turnover intention was 0.953 (CR = 0.935, and AVE = 0.783 > 0.5). The Cronbach's α for work values was 0.867 (CR = 0.898; AVE = 0.595 > 0.5). The Cronbach's α for occupational well-being was 0.94 (CR = 0.906; AVE = 0.58 > 0.5). This indicated that the validity test of the variable passed. After the above CFA as well as reliability and validity tests, the reliability and validity of the measures of the variables, namely work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention, were demonstrated. They could be used for the analysis of the theoretical framework proposed in this study.

5.3 Research model validation

According to the theoretical framework of this study, AMOS 24.0 was used for SEM and path analysis before constructing the research model. The model analysis was based on the idea of stepwise comparisons. Model 1 was based on the hypotheses testing in Chapter 2 and represented mainly the hypotheses of the influence relationships among all variables (Figure 5.1). Model 2 (Figure 5.2) and Model 3 (Figure 5.3) were based on Model 1 but showed other influence relationships among variables more prominently. Model 4 (Figure 5.4) was a reverse model of

Model 1. In other words, in Model 4, work values were used as the dependent variable and turnover intention as the independent variable. The results are as follows.

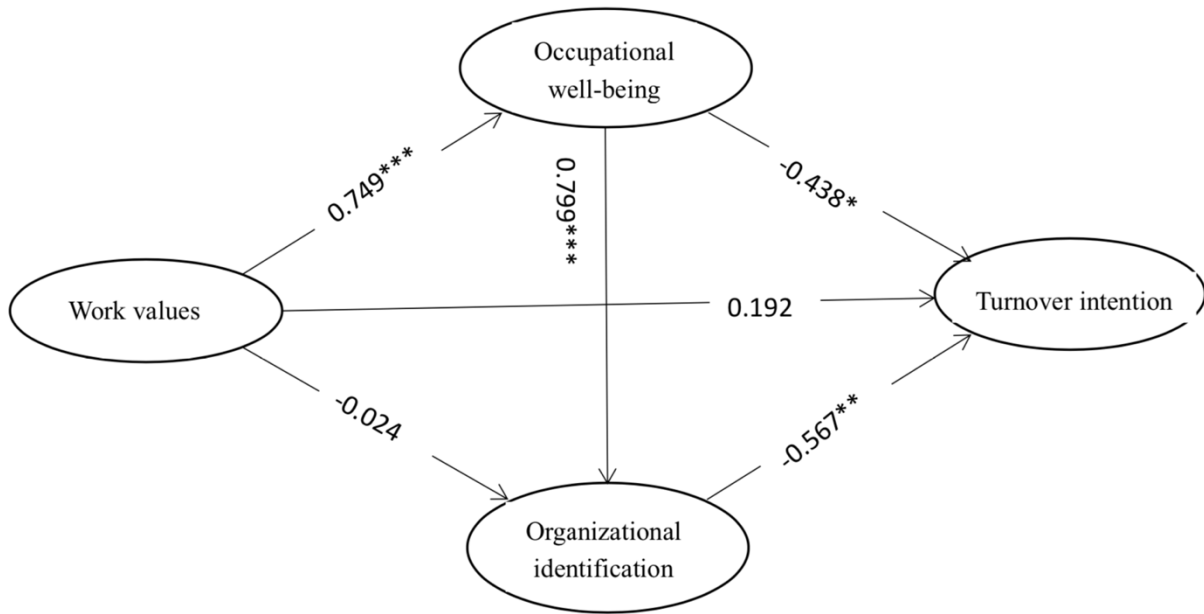


Figure 5.1 Results of the analysis on the relationships among variables in Model 1

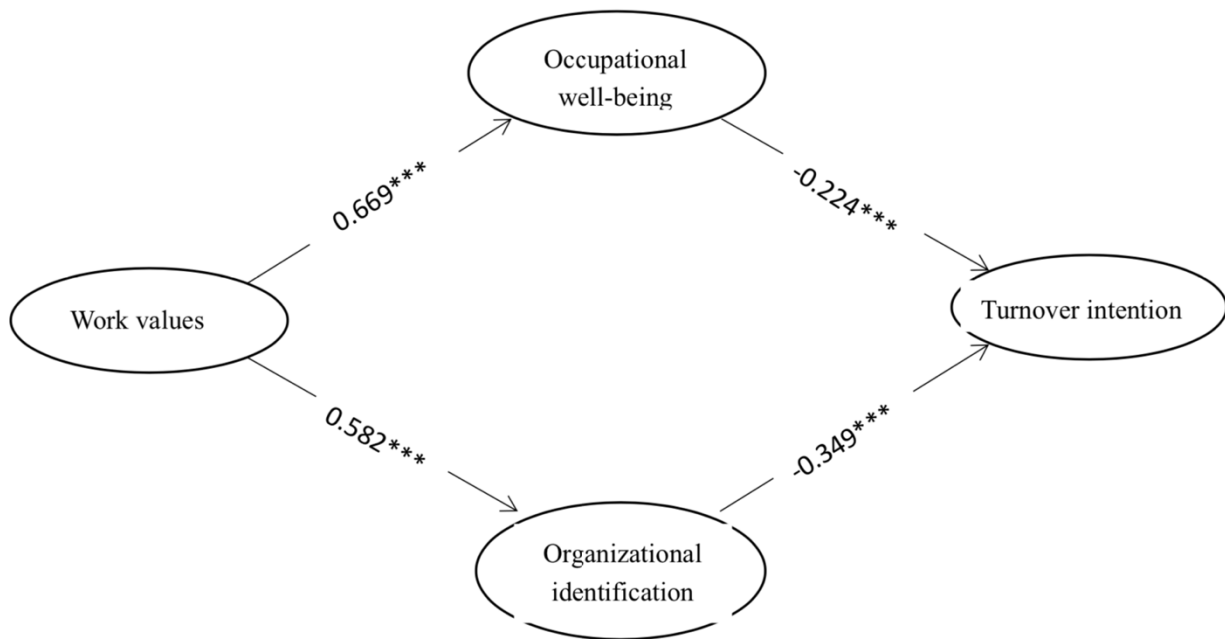


Figure 5.2 Results of the analysis on the relationships among variables in Model 2

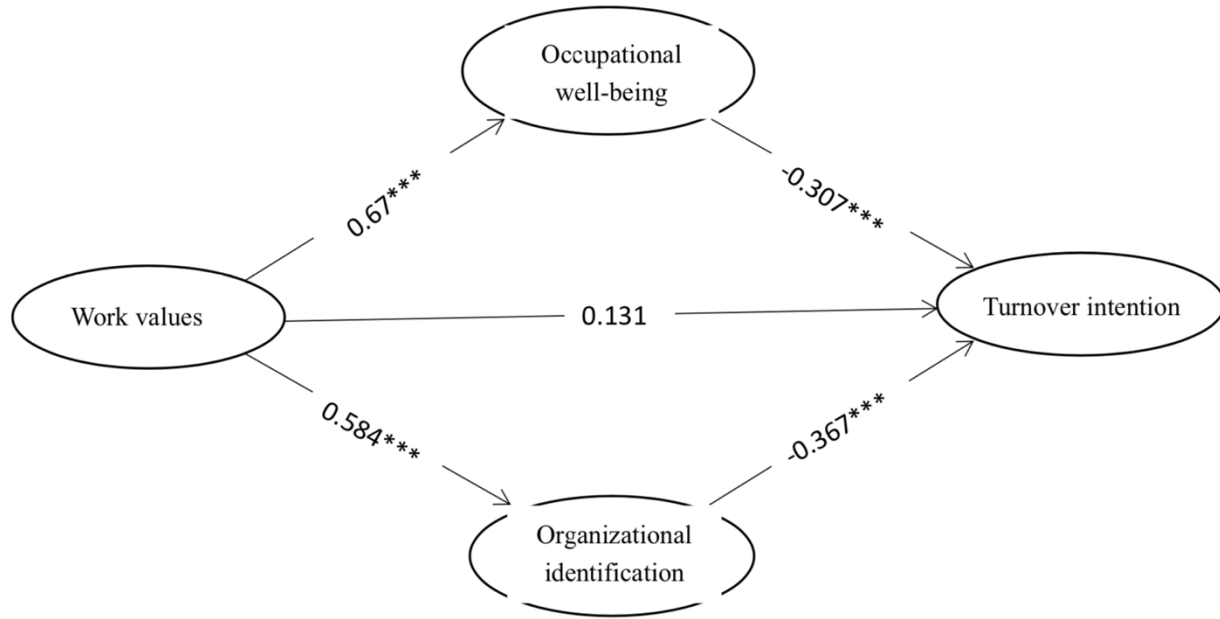


Figure 5.3 Results of the analysis on the relationships among variables in Model 3

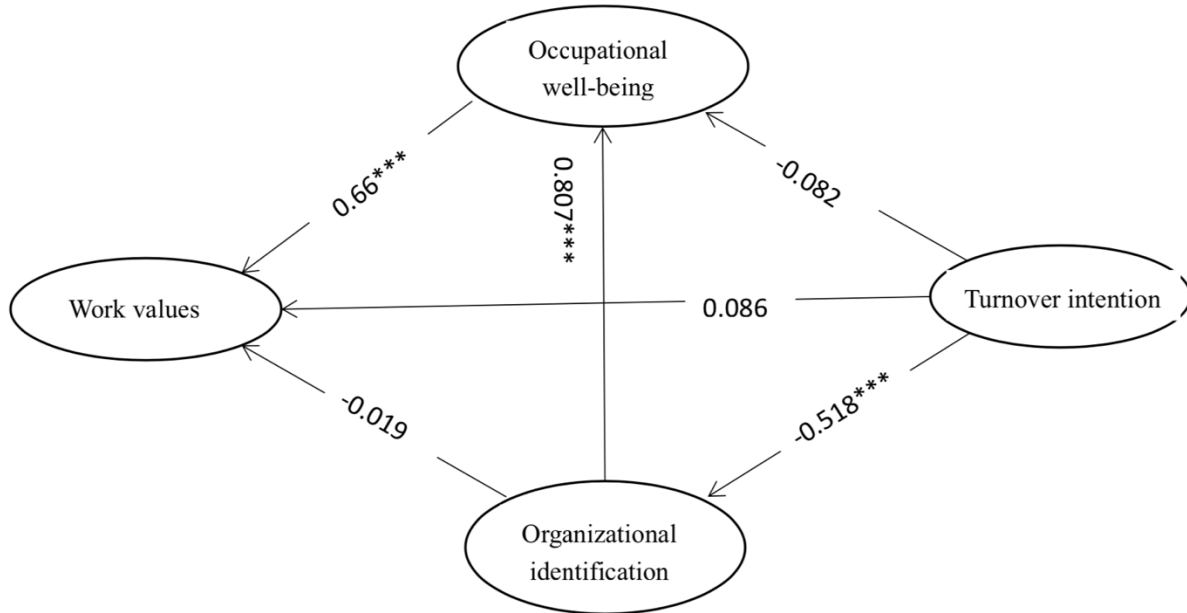


Figure 5.4 Results of the analysis on the relationships among variables in Model 4

As shown in Table 5.1, by testing and comparing the above four models, it was found that Model 1 was still the optimal model, which was consistent with the findings of Study 1. The influence relationships among the variables in Model 1 were: work values influence turnover intention through influencing occupational well-being; work values-turnover intention relationship is sequentially mediated by occupational well-being and organizational identification; work values

influence turnover intention; and work values influence turnover intention through influencing organizational identification. The fit indices were: $\chi^2 = 1953.461$, $df = 588$, $\chi^2/df = 3.322$, CFI = 0.827, TLI = 0.804, and RMSEA = 0.052. The indices also basically met and exceeded the judgment criteria. Due to the small sample size of the data collected in Study 2, it could be considered that the above indices represented sound goodness-of-fit of the model. Of the influence relationships among the variables, all pathways were significant except that the direct influence of work values on organizational identification ($p = .704 > .05$) and the direct influence of work values on turnover intention ($p = .233 > .05$) were not significant.

Table 5.1 A comparison of models

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>
Model 1	1953.46	588	3.322	0.827	0.804	0.052	-	-	-
Model 2	2128.39	590	3.607	0.805	0.78	0.055	174.93	2	0***
Model 3	2126.46	589	3.61	0.805	0.78	0.055	173	1	0***
Model 4	1953.46	588	3.322	0.827	0.804	0.052	-	-	-

A comparison of the results of the analysis of Model 1 with Study 1 revealed that: (1) the influence relationships among the variables were consistent. In both studies, the direct influence of work values on organizational identification and the direct influence of work values on turnover intention were not significant, while the relationships among the other variables were significant, indicating the reliability and stability of the theoretical model developed in this study. (2) The degrees of influence relationships among variables were stable. The relatively small differences in the influence relationships (i.e., coefficients) among the variables between the two studies illustrated the validity of the measurement model and the relationships among the variables in this study.

The results of the analyses and validation of the theoretical model using two data sets confirmed the reliability of the theoretical model and variable measures of this study, validated the findings of study 1, and formed a theoretical framework for the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees, which can be applied for scientific research and theory generalisation.

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Chapter 6: Discussions, Conclusions and Prospects

Millennial employees are the main workforce in China. This is particularly true in the manufacturing industry, where millennial employees are large in number and make influential contributions. The study on how the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing influence their turnover intention can help manufacturing enterprises identify their own problems in management and provide a theoretical basis for targeted improvements. This study has important practical implications for reducing the turnover rate of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. This chapter summarises and discusses this thesis based on the previous chapters, makes management recommendations, and elaborates on the limitations and prospects of the research. The discussions were based on the results of study 1.

6.1 The status of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

6.1.1 Demographic characteristics of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

Seen from the results of the two questionnaire surveys, millennial employees in the manufacturing industry generally worked overtime a lot and earned an average income only. Overall, 82.08% of the millennial employees worked more than China's statutory monthly working hours of 174 hours per month. In other words, they were engaged in a lot of overtime work. The monthly salary of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry fell in the range of RMB 5,000-10,000 despite a lot of overtime work. The ratio of male employees to all millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was 65.5%, which was much higher than the ratio of female employees. In terms of age structure, the younger the age group, the smaller the percentage of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Married millennial employees took up a much higher percentage (62.4%) than their unmarried counterparts and those of the group with other types of marital status. Millennial employees in the manufacturing industry who had received higher education took up 48.9%, and those who had received junior high school education or below accounted for 40.25%. The overall education level was higher than that of non-millennial employees.

According to the questionnaire survey results, 82.08% of the millennial employees worked more than the standard 174 hours per month, meaning that there was a large amount of overtime work in the manufacturing industry in general, which was in line with the characteristics of continuous production in the manufacturing industry. However, the situation was even worse because 17.92% of the employees worked more than 240 hours a month, meaning that these people needed to work more than eight hours a day for 30 days a month, and the long working hours led to a life with basically no free time for rest and adjustment. The high frequency and intensity of overtime work in the manufacturing industry is inevitably in conflict with the millennial employees in the manufacturing employees who seek to realise their self-worth, pursue a relaxed and comfortable working environment, and enjoy the pleasures of life. Twenge et al. (2010) and Burkus (2010) argue that millennial employees wish their work and life to be in balance with and complementary to each other. Carlson et al. (2014) found that a balance between work and family interactions helps employees achieve higher levels of occupational well-being. The purpose of work is to ensure people to live a better life and have more time for self-adjustment and companionship with family. Self-satisfaction and a happy family will increase employees' occupational well-being and organizational identification. From the perspective of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, reasonable working hours are one important consideration for them to choose and stay in their jobs. For manufacturing enterprises, reducing overtime work and planning reasonable working hours are immediate priorities. Both the "11 suicides" at Foxconn and the high turnover rate of employees in the manufacturing industry highlight the hidden dangers of overtime work.

The monthly income of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was concentrated in the range of RMB 5,000-10,000. The questionnaire survey results showed that 85.2% of employees earned RMB 5,000-10,000 a month; 9.43% earned RMB 10,000-15,000 a month; and 0.94% earned RMB 15,000-20,000 a month. The two questionnaire surveys were conducted in Shanghai and Zhejiang, China. According to statistics released by China's National Bureau of Statistics, the per capita monthly disposable income of Shanghai residents was RMB 6,502 in 2021, and that of Zhejiang residents was RMB 4,795 in 2021. The data showed that the overall monthly income of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was basically the same as the local monthly per capita disposable income. However, considering that 82.08% of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry surveyed in this thesis worked in excess of the standard monthly

working hours of 174 hours, it means that employees in the manufacturing industry can only maintain their basic monthly income to the general local income level by working overtime a lot. According to China's Labour Law, overtime pay shall be given at 1.5-2 times the normal wage. Translation of this into a standard eight-hour workday wage makes the wages in the manufacturing industry low and uncompetitive. For the same long working hours, the average monthly income of a food delivery worker in Shanghai in 2021 was over RMB 11,800, while that of a food delivery worker in Zhejiang in 2021 was over RMB 9,000. With the same long working hours, the utilitarian orientation of values will drive millennials to choose jobs with higher income. P. Hu et al. (2019) found that job income has a significant correlation with subjective well-being, and the higher the income, the greater the well-being. Y. Y. Chen (2020) argues that the income of young employees in the manufacturing industry are negatively correlated with turnover rates. Incentive pay, as a core mechanism of modern human resource management, has the important function of attracting, retaining and motivating the human resources needed by the organization.

The manufacturing industry in general is characterized by a poor working environment, strict rules and regulations, and inadequately competitive compensation packages. The survey results show that the manufacturing industry is still characterized by an uncompetitive overall salary package, an unfree working environment and an unsatisfactory income level despite the widespread existence of overtime work. As a result, people would rather deliver takeaways than work in manufacturing factories. This explains why the more economically developed a region is in China, the more job options employees will have, and the higher the turnover rates of employees in the manufacturing sector as they have opportunities to take jobs with more competitive salaries. With utilitarian orientation being an important dimension of millennial employees' work values, how can the overall income of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry be reasonably increased is a question that modern manufacturing enterprises must reflect on.

In terms of gender, the valid sample consisted of 65.5% male employees and 34.5% female employees, indicating that the proportion of male employees to millennial employees in the manufacturing industry far exceeds that of female employees, which may be related to the long overtime hours and other characteristics of the manufacturing industry. High work intensity requires employees to devote more psychological strength and mental energy. Besides, with China's introduction of the three-child policy, policy provisions for the protection of women have caused manufacturing enterprises to be more cautious in recruiting women.

From the perspective of age, employees aged 18-25 years old accounted for 20.5%; those aged 26-30 years old accounted for 22.4%; those aged 31-35 years old accounted for 25.2%; and those aged 36-41 years old accounted for 32%. It can be noticed that as age decreases among all the age groups, the proportion of millennial employees increases. This indicates that in career choices, an increasingly smaller number of millennial employees in younger age groups choose to work in the manufacturing industry. Young people are increasingly not recognising the manufacturing industry, which requires the attention of society and managers.

As to marital status, married employees took up 62.4%; unmarried employees took up 35.1%; and 16 employees (2.5%) had other types of marital status. The percentage of married millennial employees was substantially higher than that of unmarried ones and those with other types of marital status, which requires managers in the manufacturing sector to give more consideration to the balance between work and family of employees.

From the viewpoint of education level, 10.85% of the employees had received junior high school education or below; 40.25% had received senior high school or technical secondary school education; 47.64% had received junior college or college education; and 1.26% had received graduate education or above. Specifically, 48.9% of the millennial employees in the manufacturing industry were highly educated, and the overall education level was much higher than that of non-millennial employees. This requires the management of the manufacturing industry to consider the impact of their work values on them and to take appropriate management measures accordingly.

6.1.2 Demographic characteristics from the perspective of variance analysis

The ANOVA analyses showed significant differences in work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention among millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Work values were at the lowest level in the group with five to ten years of service and at the highest level in the group with no more than one year of service, and the group with no more than one year of service demonstrated significantly stronger work values than the groups with other length of service. Occupational well-being was at the lowest level in the group with no less than ten years of service and at the highest level in the group with no more than one year of service. As the length of service increased, occupation well-being weakened. The occupational well-being of the group with no less than ten years of service was significantly lower compared to the groups with no more than one year of service and five to ten years of service.

Organizational identification was the weakest in the group with no less than ten years of service and the strongest in the group with no more than one year of service. Organizational identification weakened as the length of service increased. The group with no less than ten years of service had significantly lower levels of organizational identification than the groups with other length of service. Turnover intention was at the highest level in the group with five to ten years of service and at the lowest level in the group with no more than one year of service. In a descending order of strength, the levels of turnover intention were respectively the group with five to ten years of service, two to five years of service, more than ten years of service, two years of service and no more than one year of service. The group with five to ten years of service showed significantly higher levels of turnover intention than groups with other length of service. The above data showed that employees with no less than ten years of service had significantly lower levels of occupational well-being and organizational identification than employees with other length of service. This is a very serious problem for the manufacturing industry. The longer employees work in an organization, the lower their occupational well-being and the lower their organizational identification. In other words, the longer they are in an occupation, the more they are bored with the occupation. Steers and Mowday (1981) found that the main reason for employees to quit their jobs is job burnout. From being full of enthusiasm for the job in the beginning to the growth in the length of service, the job gives them less and less sense of achievement, satisfaction and well-being as time goes by. They gradually start to experience job burnout and have turnover intention. This may be attributable to the phenomenon that when millennial employees in the manufacturing industry face such problems as high work pressure, low wages and poor promotion channels, their increasing job burnout as time goes by runs counter to their pursuit of self-worth. As a result, their own career development gets limited; their occupational well-being decreases; their organizational identification decreases; and their intention to change to a different job increases.

The work values of millennial employees with no more than one year of service was significantly higher than the work values of other groups. This was possibly because employees were less influenced by self-feedback and self-evaluations at work when they just joined the organization. It is worth reflecting that millennial employees in the manufacturing industry showed a decrease in occupational well-being and organizational identification as their length of service increased, but turnover intention was significantly stronger for those with five to ten years of service than for groups with other length of service. Possible reasons for this are that millennial

employees tend to face a bottleneck in their career development during the five to ten years of service with an organisation. Thus, they tend to have the highest turnover intention due to uncertainty about the long-term development dimension of their work values and their desire to change such uncertainty. From the perspective of variance analysis by length of service, manufacturing enterprises must pay close attention to the high levels of turnover intention among employees with more than five to ten years of service, the low levels of occupational well-being and organizational identification among employees with no less than ten years of service and the strong work values among employees with no more than one year of service and introduce countermeasures accordingly.

The ANOVA analyses also indicated that different age groups showed significant differences in work values, organizational identification and turnover intention. Work values were significantly stronger in the group aged 18-25 years old than in the groups aged 31-35 and 36-41 years old. The group aged 18-25 years old showed significantly higher levels of organizational identification than the groups aged 31-35 and 36-41 years old. Turnover intention was at the highest level in the group aged 36-41 years old and at the lowest level in the group aged 18-25 years old. The older the age, the higher levels the turnover intention. The group aged 36-41 years old exhibited a significantly higher level of turnover intention than the groups aged 31-35, 26-30 and 18-25 years old. The groups aged 31-35 and 36-41 years old happen to be those born between 1980 and 1990, or what are known as the post-80s. The variance analysis results showed that the group aged 36-41 years old had significantly lower levels of work values and organizational identification as well as a significantly higher level of turnover intention than other age groups. The group aged 31-35 years old had significantly lower levels of work values and organizational identification than the groups aged 26-30 and 18-25 years old as well as a significantly higher level of turnover intention than the groups aged 26-30 and 18-25 years old. The results were significantly different from the results of the post-90s, which validates the intergenerational theory. From the variance results, the possible reasons for this are that the post-80s have been working in society for a long time. They are under huge pressure from family, life and work as they have not only parents to support but also children to raise. Once their work values are not actualised to an appropriate extent in the organization, they will feel disappointed with the organization and thus have a higher turnover intention. As the post-80s grow older, whether the relatively undiversified job skills of the manufacturing industry can

help them cope with future development uncertainty is also a key consideration for them in the current anxious society.

The variance analysis results revealed significant differences in work values, organizational identification and turnover intention among groups with different types of marital status. Specifically, the unmarried group exhibited the highest levels of work values and organizational identification, followed by the married group, and then by the group with other types of marital status. Unmarried new employees had the lowest level of turnover intention whereas employees of other types of marital status (e.g., divorced) exhibited the highest level of turnover intention. Demerouti et al. (2004) found that work support from family members influences employees' occupational well-being as well as their physical and mental health.

The ANOVA results also validated the influence of family on millennial employees. Specifically, in the Chinese context, unmarried individuals enjoy relatively more support and positive influences from family. Chinese parents have a tradition of giving their all to the next generation before their children establish their own families. Therefore, individuals only have to consider their current personal survival and development needs before they get unmarried. In contrast, married people must consider more for the family and thus experience more pressure. They have stronger utilitarian orientation of work values in the organization and more urgent requirements for the realization of self-worth. However, employees in the manufacturing industry work relatively longer overtime hours and earn only an average income. The balance of family life affects their organizational identification. Employees of the group with other types of marital status are subject to public opinions. Besides, the fact that the manufacturing industry has a stable but not high income cause them to subsequently experience more financial pressure to prepare for marriage. As a result, their occupational well-being is relatively the weakest. Based on the above analysis, organizations need to pay attention to the impact of support from members' families and the society on their occupational well-being to enhance their organizational identification and reduce their turnover rate.

The ANOVA results showed significant differences in work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention between different gender groups. Specifically, females showed higher levels of work values, occupational well-being and organizational identification but a lower level of turnover intention than males. This is possibly due to the influence of traditional Chinese culture which holds that men are expected to earn the bread while

women are expected to look after the house. Women need to undertake more domestic chores at home and are provided with less career choices compared to men. As a result, women cherish their jobs much more than men do and exhibit much stronger job stability than men. Besides, men often have higher pursuits in salary and career development. Due to the relatively uncompetitive salary package and fixed career development in the manufacturing industry, women tend to develop a sense of self-satisfaction and achievement in the organization resulting in a stronger sense of occupational well-being, a greater sense of belonging, a higher level of organizational identification and a lower level of turnover intention than men. K. H. Xu and Ding (2020) found that male skilled workers had higher pay and career expectations than their female counterparts. Y. B. Wang (2004) argued that organizational identification refers to the sense of belonging and psychological contract that organizational members have with the organization. As the proportion of male millennial employees in the manufacturing industry in the survey sample was 65.5%, the salary as well as career planning and development of male employees must be a priority for organizations to improve.

The ANOVA results showed significant differences in turnover intention among groups with different education levels. Specifically, millennial employees who had received graduate education or above had the lowest level of turnover intention, followed by those who had received college or junior college education, then by those who had received junior high school education or below, and finally by those who had received senior high school or technical secondary school education. Millennial employees who had received senior high school or technical secondary school education had significantly higher levels of turnover intention than those who had received junior high school education or below and those who had received graduate education or above. The results are consistent with the study conducted by Y. B. Wang (2004), which suggests that the turnover rate of millennial employees with high education levels is lower than that of millennial employees with low education levels, and that the turnover rate of those in leadership positions is lower than that of ordinary employees. This may be due to that in the manufacturing industry, employees with college degrees and postgraduate degrees are basically trained as management and technicians, and salaries vary considerably with the different levels of management positions and technical responsibilities.

Song (2011) points out that the post-80s knowledge workers are more eager to realise their own value through work, and that the realisation of work values has a significant effect on their

occupational well-being. The more millennial employees in the manufacturing industry who have received junior college education or above realise their self-value along with their career development, the stronger occupational well-being they tend to experience. In comparison, employees who have received graduate education or above are either engaged in the core technologies of the company or provided with key management training. Their self-development and psychological satisfaction are relatively evaluated and realised, and their turnover rate is low. However, it happens that most grassroots employees and middle managers in the manufacturing industry are employees who have received only senior high school or junior high school education. Yet their turnover intention is significantly higher than that of groups of other education levels. Besides, the turnover intention of front-line and grassroots employees who have received only junior high school education or below is significantly stronger than that of the group with graduate education or above. Needless to say, millennial employees are generally self-centred and focus on both career development and material rewards. Therefore, once they are restricted in terms of income and career development, they will have higher levels of turnover intention and seek new career development opportunities to get higher income. Based on the analysis, manufacturing enterprises must prioritize the alignment between the career planning and needs satisfaction of millennial employees who have received senior high school or technical secondary school education as well as those who have received only junior high school education or below.

6.1.3 Summary of the analyses on millennial employees in the manufacturing industry by demographic characteristic

Based on the results of variance analyses by demographic characteristics and the current work status: millennial employees in the manufacturing industry worked long overtime hours and earned an unsatisfactory salary; male employees outnumbered female employees; married employees took up the biggest percentage; 48.9% of the sample received higher education; less millennial employees in younger age groups chose to work in the manufacturing industry; the work values of millennial employees with no more than one year of service had significantly stronger work values than groups with other length of service, and the group aged 18-25 years old had significantly stronger work values than other age groups; the organizational identification of the group aged 36-41 years old was significantly lower than that of other age groups; post-80s had significantly higher levels of turnover intention than other age groups; millennial employees with no less than ten years

of service had significantly lower levels of occupational well-being and organizational identification than groups with other length of service; the group with five to ten years of service had a significantly higher level of turnover intention than groups with other length of service; and millennial employees who had received senior high school or technical secondary school education had significantly higher levels of turnover intention than those who had received junior high school education or below and those who had received graduate education or above.

Data analyses results showed that the post-80s, as key players in the manufacturing industry, and employees who had worked in the organization for five to ten years had high levels of turnover intention. The longer the employees had worked, the lower their sense of occupational well-being and organizational identification, and the heavier their burnout, manifested as their lack of identification with manufacturing companies and their desire to address their current predicament. For manufacturing companies, employees with more than five to ten years of service and the post-80s employees are the wealth of enterprise human capital, and their stability is crucial to enterprises' current survival and future development. However, data analyses show that these two groups have the highest levels of turnover intention. The reason for the current situation is that their occupational well-being and organizational identification are decreasing, and that the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry are not responded to and realised in the evaluation of their needs in the work process. Manufacturing enterprises that fail to solve such problems as long working hours, poor salary packages and unsmooth career development channels will not only find it difficult to recruit workers but also face the problem of a high turnover of skilled and experienced employees, which will challenge enterprise survival and development.

Data analyses results also showed that the younger the millennial employees, the less their percentage in all millennial employees in the manufacturing industry; the group with no more than one year of service had significantly higher levels of work values than groups with other length of service, and the group aged 18-25 years old had significantly stronger work values than other age groups. This requires manufacturing enterprises to fully understand the impact of the work values of millennial employees on their career choice and better improve their recruitment strategies and styles of management to recruit and retain people.

6.2 Hypotheses testing

6.2.1 Testing of the hypotheses on influence relationships among variables

1. Relationship between work values and occupational well-being

The results of the study support H1 that work values are positively related to occupational well-being, with a path coefficient of 0.667, $p < 0.001$, and the positive effect was significant, which was consistent with the findings of G. Chen and Zhang (2019).

Millennial employees are highly achievement-oriented and self-oriented, dislike conformity and prefer freedom, comfort and autonomy at work. Occupational well-being reflects employees' satisfaction with their jobs (Li, 2009; Wen, 2006); Song (2011) argues that post-80s employees prefer to realise their worth through work, and that the realisation of work values plays a significant role in enhancing their occupational well-being. As millennial employees want to play a role in their work and realise their self-worth, the higher their degree of self-worth realisation, the greater their occupational well-being. Therefore, work values have a direct impact on their occupational well-being, and the positive effect is significant.

2. Relationships among occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention

The results of empirical studies support H2 that occupational well-being is positively related to organizational identification, with a path coefficient of -0.182, $p < 0.05$ and a significant direct effect, consistent with the findings of C. W. Huang (2020), Liang et al. (2020) and M. Zhang (2016) that occupational well-being would significantly and negatively predict turnover intention. The findings of the study also support H3 that occupational well-being is negatively related to turnover intention with a path coefficient of 0.786 ($p < 0.001$) and a significant positive effect, echoing the findings of Z. H. Liu et al. (2020).

Occupational well-being, as an employee's psychological perception, is his/her positive evaluation and emotional experience of the work he/she is currently doing. Twenge et al. (2010) argue that "Generation Y" employees prefer to do their jobs in accordance with their own behavioural habits and work styles, with a strong sense of individuality and self-centredness. Millennial employees in the manufacturing industry tend to generate bad evaluation that will lead to turnover intention once their emotional experience is not satisfactory and their needs go unmet in the workplace. They may quit their jobs due to such dissatisfaction. So, occupational well-being

directly influences turnover intention. Van Dick et al. (2004) found that enhancing occupational well-being has a significant effect on enhancing organizational identification. From the perspectives of needs-based theories of motivation and organizational identification theory, the stronger the occupational well-being of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, the more it means that the working conditions provided by the organization are in line with their actual needs, and the psychological contract between their sense of satisfaction and sense of achievement in occupational well-being and the organization is fulfilled, thus stimulating their sense of belonging to the organization, thereby enhancing organizational identification and reducing turnover rate.

3. Relationship between organizational identification and turnover intention

The results of the empirical studies support H4 that organizational identification is negatively related to turnover intention, with a path coefficient of -0.626 ($p < 0.001$) and a significant direct effect, consistent with the findings of both Jiang (2019) as well as J. H. He and Han (2021).

Y. Zhang (2020) argued that organizational identification of millennial employees negatively affects their turnover intention. For millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, organizational identification can enhance their work initiative, help strengthen their sense of belonging and mission, and motivate them to take up their job responsibilities, thus reducing turnover rate.

6.2.2 Testing of mediating effects

According to the empirical analyses, there were two mediation pathways for work values to negatively influence turnover intention: (1) work values negatively influenced turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being ($p < 0.05$); (2) Work values negatively impacted turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification ($p < 0.001$). The two pathways showed multiple mediation, and the mediation effects of both pathways were significant, with the explanation rates being 31.4% and 68.6%, respectively. Both paths showed multiple mediators, and the mediating effects of both paths were significant, with explanatory rates of 31.4% and 68.6%, respectively. Occupational well-being and organizational identification fully mediated the relationship between work values and turnover intention. Specifically, when work values increased by one unit, occupational well-being increased by 0.667 units; when organizational identification increased by one unit, turnover

intention decreased by 0.506 units; when occupational well-being increased by one unit, organizational identification increased by 0.786 units; and when occupational well-being increased by 1 unit, turnover intention decreased by 0.182 units.

1. Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention.

In the first mediating pathway, work values negatively influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being, and occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and turnover intention. H5 was validated. When work values increased by one unit, occupational well-being increased by 0.667 units; and when occupational well-being increased by one unit, turnover intention decreased by 0.182 units. The first mediating pathway is consistent with the empirical findings by T. T. Zhao (2020) on the relationship between millennial employees' work values and turnover intention, where the stronger the work values of millennial employees, the higher their levels of occupational well-being and the lower their levels of turnover rate; conversely, the higher their turnover rate. This is also in line with the study by L. Zhang and Lian (2017) which showed that millennial employees are generally self-centred and choose their jobs based on their own interests and whether their jobs can bring them a sense of achievement and well-being. When their needs for occupational well-being are not fulfilled, their positive evaluation of their sense of satisfaction and sense of achievement from satisfaction of their needs in the current organization will be undermined, which may cause them to leave the organization they work for.

2. Occupational well-being mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification.

Occupational well-being increased by 0.667 units when work values increased by one unit; and organizational identification increased by 0.786 units when occupational well-being increased by one unit. The direct effect of work values on organizational identification was not significant. Therefore, H6 was validated, and the mediating effect was full mediation. In other words, work values positively evaluate organizational identification by influencing occupational well-being ($p < 0.01$), validating the full mediation effect. H. L. Xiao (2021) found that the higher the degree of match between personal values and organizational values, the more employees would feel the positive and satisfactory psychological experience brought about by work and find a sense of belonging to the enterprise, which further mobilizes their work initiative and reduces turnover intention. The study conducted by Z. H. Liu et al. (2020) also showed that enhancing the

occupational well-being of millennial employees in manufacturing companies plays an important role in enhancing their organizational identification. Whether or not working in an organization brings occupational well-being is the most important concern for millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Quitting their jobs due to dissatisfaction is also in line with the self-centred characteristics of millennial employees whose organizational identification is influenced by their self-perceived occupational well-being.

3. Work values negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification.

In the second sequential mediation pathway, work values negatively impacted turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification. When work values increased by one unit, occupational well-being increased by 0.667 units; when occupational well-being increased by one unit, organizational identification increased by 0.786 units; and when organizational identification increased by one unit, turnover intention decreased by 0.506 units. Hence, H7 was validated. Work values have a negative effect on turnover intention through occupational well-being and organizational identification successively. The results of the study by C. Q. Du (2020) on the influence of turnover intention of workers in the manufacturing sector showed that: the professional identification of employees in the manufacturing sector is negatively related to their turnover intention; employees' occupational well-being is negatively related to their turnover intention. Based on the above discussion, millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, as the only children generation, grew up in an environment which made them more focused on their self-perception. Occupational well-being directly affects self-perceptions, thus affecting person-organization fit and individuals' organizational identification. The sequential mediation shows that the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry can also influence organizational identification through influencing occupational well-being, thus ultimately influencing turnover intention .

6.3 Research implications

6.3.1 Managerial implications

6.3.1.1 Implications for managers

Based on the research findings, this thesis puts forward relevant management recommendations for managers in the following aspects.

According to the research model and empirical results, work values do not directly influence organizational identification and turnover intention, but rather influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being and negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification. Besides, occupational well-being fully mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification. These findings serve as a reminder to managers that the work values of millennial employees are a management issue that deserve the attention of manufacturing enterprises which must adjust and improve their recruitment and management strategies and measures to provide a strong human capital guarantee for the sustainable development of enterprises. However, it is not enough to just focus on the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. What is more important is to enhance their occupational well-being so that their work values can be evaluated and realised in the work process. According to the items of the Work Values Scale and Occupational Well-being Scale, millennial employees in the manufacturing industry value such factors as flexible working hours, job income, career development and family support. ANOVA results showed significant differences in all variables among groups with different types of marital status. Manufacturing enterprises should satisfy the career development needs of millennial employees as much as possible, allow them to have work-life balance and obtain family support to enhance their occupational well-being, thereby ensuring their work values to be evaluated and realised.

First, manufacturing enterprises should make suitable career development plans according to millennial employees with different academic qualifications to meet their needs of self-development and the common growth of individuals and organizations. Sound career development can not only enhance the well-being of employees at work, but also meet the needs of the long-term development dimension of millennial employees' work values.

Second, manufacturing enterprises should establish a reasonable salary mechanism. Based on the questionnaire survey results, the salary level of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry is generally not competitive. However, salary is the basic life guarantee for them as well as foundation for family support. Manufacturing enterprises should consider the characteristics of millennial employees to establish a reasonable remuneration system, which should reflect both competitiveness and internal fairness. Following the principle of inspiring employees to share the development of the organization, manufacturing enterprises should take measures to mobilize millennials' work initiative and satisfy their sense of gain, thereby enhancing their occupational well-being.

Third, reasonable working hours should be designed. The questionnaire survey results show that millennial employees in the manufacturing industry generally work overtime. Enterprises should develop working schedules, fully consider the actual needs of millennial employees, design working hours flexibly, try their best to control monthly working hours within the national statutory working hours, and ensure a balance between work and family for employees. These measures are not only conducive to enhancing the occupational well-being of employees in the manufacturing industry but are also in line with the intrinsic-factors preference dimension of work values, thus increasing the degree of fit between their work values and organizational values and allowing their work values to be evaluated and realised in the work process.

Finally, manufacturing enterprises should build a good atmosphere of interaction between the company and the family. Family well-being and employees' occupational well-being influence each other. Long working hours, low job income and imbalance between work and life of employees in the manufacturing industry can all reduce their family well-being. Therefore, enriching the communication methods between the enterprise and the family helps to strengthen employees' family members' understanding of and identification with the enterprise, thus enhancing the employees' sense of belonging to the enterprise and occupational well-being, which helps build a firm backline for millennial employees.

From the perspective of reducing turnover rate and based on the variance analysis by demographic characteristics, gender, length of service, age and education level all have an impact on turnover intention. Due to the high proportion of male employees in the manufacturing industry, managers should prioritise optimising both career development and salary packages given the fact that male employees are more concerned about career development and income. Job burnout is

evident among millennial employees in the manufacturing industry, with those who have been working in an organization for five to ten years showing the highest level of turnover intention. Managers need to take appropriate measures to help employees get through burnout. For example, they may adopt a more people-oriented management style to allow millennial employees to feel more relaxed and freer at work and establish a shift mechanism to keep their work fresh and improve their professional skills. In terms of age, the post-80s showed the highest level of turnover intention. Thus, manufacturing enterprises should focus on helping them with their career planning and enhance their career skills to cope with the evolving future. Regarding education, employees who had received technical secondary school or senior high school education were the key players in the manufacturing industry, but they exhibited the highest level of turnover intention. In response, managers should help this group of millennial employees do a good job in career planning according to their abilities and coach them whether to take the technical route or the management route to stabilise the workforce.

6.3.1.2 Implications for millennial employees in the manufacturing industry

Based on the findings of the empirical studies, suggestions are given to millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Firstly, it is recommended that millennial employees who have received graduate education or above join the manufacturing industry. This is because highly educated employees are conducive to improving the management and technical standards of the manufacturing industry, and their own career development and values will be better realised in the manufacturing industry nowadays. Secondly, China's manufacturing industry is in a period of transformation and upgrading with many high quality enterprises, its future development will be fully in line with Europe, the U.S. and Japan. So, the salary and benefits of employees are bound to be improved. The characteristics of work in the manufacturing industry determine that it is necessary for employees to accumulate certain working hours before they can assume certain responsibilities. Millennial employees should be good at finding the entry point and combination of self-worth in it; finally, in the present manufacturing industry, management positions and technical skills are still the main measurements of employees' salaries. Therefore, millennial employees should constantly improve their professional qualities and skill level. This can enable them to directly increase their career income in the short term, while allowing them to cope with the requirements of the rapid development of the manufacturing industry in the long term.

6.3.1.3 Implications for society

The sustainable development of China's manufacturing industry needs to address the contradiction between millennial employees' values of pursuing personal interests (values and well-being) and the low wages and frequent/long overtime work reflected in this study.

As China's demographic dividend is facing a new inflection point, the government and society should pay more substantial attention to stabilise millennial employees in manufacturing enterprises and prevent their turnover. The current public opinion in China is not friendly to the manufacturing industry, and employees of the manufacturing industry were once at the bottom of the stigmatization chain both materially and spirituality. The society should give them their due respect and status, so that more millennial employees will be willing to work in the manufacturing industry. The government should, on the one hand, formulate more industry policies to meet the actual needs of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. For example, some cities have classified senior technicians as high-level talents and have provided them with corresponding policy support and children's education policy support to encourage people to work in the manufacturing industry and be able to actually feel the benefits of joining the manufacturing industry, thereby enhancing their occupational well-being; on the other hand, the root cause of the long working hours and low salary of employees in the manufacturing industry lies in the distribution of corporate profits and personal interests. The government should introduce more preferential tax and incentive policies to the manufacturing industry to encourage enterprises to transform the benefits of tax relief more into improving the income of employees; lastly, the government should vigorously develop vocational skills education to improve the career development needs of employees in the manufacturing industry and continuously deliver talents with professional skills to the manufacturing industry to not only stabilise the existing manufacturing workforce but also continuously inject new blood into the manufacturing industry.

6.3.2 Theoretical and practical implications

This study has enriched and validated the application of the needs-based theories of motivation, intergenerational theory and organizational identification theory in China's manufacturing sector. The present thesis studied millennial employees with due consideration of the characteristics of the manufacturing industry. It adds to the existing literature on millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. It also extends the research theoretical framework based on the needs-

based theories of motivation and intergenerational theory.

The study enriches the research on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. (1) Work values negatively influence turnover intention through two pathways: in the first pathway, work values negatively influence turnover intention by influencing occupational well-being; and in the second pathway, work values negatively impact turnover intention through a sequential indirect effect via (a) occupational well-being and subsequent (b) organizational identification (2) Occupational well-being and organizational identification fully mediate the negative influence of work values on turnover intention. The two pathways show multiple mediation, while the second pathway exhibits sequential mediation. (3) Occupational well-being fully mediates the relationship between work values and organizational identification. The study on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry is an extension of the current research on this topic.

This study is conducive for manufacturing enterprises to understand the actual needs of millennial employees. It identifies and analyses the reasons why millennial employees in the manufacturing industry quit their jobs and offers countermeasures to reduce the turnover rate. In this way, it can help promote the high-quality development of the manufacturing industry.

6.4 Research limitations and prospects

This thesis conducts an empirical study on how the work values of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry affect their turnover intention in light of the background of the manufacturing industry. Based on the existing studies, a theoretical research model on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry was constructed according to the reality of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and existing research results. Two empirical studies validated the proposed research hypotheses. The theoretical research and empirical studies of this thesis have initially yielded some results. But due to the nature and scope of this thesis and the limited data available, this thesis still has some limitations, which require further exploration in the future.

6.4.1 Research limitations

The representativeness, extensiveness and rationality of the data need to be further improved. This thesis produced and distributed 1,052 questionnaires to millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Due to limitations in available resources and range of contacts, the sample did not cover different regions of the country. As a result, the survey results could not reflect the opinions and suggestions of millennial employees in different regions, different types of manufacturing industries and with different income levels. This limitation affects the adequacy of the empirical research. In other words, the representativeness and extensiveness of the results of the empirical studies need to be further strengthened.

The depth of exploration on the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry needs to be increased. At present, some empirical studies have been conducted on the relationship between work values and turnover intention, and some research results have been achieved. However, there are not many studies that place the research context in the manufacturing industry and choose millennial employees in the manufacturing industry as sample. Although this thesis has made a preliminary exploration, it does not provide an in-depth and thorough understanding of the manufacturing industry and millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. Besides, due to limitations in the author's own ability and scope of knowledge, the underlying relationship between the two variables still needs to be explored in greater depth.

6.4.2 Research prospects

The following suggestions can be taken into consideration for further research on the same topic. Future research could try to analyse the influence of other factors on the relationship between work values and turnover intention, such as whether place identity plays a role in the relationship between work values and turnover intention. Research can also be conducted to test the mediating effects among the post-90s and the post-80s separately. Such endeavours can help establish a more sophisticated research framework for studying millennial employees in the manufacturing industry.

Future researchers may increase the sample size to collect more questionnaire data. With millennial employees in the manufacturing industry as survey population, random sampling can be conducted in a large geographical area and more manufacturing industries and fields to collect

more opinions and suggestions from millennial employees in the manufacturing industry so that the research findings can be more representative and better generalised.

Future studies can further explore the relationship between the work values and turnover intention of millennial employees in the manufacturing industry and further explore the mechanisms by which occupational well-being and organizational identification mediate the aforementioned relationship. Further research may explore the dimensions and specificities of work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention among millennial employees in the manufacturing industry as well as the internal mechanism and manifestations of the relationship between work values and turnover intention among millennial employees in the manufacturing industry. By doing so, the research results can be better applied to management practice to continuously enrich the theoretical research on work values, occupational well-being, organizational identification and turnover intention.

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Annex A: Survey Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam,

Thank you for your participation in filling out this questionnaire! This questionnaire is designed to understand the working conditions of employees in the manufacturing industry in China. It is intended for research purpose only. It does not involve any personal privacy or interests. The survey will be conducted anonymously, and all the information will be kept strictly confidential. Thanks for your support!

Part 1: Your understanding of work

Please tick the number that best corresponds to your view in each of the following statements.

(The options are classified into five levels, from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”)

No.	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My job should provide me with a good salary package.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My job salary should continuously increase.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I pursue maximization of my own interests at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I should get equivalent payoff for hard work.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My job should be in alignment with my interests.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My job should be valuable and important.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My job should be interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My job should allow for flexible working hours.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The work atmosphere should be harmonious.	1	2	3	4	5
10	The leaders and superiors should be approachable.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Co-workers should respect each other.	1	2	3	4	5
12	The team should have good interpersonal relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The work philosophy should be innovative.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I like engaging in challenging work.	1	2	3	4	5

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No.	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
15	The work I am engaged in is not routinized but requires thinking and innovation.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I like engaging in innovative work.	1	2	3	4	5
17	My job should allow for good room for development.	1	2	3	4	5
18	My job should have good development prospects.	1	2	3	4	5
19	My job should promise a good career development plan.	1	2	3	4	5
20	The employer should provide us with a sound promotion mechanism.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: Your views on your current job

Please tick the number that best corresponds to your current job.

(The options are classified into five levels, from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”)

No.	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I can grow and develop in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My abilities are fully developed and demonstrated in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My job has bright development prospects.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My present job meets the needs of my interests.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My job is uplifting and challenging.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am able to recognize my past performance in my work and continue to work hard.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I receive coordination and assistance from my co-workers at work.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My work is understood and supported by my family.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I have very good relationships with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I can adapt well to my present work environment.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I am good at seizing opportunities and creating a favourable work environment.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 3: Your views on your company's present situation

Please tick the number that best corresponds to your company's present situation.

(The options are classified into five levels, from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”)

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No.	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My company is characterized by interpersonal harmony.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My company has a good social reputation and social image.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I identify with the organizational culture and values of my company.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My company has a good work atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The work I am currently engaged in is very helpful for enhancing my personal abilities and qualities.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Promotion channels in my company are smooth.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My company's benefits and salary levels are satisfactory to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My company is able to plan and start a career for me.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The work I am engaged in is interesting and challenging.	1	2	3	4	5
10	My company's success is also my own success.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I feel happy when my company is successful, and I feel worried when my company is in trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I feel insulted when someone criticizes my company.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Leaders care about and support my work.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I am willing to obey the work arrangement made by leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Leaders can provide positive feedback on my work.	1	2	3	4	5

Part 4: Personal information

Please tick the relevant option out of the available options below.

1. What is your gender:

(1) Male

(2) Female

2. What is your age?

- (1) 18-25 years old (2) 26-30 years old
(3) 31-35 years old (4) 36-41 years old
(5) Above 41 years old

3. What is your marital status?

- (1) Married (2) Unmarried (3) Other (such as divorced)

4. What is your education background?

- (1) Junior high school education or below
(2) High school or technical secondary school education
(3) Junior college or college education (4) Graduate education or above

5. What is your job position?

- (1) Grassroots employee (2) Grassroots manager/technician
(3) Middle manager/technician (4) Senior manager/technician

6. What is your length of work in the current company?

- (1) No more than 1 year (2) 2 years
(3) 2-5 years (4) 5-10 years
(5) More than 10 years

7. This year is 2018.

- (1) Yes (2) No

8. What is the work schedule of your current post?

- (1) 8-hour work system: Single-day off Double-day off Single or double-day off (2) Two shifts
(3) Three shifts (4) Four shifts
(5) Other

9. Your actual working hours per month currently (21.75 standard working days per year = 174 hours)

- (1) Working hours < 174 hours (2) Working hours = 174 hours
(3) 174 hours < Working hours ≤ 240 hours
(4) 240 hours < Working hours ≤ 360 hours
(5) Working hours > 360 hours (6) Other

10. Your current monthly salary (Monthly income before deduction of social insurance premium, provident fund and personal income tax)

- (1) Less than 5000 yuan (2) 5000-10000 yuan
(3) 10001-15000 yuan (4) 15001-20000 yuan

(5) 20001-30000 yuan.

(6) More than 30000 yuan

Part 5: Future development expectations

Please tick the number that best corresponds to your current views.

(The options are classified into five levels, from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”)

No.	Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I often think about quitting my present job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I would probably look for a new job in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I have no plan for a long-term career in the company.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you again for your support and help!