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Generational competence and retention : a study of different generations in law enforcement and how these differences impact retention in the Chesterfield County Police Department

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GENERATIONAL COMPETENCE AND RETENTION: A STUDY OF DIFFERENT
GENERATIONS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT AND HOW THESE DIFFERENCES
IMPACT RETENTION IN THE CHESTERFIELD COUNTY POLICE DEPARTMENT

By

GARY SCOTT EDWARDS

Master's in Human Resource Management

University of Richmond

May, 2007

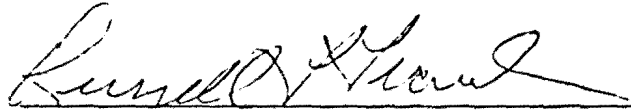
Dr. Russell Lomax Leonard, Jr., Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

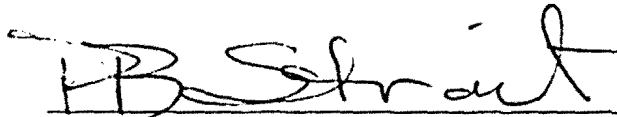
There are currently four distinct generations in today's workforce (Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials). This presents unique challenges for employers since each of these generations is affected and shaped by different events in their lives, which define the values they bring to work. These differences can be increasingly difficult to manage and may lead to conflicts. Significant research has been conducted in this area, but little has focused on public sector employees, specifically sworn law enforcement officers. This research examines whether generational differences observed in society as a whole are the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers from different generational backgrounds. The data tends to support that differences do exist and that police officers within the Chesterfield County Police Department do not believe that the organization is generationally competent. This oversight adversely affects the retention efforts of the department.

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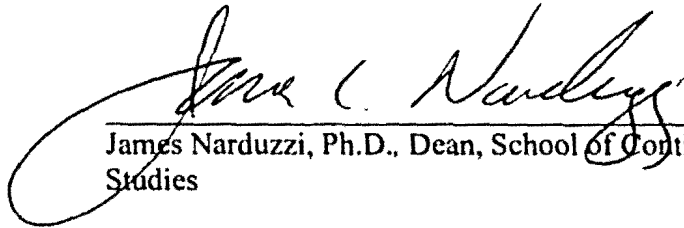
I certify that I have read this thesis and find that, in scope and quality, it satisfies the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts/Master of Science.



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GARY SCOTT EDWARDS

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A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the University of Richmond

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MASTER

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INTRODUCTION

Rationale for Selection

Reasons for selecting the specific topic. Private and public sector organizations in the United States face a major challenge as they all struggle to find quality employees to fill their vacancies. This struggle may not get any easier over the next several years if projections of worker shortages are accurate. The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) estimates that 22 million jobs will be created over the next decade, with only 17 million new employees entering the workforce to fill these jobs (Gresham, 2006). Outsourcing, pending retirements of baby boomer employees, and rapid changes in technology, represent several of the factors driving what might be the next U.S. talent war. In describing the necessary symptoms for a talent war, Beverly Kaye and Sharon Jordan-Evans advise that, “when demand outstrips supply, you're in a talent war . . . when you compete for top talent, steal them from your competitors and pray they'll stay with you . . . you're in a talent war” (Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2005, p. 12). Current projections might indicate that many organizations have reached the tipping point and are now in the midst of such a talent war.

Who will win these talent wars? Many believe that private sector employers will continue to win the talent wars, in many cases, because they understand “that high performing companies are marked by a belief among their leaders that superior talent brings about a competitive advantage” (Shaw, 2005, p. F1). To win the talent wars, private sector employers will continue to invest capital in the quest to find the best and the brightest talent. The general consensus in both the public and private sectors is that

those with the deepest pockets will win this talent war; this is not necessarily the case, however (Shaw, 2005). It might be true that private sector employers will generally offer better pay and benefits than those in the public sector, but to compete, public sector employers must offer top performers “a job that they truly love” (Zeller, 2005, p. 20). In addition to creating a satisfying work environment, public sector employers also need to develop a better understanding of the challenges they face in order to compete. These challenges include:

1. A looming worker shortage caused by the impending retirement of Baby Boomers
 2. A negative public image resulting from decades of government bashing
 3. Changing employee attitudes about jobs and careers
 4. Rapid changes in technology that require new skills
 5. Budget problems that limit compensation and financial incentives
 6. Inability to effectively deal with poor performers
 7. Complicated, slow, and user-unfriendly human resource systems.
- (Lavigna, 2005a, p. 46)

Some of these challenges are unique to public sector employers, while others universally affect all employers. To succeed, public sector employers must focus on the areas where they can have the greatest impact because the public sector will not win bidding wars. To compete in the talent wars, public sector employers need to capitalize on their number one resource, their people.

One area where public sector employers can have the greatest success is to become aware of the similarities and differences inherent in the different generations in their workforce. There are currently four generations in the workplace: Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials [NOTE: These generations will be further

defined in the Literature Review]. In developing awareness of these different generations, employers will develop the generational competence needed to survive in these talent wars. Dealing with generational differences involves developing “detailed knowledge of what makes each generation stay or leave, produce or not” (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 10). Employers that develop generationally competent methods of dealing with generational differences will differentiate themselves because they will be better suited to tap the potential of talent today, tomorrow, and into the future. These employers will understand that employees from different generations have much to offer companies in terms of knowledge, talent, and experience. The goal for public sector employers is to develop an understanding of these characteristics and to develop retention strategies that build upon the strengths while diminishing the weaknesses of each generation. Developing a method for dealing with a variety of generational competencies is a decisive point for public sector agencies in winning the talent wars.

Reasons for selecting organization. Within the public sector arena, law enforcement agencies have found that they are not immune to the challenges faced in this war for talent. Police departments and other law enforcement agencies are forced to compete with both private sector and other public sector employers. Many police departments have become training grounds where other employers come to siphon off the best and the brightest talent. Across the United States, “more than 80% of the nation’s 17,000 law enforcement agencies, big and small, have vacancies that many can’t fill” (Pomfret, 2006). Many agencies across Virginia have found themselves in this exact

position. After losing over 300 officers in five years, Charlie Deane, the Prince William County Police Chief, recognized that his department was consistently losing officers to higher-paying jobs in a variety of industries (Stewart, 2005). In talking about these losses, Deane advised that “most officers leave within the first five years, young people are going wherever the money is” (Stewart, 2005, p. T03). Law enforcement agencies throughout the Richmond Metropolitan area are having similar issues retaining officers. In 2005, the Virginia State Police reported a shortage of 60 to 80 positions statewide (Angle, 2005). A police recruiter in Henrico County recently stated that they are currently facing shortages of approximately 60 officers and expect that number to climb as retirements continue to increase (personal communication, January 20, 2007). Kimberly Lettner, the newly appointed Virginia Capitol Police Chief, identified recruitment and retention as one of her biggest challenges in taking over the Capital Police (Stallsmith, 2006). Recruitment and retention of officers has become an issue for law enforcement throughout the area.

The organization that this study examines is the Chesterfield County Police, which is not immune from this struggle of finding and retaining quality talent. The department is currently in the midst of a talent war as it fights to find the personnel necessary to achieve its goals and objectives. To effectively serve the citizens of Chesterfield County and successfully enforce the laws of the Commonwealth, the department needs to hire additional sworn police officers and consistently work to retain its workforce to meet the demands of the growing population. As part of its strategic plan, the department set a goal of reaching 500 sworn police officers by 2006 (Strategic

Plan: FY2006 - 2010, 2005). As of November 1, 2005, the department's current strength was 436 sworn police officers (Scott, 2005a). Nearly a year later, the department had increased its strength to 453 sworn police officers, still 47 officers short of the goal (Scott, 2006a). Since 1999, the department has lost 223 sworn police officers for a variety of reasons, compounding the problem of reaching the goal to reach 500 sworn officers (Scott, 2006b). The department's latest goal is to employ 550 sworn officers by 2009, which means Chesterfield will need to hire just under a hundred officers over the next three years (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006). Couple this with a large number of baby boomers that are expected to retire during the same period and one will see that Chesterfield's predicament, like most other law enforcement agencies, might only get worse.

Chesterfield County's hiring practices, which are similar to other area law enforcement agencies, further demonstrate this struggle to find quality talent. Law enforcement agencies throughout the Richmond Metropolitan area have begun hiring lateral transfers, sworn police officers trained, certified, and employed by other departments, and have expanded recruiting efforts up and down the East coast to reach hiring goals. These actions demonstrate an example of how different law enforcement agencies are competing for the same talent, even when that talent is employed and trained by a neighboring agency. Thus, the Chesterfield County Police Department is in a talent war, competing against other law enforcement agencies as well as private sector organizations to find quality talent.

Are the losses and hiring woes being experienced by these police departments the result of shifts in generational values or is something else to blame? Steve Carter, of the Denver Police academy, believes that today's generation of police officers has changed:

We are losing a culture and changing, but I think that's inevitable - the department has evolved considerably in the past 30 years. The kinds of people we are hiring are different, and the kinds of training we are putting them through is vastly different. (Crecente, 2005, p.4a)

Every year, the number of Baby Boomers retiring from the ranks increases in departments across the nation, while the next generation's labor pool seems to be smaller (Pomfret, 2006). In terms of the younger generations, they are generally "better educated than [their] predecessor[s], so a career in policing, where the average starting salary is \$32,000, is not as attractive as it was before" (Pomfret, 2006). These points seem to support the idea that there is a generational difference in law enforcement today. With the proliferation of crime, drug abuse, terrorism, and gang violence, the need to recruit and retain the best and the brightest police officers has never been greater (Jennings, 2005). Due to these crime trends, law enforcement agencies today can no longer afford the revolving door retention strategies that have already proven to be fruitless in the both the private and public sectors. In developing generational competence, police departments can create a better understanding of today's police officer and potential recruits, which should ultimately translate into developing retention strategies that engage today's generationally diverse workforce.

There were several reasons that the Chesterfield County Police Department was chosen as the focus of this research. The primary reason was because I have a vested

interest, as both an employee and as a citizen, in how the department operates today and into the future. I have been employed by Chesterfield County for over nine years. In that time, I have risen through the ranks to become a sergeant within the organization. As a first line supervisor, I supervise and work with officers from three of the four distinct generations in the workplace today: Baby boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials. Developing an understanding of the values and perspectives of workers from these different generations is imperative in order to successfully engage and develop these officers. As a citizen of Chesterfield County, it is important to know that tax revenues are spent wisely. Public sector employers can differentiate themselves by implementing effective retention strategies that ultimately save money in terms of turnover costs and preventing “brain drain” in the organization. Public sector employers do have to compete for both business and public interests, which they will not win if they are not fiscally responsible. As a Generation X employee, I have personally observed many of the generational conflicts cited in the research while working in Chesterfield County, so I believe that generational conflict does exist to a certain degree within the department. Finally, the topic of generational differences and retention interests me as a human resource student and potential future practitioner in the human resource field. How the Chesterfield County Police Department responds in terms of recruitment and retention will be a point of differentiation between them and other law enforcement agencies. For the Chesterfield County Police Department to succeed in winning the talent wars, they need to develop strategies that not only appeal to today’s police officer or potential recruit, but that also address the challenges identified earlier.

Significance of the Topic

In conducting this research, the purpose is to better define the characteristics of the different generations in the workforce. A vast majority of the research on different generations focuses attention on employees as a whole. Very little relevant research exists that examines generational differences in public sector employees, specifically law enforcement officers. Due to the nature of the job, police officers tend to be different from the average employee. People who gravitate to careers in law enforcement generally are not interested in fame or fortune, whereas many employees in the private sector are driven by financial gains. When an individual goes through the police officer hiring process, they know from the beginning that it is not a job where they will make a lot of money. A goal of this research is to add to the existing body of research by addressing whether generational differences identified in society as a whole also apply to this microcosm of police officers.

Although finding and recruiting key talent is extremely important, retaining that talent is the key to sustaining the organization. A study by SHRM suggests that over three quarters of employees are looking to change jobs at any one time (Gresham, 2006). Once a person decides to become a police officer, how does an organization keep that talent from leaving and going to another law enforcement agency? This research should help to determine whether generational differences play a role in retaining police officers in the Chesterfield County Police Department. If a correlation is found, strategies will be recommended to improve the generational competence of this department, which should improve the department's ability to retain officers.

The final reason why this research is important deals with the increasing costs associated with turnover. There is a significant body of research that demonstrates the fiscal impact of voluntary turnover. In addition to fiscal losses, there is also a loss of knowledge, skills, and abilities, commonly referred to as brain drain, which accompanies voluntary turnover. Overcoming financial loss may not be as crippling for an organization as overcoming this loss of knowledge. Multiple studies indicate that more and more employees are looking to leave their current employer for a new job. A 2005 Salary.com study indicated that 65% of employees were actively looking to jump to “greener pastures,” while a SHRM study found 76% of employees were in this position (Gresham, 2006). With so many employees looking to leave, the cost issue is compounded. Most agree that it costs more to recruit a new employee than it does to retain an individual already on the job (Gresham, 2006). This research will review the body of literature on turnover costs, examining both the tangible and intangible costs. An examination of turnover costs for the Chesterfield County Police Department should better demonstrate the need to implement sound retention strategies.

Delimitations

The focus of this research is to define the values of the different generations and to determine whether generational differences impact the retention of officers, specifically in the Chesterfield County Police Department. Even though there are only three generations working in the Chesterfield County Police Department, all four generations will be examined in this research because many researchers believe that the Millennial Generation mirrors many of the attributes of the Veteran Generation. Zemke,

Raines, and Filipczak (2000) support this contention with their research that contends that the Millennials are most similar to the Veteran Generation in terms of values, moral code, and their sense of duty. In their book, *Millennials Rising: The Next Great Generation*, Neil Howe and William Strauss lend more credence to the idea that the Millennial Generation is similar to the Veteran Generation. Howe and Strauss (2000) suggest that generations are cyclical in nature and that every fourth generation is a hero generation. Howe and Strauss (2000) describe several similarities between the Millennial Generation and the Veteran Generation, which they refer to as the G.I. Generation:

When you strip away the modern trappings of the present day, you can see how the G.I.s, through the early 1920s, bore much in common with Millennials up to now. From birth, they were seen as a special generation – protected from harm, pressured to behave, prodded to achieve. They were born after a raucous era that historians liken to the 1960s, and grew up in times historians liken to now. They followed a (Lost) generation that resembled Gen Xers, and were shaped by a middle-age (Missionary) generation of Boomer-like culture warriors. (p. 326)

Additionally, this research is intended to add to the overall body of work on generational differences and retention, so Veterans should be included in the discussion because other law enforcement agencies very likely employ members of this generation.

Recruitment, although an important piece to this puzzle, will not be a focus of this research. Sergeant Mark Banks, a Henrico County Police supervisor and a classmate, is focusing on retention and generational differences as part of his thesis. Due to the close relationship between our topics, we have worked in conjunction with one another to develop our survey instrument and we plan on presenting our findings together, while keeping our overall research independent.

Another area that will not be addressed by this research is whether there is indeed going to be a worker shortage in coming years. Although SHRM's data suggests that this possibility exists, researchers do not seem to be able to come up with a consensus. Multiple researchers make the argument that there will be a shortage of workers, diminishing of skills or loss of experience in the workforce that they attribute to a variety of factors (Losey, 2005; Graig, Haley, Luss, & Schieber, 2002; Jamrog, 2004; Noble, 2006; Carnevale, 2005; Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004). Many of these researchers cite the pending retirements of Baby Boomers, the smaller size of Generation X, the final plateau of growth in the labor force, and changes in lifestyles as the primary reasons why there will be a worker shortage (Graig et al., 2002; Piktialis & Morgan, 2003; Jamrog, 2004; Frank et al., 2004; Carnevale, 2005; Losey, 2005; Reynolds, 2005; Noble, 2006). Researchers that argue against worker shortages cite fallacies in Bureau of Labor and Statistics data, increasing productivity in the workplace, studies that indicate that Baby Boomers will work longer than past generations, the influx of Millennials into the workforce, and increases in life expectancy as some of the evidence that support their claims (Cappelli, 2005; Grossman, 2005; Burns & Concelman, 2006). What each of these researchers has in common is their general belief that employers should develop strategies to engage the workers that they do have, whether there is a shortage or not (Graig et al., 2002; Piktialis & Morgan, 2003; Jamrog, 2004; Losey, 2005; Carnevale, 2005; Cappelli, 2005; Grossman, 2005; Reynolds, 2005; Burns & Concelman, 2006; Noble, 2006). There also seems to be little dispute that we are in the midst of a talent war, especially in law enforcement where agencies are all competing over what seems to

be a scarce supply of quality recruits. The issue for this research is whether generational differences play a role in retaining this talent and, if this is the case, developing strategies to counter this affect. We may not know today or tomorrow whether this worker shortage will materialize, but, as human resource practitioners, we do have a duty to plan contingencies for this possibility and it is hard to argue against developing strategies to engage workers even if there is no shortage.

In terms of public sector organizations, does employing superior talent bring about a competitive advantage as previously suggested? For private sector employers, there is little debate on whether superior talent brings competitive advantage. Research suggests that “the average return for shareholders of the top talent-focused companies is more than tenfold that of the least talent-focused companies” (Laing, 2005). Studies have also shown that “effective recruitment, retention, and people-productivity programs offer among the highest financial returns and payback of any business improvement initiative” (Workforce Consulting Group, n.d.). Research reported in Contented Cows Give Better Milk provides quantitative support for developing talent-centered programs within an organization. The study included “six firms who consistently ranked near the top in both listings of ‘best companies to work for’ as well as rankings of financial performance” (Workforce Consulting Group, n.d.). The study involved a ten-year retrospective financial analysis (1986-1995) comparing the six top companies, referred to as “contented cow” companies (Hewlett-Packard, FedEx, General Electric, Southwest Airlines, Wal-Mart, and 3M), to six average companies, referred to as “common cow” companies (Texas Instruments, Consolidated Freightways, General Motors, United

Airlines, Sears, and Xerox) (Workforce Consulting Group, n.d.). The study found the following:

1. The 10-year sales growth for the six contented cow firms was 226% compared to 48% for their counterparts (with 5 of the 6 best practice firms outgrowing their peers by a substantial margin). This represented a margin of roughly 4:1;
2. The 10-year revenue growth/employee was 3x as much for those firms with effective human resource and people practices (\$169,597 per employee compared to \$57,989);
3. Net income of the high performing companies grew by 202% over the 10-year research period compared to 139% for their competitors;
4. In raw dollars, the six best practice organizations generated nearly \$40 billion more cash over the 10-year period;
5. The average 10-year net income per employee for the higher performing companies was \$551,965 compared to \$167,016 for their counterparts;
6. The six “contented cow” companies generated an average of 79,000 new jobs per company while their counterparts lost an average of 61,000 jobs per company (a net difference of better than 800,000 jobs). (Workforce Consulting Group, n.d.)

The “contented cow” companies consistently out performed the “common cow” companies in this study, in terms of sales, profits, and company growth. When the research was replicated in 2002, similar results were found:

1. The six “contented cow” firms continued to outgrow their counterparts during the five years (54.5% to 2.4%);
2. The “contented cow” companies out earned their competitors by better than \$70 billion during the five years, including a 3:1 advantage in net income per employee;
3. The “contented cow” companies enjoyed a market capitalization almost 10 times that of their peers. (Workforce Consulting Group, n.d.)

The problem with this information is that this is not a study of private sector employers, a point brought to my attention by Major Thierry Dupuis, the Operations Support Bureau

commander and a department advisor on this thesis. Major Dupuis recognized that "superior talent brings about a competitive advantage" in the private sector, but questioned whether this is also true in the public sector, particularly in policing (personal communication, August 9, 2006). Major Dupuis pointed out that "there is no competition for police services; we hold a monopoly on policing in Chesterfield" (personal communication, August 9, 2006). He went on to point out that citizens do not shop around for police services at the local, state, or federal level (personal communication, August 9, 2006). Major Dupuis' second point was that "the most successful police agencies, those that put out the lowest crime stats are typically rewarded with fewer personnel, lower budgets, and fewer grant awards . . . more money is usually thrown to those that are less effective" (personal communication, August 9, 2006). On both accounts, he is correct. If a crime occurs in Chesterfield County, there is very little that a citizen can do to get another law enforcement agency to investigate or deal with that situation since the organization would most likely lack jurisdiction. A recent proposal by Governor Timothy M. Kaine to change the crime-aid formula, which is the formula used to decide how much state aid is provided to combat crime in different localities, supports his second contention (Martz, 2007). The new formula would "reallocate 40% of the new money to the 20 localities with the highest crime rates" (Martz, 2007, p.B1). As Major Dupuis suggested, the new formula would allot more money to localities that were less effective in controlling crime. While I agree with Major Dupuis' points for the most part, I do believe that there are aspects of competitive advantage that do apply to public sector employers. How this competitive advantage is measured in the public sector differs

greatly from the way it is measured in the private sector. For example, governments do compete to attract citizens and businesses to their jurisdictions. Whether or not a family or business moves to Chesterfield County could be affected to a degree by their perception of our police department and how we respond to issues within this jurisdiction. This research will accept, to a certain degree, the idea that public sector employers benefit in some manner from having great employees, but, just as debating worker shortage is probably best left to future research, further discussion on whether having superior talent provides a competitive advantage within the public sector is a topic that is also better suited for future research.

Client

History. The Chesterfield County Police Department has a rich history spanning over 100 years. Public documents provide the first mention of a police force in Chesterfield on March 26, 1900 (Lescault, 2005/2006). The record indicates that the county's two officers went before the Circuit Court to request their first raise, to total \$40 a month (Lescault, 2005/2006). The force grew over the next couple of years. By November 9, 1914, the department was formally established by the county Board of Supervisors and a chief, Alonza T. Traylor, was appointed to manage the department (Lescault, 2005/2006). The department's five officers, including the chief, were responsible for enforcing laws, turning streetlights on and off, and maintaining traffic lights (Lescault, 2005/2006). By 1918, Chief Traylor was given \$84 a year by the Board of Supervisors to rent a car "four days a month to curb speeding on the turnpike" (Lescault, 2005/2006, p.25). The department received official recognition from the

Virginia General Assembly in April 1924 when legislation was passed authorizing the creation of the police department (Lescault, 2005/2006). The county's population at the time was approximately 23,300 (Lescault, 2005/2006). With a salary of \$150 a month, Chief Traylor was confirmed as the department's first chief of police (Lescault, 2005/2006). Chief Traylor continued to manage the four police officers under his charge, each earning a monthly stipend of \$75 to \$135 (Lescault, 2005/2006). Over the course of the next several decades, the county and the department continued to grow. By 1949, the county's 40,400 citizens were protected by a total of fifteen police officers and three dispatchers (Lescault, 2005/2006). The county was in the midst of change as well during these decades, converting from its roots as a farming community to a suburban community. In 1950, a local paper reported that schools were overcrowded, the county lacked sufficient water resources, and the roads were inadequate for the booming population (Lescault, 2005/2006). By 1965, the department had grown to thirty-three officers, working eight beats (Lescault, 2005/2006). Call volumes at the time averaged ten to twelve a day (Lescault, 2005/2006). By the end of its first century in existence, the department has grown exponentially. In June 1996, the department employed approximately 270 police officers to serve a population of nearly 240,000 (Lescault, 2005/2006). Today, Chesterfield County is home to a diverse population of over 307,000 citizens (McAllister, 2006). Chesterfield County was the first jurisdiction in the Richmond Metropolitan area to surpass 300,000 residents and the fourth locality in the state to do so (McAllister, 2006). The population consists of citizens from every socio-economic, ethnic, and racial background. Chesterfield County comprises 446 square

miles, which range from sparsely populated rural areas to densely populated urban areas (*Chesterfield County Tourism*, 2005). As mentioned previously, approximately 453 sworn police officers currently serve this area (Scott, 2006a). The citizens of Chesterfield County overwhelmingly support the efforts of the Chesterfield County Police Department. In 2004, 91% rated police services as being excellent or good (*2004 Chesterfield County Citizen*, 2004). Since 1998, citizens have ranked “safety” as one of the top five qualities that they liked the best about living in Chesterfield County (*2004 Chesterfield County Citizen*, 2004). The Chesterfield County Police Department is responsible for all local law enforcement operations in the county.

Mission and Strategic plan. The mission of the Chesterfield County Police Department is to “provide a professional and unbiased response to the needs of the community” (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006, p.3). The Department’s goal is to “establish a partnership with the citizens in achieving a First Choice Community through excellence in public service” (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006, p.3). The values and principles which guide this Department are integrity, community safety, service, and quality (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006). These values and principles are the Department’s guide in developing its strategic plan and for running day-to-day operations.

In developing its strategic plan, the Department developed seven goals:

1. Establish, maintain, and enhance community partnerships, which helps ensure a safe community.
2. Maximize operational efficiency and deliver excellence in customer service.
3. Increase the proportion of crimes cleared by arrest.

4. Reduce and control criminal activity.
5. Provide effective policing and ensure continued public safety.
6. Increase citizen safety and perception of safety.
7. To be the law enforcement employer of choice. (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006, p.6)

To achieve these goals, the Department is divided into four major bureaus: (1) Uniform Operations, (2) Investigations, (3) Administrative Support, and (4) Operational Support (See Appendix A for Organizational Chart) (*Chesterfield County Police, 2007*). The Uniform Operations Bureau and the Investigations Bureau have primary responsibility over law enforcement operations. The Administrative Support Bureau supports operations by providing intelligence and records management. The Operational Support Bureau supports operations by providing training, property management, and community support.

The Uniform Operation Bureau is responsible for providing first response and initial investigation of all incidents. As first responders, officers are also responsible for the initial response to any incident within the county and conducting investigations into minor offenses (i.e. traffic offenses, simple frauds, and most other misdemeanor offenses). A Major is responsible for managing this bureau. The Uniform Operations Bureau is currently divided into two districts, consisting of two zones in each district. A Captain manages each district, while Lieutenants supervise the different zones within the district. Within the zones, officers work on one of three shifts – A-shift (2300 to 0800), B-shift (0700 to 1600), and C-Shift (1500 to 2400). Sergeants supervise the shifts, generally running squads of six to ten sworn police officers.

The Investigation Bureau is responsible for conducting investigations into major criminal offenses (i.e. murders, rapes, robberies, burglaries, complex frauds, drug trafficking, auto larcenies and most felony offenses). A Major is also responsible for managing this bureau. The Investigations Bureau is separated into two divisions, both led by Captains: (1) Criminal Investigations (CID) and (2) Special Investigations (SID). The Criminal Investigations Division is responsible for conducting criminal investigations into violent crimes and property crimes. The Criminal Investigations Division is divided into different units, which are led by Lieutenants. The Crimes Against Persons Unit investigates violent crimes (i.e. murders, rapes, robberies, felony assaults). The Crimes Against Property Unit investigates property crimes (i.e. burglaries, economic crimes, auto larcenies). Within each unit are different sections that are managed by Sergeants, in charge of anywhere between 5 to 10 detectives at any given time. The Special Investigations Division's primary responsibility is to conduct investigations dealing with vice/narcotics violations, locating fugitives, gathering intelligence, and processing evidence at crime scenes. This division is divided into separate units, which are supervised by Lieutenants. The Vice/Narcotics Unit investigates drug trafficking and vice violations. The Forensic Unit is responsible for processing crime scenes, which includes documenting, collecting, and processing evidence. The Anti-Crime/Fugitive Unit is responsible for gathering intelligence on suspected criminals and finding fugitives from justice. Each of these units is supported by at least one Sergeant and multiple detectives or civilian employees.

Future Challenges. Rapid population growth and the ever increasing number of businesses moving to the county are probably the most pressing issues for the police department. Two new massive neighborhoods are already in the planning stages within Chesterfield. Magnolia Green, a 4,886-home neighborhood, will start development in the spring of 2007, while Roseland, a 5,140 residence development, is currently passing through the rezoning process (McAllister, 2006). These two developments will join Brandermill, a 3,920-home neighborhood, and Woodlake, a 2,724-home neighborhood, to become the four largest housing developments in the state (McAllister, 2006). Some future projections have the population of Chesterfield County increasing to 350,000 by 2014, 400,000 by 2022, and 450,000 by 2030 (McAllister, 2006). Where there are people, stores and businesses will certainly follow. Chippenham Place, to be developed on the site of what is currently Cloverleaf Mall in Eastern Chesterfield County, will add 500 residences and 200,000 square feet of commercial space by 2011 (Bonny & Gilligan, 2007). Hancock Village, a planned shopping center to be located in Western Chesterfield, will encompass approximately 90-acres and will add 540,000 square feet of space (Gilligan, 2006). Hancock Village will be anchored by a 204,000 square foot Super Wal-Mart, a 103,000 square foot J.C. Penny, with several other possible tenants (Gilligan, 2006). Watkins Centre is a planned business park being located in Northern Chesterfield that will cover 800-acres (Walker, 2006). Chesterfield County will benefit from the additional tax revenues and jobs that these neighborhoods and businesses will bring, but each will also add costs in terms of additional services that are required to support this massive influx. For the police department, these additional citizens and new

businesses will result in higher call volumes, which results in the need for additional police officers. In the strategic plan, the police department recognizes that calls and assignments will increase over the next several years (See Figure 1). The police

■ Calls & Assignments

	CY2003	CY2004	CY2005	CY2006*	CY2007*	CY2008*
Calls & Assignments	212,095	223,870	218,247	221,000	223,000	225,000

*Forecast as of 5/31/06

Figure 1 (Source: Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006)

department uses these projections, coupled with population growth figures and other data, to forecast the number of sworn police officers that will be necessary to effectively serve this growing population. The problem is that these numbers are forecasts, so nobody knows for sure how accurate these projections will be ultimately. In reviewing the police department's population forecasts, they anticipated 298,000 citizens in 2006 and 305,000 citizens in 2007 (See Figure 2) (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006). The problem with

■ Ratio of officer to population

	CY2003 Actual	CY2004 Actual	CY2005 Actual	CY2006 Planned	CY2007 Planned	CY2008 Planned
Chesterfield County Population	278,000	284,000	291,000	298,000	305,000	311,000
Number of sworn officers	447	449	468	493	516	530
Ratio of officers per 1,000 population	1.61	1.58	1.61	1.65	1.69	1.70

Figure 2 (Source: Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006)

these forecasts is that, as of November 2006, Chesterfield County was home to 307,000, which exceeded the forecasts. In terms of officers, the Strategic Plan: FY2006 - 2010 (2005) listed a goal of employing 500 sworn police officers by 2006. Data provided by the department in September 2006 indicated that the current strength was 453 sworn police officers (Scott, 2006a). The Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011 (2006) forecasted 493 sworn police officers in 2006 (See Figure 2). Even if you dismiss the 2006 goal of 500 police sworn officers, the department was well short of the forecasts for officers in the Strategic Plan from FY2007 to 2011. When there is such rapid growth in the county, there is a challenge in providing adequate services that is compounded by retention issues.

Rapid population growth directly contributes to another challenge, the ever increasing cost of housing in Chesterfield County. With over 300,000 citizens looking for a place to live, the simple economics of supply and demand has an affect on housing costs. In the Richmond Metropolitan area, the average home sale price is \$238,000, while the average home price in Chesterfield County is \$270,415 (Bonny, 2006). As a rule, most realtors recommend that housing costs should not exceed more than 30 to 35% of one's income (Bonny, 2006). The average salary of a police officer in the Richmond Metropolitan area is just under \$40,000 a year, which means that the average police officer can afford a home in the \$140,000 to \$150,000 price range (Bonny, 2006). Finding a home in that price range in Chesterfield County is a difficult task. The affordable housing issue is not a phenomenon isolated to Chesterfield County; this is an issue across the country. The average government employee, no matter where they work

and reside, is rarely compensated at a comparable rate to a similarly qualified employee in the private sector, so these workers are limited in what they can afford in terms of housing. This is exemplified in Fairfax County, Virginia, where only 30% of that department's police officers live in the county because of sky rocketing housing costs (Flook, 2006). The housing problem is somewhat compounded by the police department's efforts to encourage officers to reside in the county through the take-home car policy. Officers who live in Chesterfield County are allowed to take their police issued car home and are allowed to use that vehicle, with certain restrictions, for personal use. Police officers who might otherwise look for affordable housing in an outlying county might be restricted because of the increased costs of commuting in personal vehicles, in terms of fuel, wear and tear, and other costs. These housing issues are, and will continue to be, a major factor in trying to retain employees.

The final major challenge deals with the potential fallout from the loss of retirement health benefits for county employees. In 2006, Lane Ramsey, the Chesterfield County Administer, announced that the county was cutting healthcare benefits for future retirees (Prestidge & Walker, 2006). Under the original plan, retiree healthcare was covered fully by the county. According to internal memorandums and news articles, the new plan does not affect current retirees and it grandfathers employees whose age and years of service in Chesterfield County combines to exceed 60 (Prestidge & Walker, 2006; P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). Current employees who do not meet these requirements are given a contribution by the county that progresses based on the number of years the employee has worked upon retirement

(Prestidge & Walker, 2006; P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). New employees, hired after July 1, 2006, can “purchase retiree health coverage at the county’s group rate,” but receive no contribution from the county (Prestidge & Walker, 2006; P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). The move was justified by ever increasing health costs. Retiree healthcare costs increased from \$5 million in 2001 to nearly \$12 million in 2006 (Prestidge & Walker, 2006; P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). Future projections indicate that retiree healthcare cost will increase to \$32 million by 2016 and \$100 million a year after 2030 under the previous plan (Prestidge & Walker, 2006; P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). Relative to costs, most understand that rising healthcare costs are a major issue in terms of sustaining fiscal solvency for both private and public sector employers. The Employment Policy Foundation estimates that average employer health costs will reach nearly \$11,000 per employee by 2010 (Employer Share of Health Benefit, 2003). The Employment Policy Foundation reported that employer spending for health benefits reached \$242.6 billion in 2002, an increase of 386% in the last 20 years (Employer Share of Health Benefit, 2003). The primary reason that cutting retiree benefits becomes a retention issue is because this decision was poorly communicated to the rank and file. The decision was leaked to the media and was published in the *Richmond Times-Dispatch* on February 2, 2006 (P.W. Mauger, personal communication, February 2, 2006). Nearly a week later, employees were informed of the decision from the county administrator (Prestidge & Walker, 2006). Employees spoke out at the time talking about broken promises and feelings that Chesterfield County had

been disloyal to its workers (Prestidge & Walker, 2006). It is still too early to tell what the fallout will be from this decision. Will this be a contributing factor that pushes police officers to better paying jobs elsewhere in the public or private sector?

RESEARCH OF LITERATURE

Retention

Defining Turnover. Employee turnover occurs whenever an employee leaves an organization. The predominant literature on turnover recognizes that there are different types of turnover, having both positive and negative affects on an organization. Multiple studies label the two types of turnover as voluntary and involuntary (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996; Delery, Gupta, Jenkins, & Shaw, 1998; Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999; Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001a; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001b; Dess & Shaw, 2001; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002; Frank et al., 2004). Frank, Finnegan, and Taylor differentiate between voluntary and involuntary turnover by determining who initiates the job loss and whether it is planned or not. They define voluntary turnover as being turnover initiated by the employee that is unplanned, whereas involuntary turnover is initiated by the employer and is planned (Frank et al., 2004). Delery et al. (1998) support this contention in their research, stating “an instance of voluntary turnover, or a quit, reflects an employee’s decision to leave an organization, whereas an instance of involuntary turnover, or a discharge, reflects an employer’s decision to terminate the employment relationship” (p.511). Dess and Shaw (2001) use the same definition proposed by Delery et al. by defining voluntary and involuntary turnover based on who initiates the change in the employment relationship. Other researchers have used different terms to describe types of turnover, but the meanings remain similar. Koch (2006) and Taylor (2002) delineate between desired and undesired turnover, Birati and Tziner (1996) used the terms

functional and dysfunctional turnover, and Ahlrichs (2000) deals with avoidable and unavoidable turnover. In each of these cases, the terms desired, functional, and unavoidable turnover are synonymous with the term involuntary turnover, while undesired, dysfunctional, and avoidable turnover are synonymous with the term voluntary turnover. The differences are simple semantics; what all of these researchers describe is essentially good (i.e. involuntary, desired, functional, and unavoidable) versus bad (i.e. voluntary, undesired, dysfunctional, and avoidable) turnover. In this case, the term “good” is a relative term. Good turnover is favorable because the employer can exercise some control over the employee-employer relationship, whereas the opposite is true of bad turnover.

Turnover, whether it is good or bad, has both positive and negative affects on an organization and their employees. Some researchers argue that involuntary turnover is a necessary part of business that can have positive implications for an organization. Ahlrichs (2000) contends that turnover allows companies to rid themselves of poor performers, allows for advancement in the organization, and allows for the introduction of new ideas and experiences in a company. Birati and Tziner (1996) agree with this assessment, stating that purging poor performers may increase productivity and performance, which allows the company to meet both functional and financial goals. Continuing with the positive financial impacts of turnover, Frank et al. (2004) contend that some turnover is good because it maintains “the ‘average’ wage that is critical to meet the organization’s financial goals” (p.14). Branham (2000) concurs with these points, stating that, “if all employees stay and the organization grows steadily, most

employees will be at or near the top of their pay ranges, and salary expenses will be extremely high” and that “new employees bring new ideas, approaches, abilities, and attitudes and keep the organization from becoming stagnant” (p. 5). What is key is that each of these examples deals with involuntary turnover, which is employer controlled, or seeks to limit turnover to a bare minimum, as in the third example.

When employers lose control over who stays and who goes, the effects seem to be more negative in nature. Turnover is costly, in terms of economics and the loss of knowledge, skills and abilities. The financial costs alone can be astronomical, with estimates that the U.S. economy loses \$5 trillion annually due to turnover costs (Koch, 2006). Turnover also negatively impacts the earnings of an organization, which translates to lower earnings for shareholders. One study suggested that earnings and stock prices were reduced 38% on average due to employee turnover (Koch, 2006). Birati and Tziner (1996) recognized that turnover often times results in increase costs due to performance issues that result with the loss of an employee, especially if a good performer was lost due to either voluntary or involuntary turnover (i.e. a layoff situation). Frank et al. (2004) contribute to the discussion stating “unplanned, voluntary turnover is most often associated with high labor costs, defeat of skills and company knowledge, low morale, poor customer satisfaction, and financial losses (Hay Group, 2001)” (p.13). Ahlrichs (2000) lends additional support by suggesting that employee turnover “results in customer turnover, missed deadlines, late shipments, lost marketing windows, low morale, and difficulties in recruiting top-quality new hires” (p. 5). Understanding what

causes these financial losses is important. Part of the answer deals with calculating turnover costs, which will be addressed later.

The other factor that drives these financial losses is brain drain. Mitchell et al. (2001a) recognize that valued employees often take knowledge, expertise, and social networks that took time to establish when they voluntarily leave an organization. Dooney (2005) argues that, "when employees leave, they take with them their knowledge, skills and abilities that helped contribute to goals, profit and performance of the organization." Rosenblatt and Sheaffer (2001) define this loss of knowledge, skills, and competencies as brain drain. When this knowledge walks out the door, the company suffers because it generally cannot be replaced overnight. Noble (2006) argues that brain drain often leads companies to repeat past mistakes, which opens businesses to financial and operational risks. Birati and Tziner (1996) believe that brain drain may cause performance levels to drop in an organization and can create issues for the workers that are left as they have to work harder to make up for the loss of an employee; this is especially true if a high-performer leaves voluntarily. Joinson (2000) concurs with these assessments of the impact of brain drain on an organization, stating that, "as people leave, you lose what's in their brain. Especially at high levels or where policies and procedures aren't written, you lose everything they know, down to the status of their project" (p. 116 to 117). The combination of financial costs and knowledge losses are what make turnover so costly for an organization.

Another negative impact of turnover is the effect that turnover has on an organizations culture. Frank et al. (2004) recognizes that even though involuntary turnover is necessary to a certain extent, it still has negative repercussions:

Planned, involuntary terminations such as layoffs in response to shifting strategies or business conditions are considered to be appropriate and necessary management practices and are generally not considered part of an organization's effort to control unwanted turnover; however, these moves have doubtless [*sic*] had a direct impact on an organization's culture and morale and contribute further to the unplanned exit of talented employees. (Frank et al., 2004, p. 13 – 14)

Research into layoffs and employees that remain with an organization following a layoff, often labeled as survivors, reinforces the negative aspects of involuntary turnover referenced above. Survivors often suffer after watching their friends and co-workers get dismissed. These survivors often feel like the organization is no longer committed to them after the layoff, so they seem to be more inclined to voluntarily leave the organization, even when their job is no longer threatened (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) conducted research into "the effects of organizational downsizing on survivor rates of voluntary turnover one year subsequent to the organizational downsizing" (p. 708). In terms of voluntary turnover, Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) relied heavily on an "Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover," which suggests that employees voluntarily leave an organization "in response to a shock to the system" (p. 709). The shock is defined as "any expected or unexpected change to an ongoing social system that shakes an employee out of a steady state with respect to [their] thinking about the job and organization" (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p.709). This specific research focused on organizational downsizing as the shock that might cause employees

to voluntarily leave an organization (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) believe that the job embeddedness of survivors (in terms of trustworthiness of management, empowerment and justice) were predictors of “survivor attachment and subsequent voluntary turnover” (p.710). They argue that trustworthiness of management, empowerment of survivors, and using just methods to implement the layoff foster attachment with the organization, which ultimately determines whether survivors will stay or go. The researchers found that job embeddedness of survivors is “significantly and positively related to organizational attachment” and that “survivor attachment is significantly and negatively related to turnover” (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p.719). This research demonstrates the negative impact that involuntary turnover has on those that survive layoffs, but also suggests that employers can maintain an element of control over the turnover process by implementing strategies to foster embeddedness or attachment to the organization.

Voluntary turnover is the primary focus of this current study, so it is important to look at why employees voluntarily leave an organization. Lee and Mitchell (1994) proposed the Unfolding Model of Voluntary Employee Turnover, used as a framework in Spreitzer and Mishra’s research, to present a general theory of employee turnover based on previous research. Lee and Mitchell (1994) proposed a model that “portrays employee turnover as a complex process whereby individuals assess their feelings, personal situation, and work environment, and, over time, make decisions about staying or leaving an organization” (p. 84). The model suggests that a shock to the system generally precipitates the employees thought process as to whether to stay or go (Lee & Mitchell,

1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). Lee and Mitchell (1994) define a shock as a “distinguishable event that jars employees toward deliberate judgments about their jobs and, perhaps, to voluntarily quit their job” (p. 60). Spreitzer and Mishra (2002), in their definition, realize that the shock can be either expected or unexpected. The shock can be positive, negative, or neutral in nature as well and it can be either internal or external to the individual making the decision (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Examples of a shock include a better job offer from another organization, an event that sours the employee’s relationship with the current employer, perceptions of unfairness, a change in a family situation, or any number of other events can exemplify this shock. Layoffs were the shock in Spreitzer’s and Mishra’s (2002) research. The key is that the shock has to be definable or have meaning for the employee; the shock has to make the employee think about their employment relationship to some degree (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002). When present, the shock initiates a thought process for the employee that leads the employee to decide whether to stay or go.

Mitchell, Holtom, and Lee studied the personal and organizational reasons cited by employees as to why they decided to leave an organization. Although their research does not speak specifically about the unfolding model, their research has several similarities with research on the unfolding model. Mitchell et al. (2001a) found that family changes, career changes, seeking new skills, or unsolicited job offers were personal reasons that individual employees cited that voluntarily left an organization. In

terms of organizational reasons cited, Mitchell et al. (2001a) found that employees identified observations and perceptions of unfairness in the workplace or being placed in positions that compromise the employee's values or morals. Most of the examples described, whether individual or organizational, are essentially the shocks to the system described above.

But how does one characterize the employee that is seeking to better himself or is just looking for change, as might be the case for an individual seeking new skills or a career change? In the unfolding model, shocks precipitate three of the four paths that an employee might take in determining whether to stay or go with their current employer (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Employees take the fourth path after realizing that they are no longer committed to the organization or the career path. Diminishing job satisfaction, over time, leads employees to question commitment to the organization or to their career, which precipitates the decision making process as to whether they stay or go (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Additional research supports the role that job satisfaction plays in the turnover process, but adds availability of work to the decision making process. Delery et al. (1998) conducted a study that distinguished between voluntary and involuntary turnover and examined the relationships of HRM practices to the different types of turnover. The purpose of their study was to demonstrate the differences between voluntary and involuntary turnover and then to identify predictors of each type of turnover. Their data supported the "usefulness of differentiating types of turnover in organizational-level research" and their analyses "indicated not only that

voluntary and involuntary turnover has different etiological dynamics, but that examination of total turnover may be misleading” (Delery et al., 1998, p. 520). In terms of voluntary turnover, Delery et al. (1998) identified “attractiveness of a current job and the availability of alternatives” as the two primary factors that drive this type of turnover in their research, although this study did not focus on the latter of the two variables (p. 512). Satisfaction plays a role in determining job attractiveness. Delery et al. (1998) found that inducements, investments, and employer expectations, all variables that impact job satisfaction, were related to voluntary turnover. Additional research on job embeddedness further supports the link between job satisfaction and voluntary turnover. Mitchell et al. (2001b) studied job embeddedness as a predictor of voluntary turnover. Job embeddedness has three main components. First, job embeddedness incorporates “formal and informal connections between a person and institutions or other people” (Mitchell et al., 2001b, p. 1104). These links might include co-workers, the employee’s family, supervisors, customers, or members of the community. Second, job embeddedness includes an element of fit, which is defined as “an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and his or her environment” (Mitchell et al., 2001b, p. 1104). Fit involves how well an employee’s values and beliefs meshes with an organization’s culture, strategic direction, or those within an organization or community. Finally, sacrifice is an aspect of job embeddedness that involves “the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving a job” (Mitchell et al., 2001b, p. 1105). Sacrifice partially deals with the fear of the unknown that an employee must face when taking a new job and the possibility of

severing relationships with co-workers and friends. Sacrifice also deals with giving up *the security of the current job, in terms of compensation, status, or other factors.*

Although they recognized the need for additional research, Mitchell et al. (2001b) found that “people who are embedded in their jobs have less intent to leave and do not leave as readily as those who are not embedded” (p.1116). So, although not completely the same as job satisfaction, job embeddedness does share several similarities. Both job satisfaction and job embeddedness seem to play a role in determining whether employees decide to leave an organization.

Measuring Turnover. Figuring out why employees are leaving an organization is an important step in understanding employee turnover, but the next logical step in the process is figuring out exactly how turnover is measured. A turnover rate is simply the rate employees leave an organization over a specified period of time (Prince, 2004). There are several reasons why companies measure turnover. First, turnover is measured to provide information to facilitate decision making within the organization (Ahlich, 2000). Everybody, from human resources to operations, within an organization needs to be able to understand staffing needs in order to operate and forecast for future plans. Turnover impacts the entire organization, so it is important that everybody in the organization is able to analyze turnover trends (Dooney, 2005). Hinkin and Tracey (2000) agree that calculating turnover costs provides a dollar figure that provides “managers with information to help them make better human resource decisions” (p.14). Businesses seem to understand this point in that studies indicate that the vast majority of businesses track turnover in some degree. A 2004 study found that 87% of companies

reported tracking turnover at the organizational level, while 54% reported tracking at the leader level (Frank et al., 2004). Monitoring turnover helped Fleet Bank maintain its competitive edge. In the late 1990's, Fleet Bank realized that their customer-focused strategy was at risk when "overall turnover had reached about 25% annually, and among some groups, such as tellers and customer service representatives, turnover was upwards of 40%," well above industry standards (Nalbantian & Szostak, 2004, p. 117).

Understanding that there was a problem with turnover allowed decision makers the opportunity to adjust practices before the problem got out of hand. Fleet found that their aggressive merger and acquisition strategy had led to job security fears, since the bank was often forced to "close down branches that exceeded permissible market shares within their regions" (Nalbantian & Szostak, 2004, p. 118). Monitoring turnover ended up saving the bank in the end:

Fleet didn't have to rely on pay to combat turnover, nor did it have to change its character; instead, it had to make relatively small adjustments to its rewards policies and take better advantage of its existing culture and workforce management practices That realization, along with low-cost solutions that followed, in the end saved the company millions of dollars. It also helped Fleet secure a stable and high-performing workforce that was the key to fulfilling the company's customer-centric strategy. (Nalbantian & Szostak, 2004, p. 125)

In this situation, understanding turnover and having accurate turnover rates gave decision makers the opportunity to make critical decisions that allowed the bank to maintain its competitive advantage.

Another reason for measuring turnover is that it provides a metric for measuring both the success of an organization as a whole and human resource strategies or programs

within the organization. When Greg Brenneman took over as president and chief operating officer of Continental Airlines in 1994, the company was sick and on the verge of failure; it was in the midst of its second bankruptcy in nine years, had lost \$613 million that year, and had an abysmal reputation as an airline (Brenneman, 1998). Brenneman and Gordon Bethune, Continental's chairman and CEO, developed a plan to save Continental that included a component to monitor turnover among other things (Brenneman, 1998). The two used turnover as one of many measures to gauge the health of the company. When the company was making \$385 million three short years later and was well on the way to recovery after successfully implementing the new strategy, Brenneman reported that the company had seen corresponding reductions in turnover and other people related areas (Brenneman, 1998). Applebee's Restaurant chain used turnover rates to measure the performance of restaurant managers (Reichheld & Rogers, 2005). Applebee's managers are rewarded for retaining the top 80% of staff within a restaurant, which has led to success within the company:

Since 2000, turnover among hourly associates has decreased from 146% to an industry-leading 84%, evidence not only that managers are more motivated to hold onto their teams but also that the teams themselves, minus poor performers, are more stable. Last year, Applebee's same-store sales growth rose 4.8 percentage points. (Reichheld & Rogers, 2005, p. 24)

The first example demonstrates how Continental Airlines used turnover as one of several metrics to measure success within the company, while the second example demonstrates how Applebee's used turnover to measure the success of its retention program. Both

cases demonstrate that there are practical applications for using turnover to measure success in business.

Measuring turnover also assists organizations with measuring costs (Gomez-Mejia, 1995/2004). Turnover is costly. Ahlrichs (2000) believes that the high “cost of turnover is reason enough to track its impact on the bottom line” (p. 18). Without understanding how many people are leaving an organization, the company cannot fully appreciate what they are spending on turnover. Petro Stopping Centers, an El-Paso based business that operates truck stops throughout the nation, was a profitable company until turnover got out of control (Joinson, 2000). The company started analyzing turnover rate, which had spiked, and found that turnover was costing the company millions (Joinson, 2000). Measuring turnover proved to be important for Petro because it identified a major issue that was costing the company significantly and allowed them to fix the problem.

Formulas to measure turnover vary significantly and measure different aspects of turnover. One of the simplest formulas and most accepted compares overall losses to the total number of employees in an organization (Joinson, 2000; Waldman & Arora, 2004; Katz & Williams, n.d.; Dr. R. Leonard, personal communication, September 12, 2006). This formula does not differentiate between the type of turnover, combining both voluntary and involuntary turnover into total employee separations (Joinson, 2000). Waldman and Arora (2004) add that an average number of active employees during a period can also be used in lieu of the total number of employees in the organization. In using this simplistic formula, an organization can measure losses yearly, monthly, or at any other conceivable time period.

$$\frac{\text{Employee Separations}}{\text{Total Employees in Organization}} \times 100$$

Another method of computing turnover utilizes a formula that tracks turnover monthly (Ahlrichs, 2000). This formula is very similar to the first formula in that it uses the same numerator as the first formula, which examines all employee separations. This formula differs in that it uses a denominator made up of the total number of employees, in this case, at mid-month. The purpose of using the monthly formula is to analyze seasonal or monthly trends (Ahlrichs, 2000).

$$\frac{\text{Employee Separations}}{\text{Total Employees at Mid-Month}} \times 100$$

The first two formulas examine all employee turnover, both voluntary and involuntary. Recognizing that some turnover cannot be avoided, Ahlrichs (2000) identifies a formula that some companies use to examine only voluntary turnover. Although touched on earlier, Ahlrichs (2000) believes unavoidable turnover occurs "if an employee leaves to follow a spouse who has been relocated, returns to school full-time, develops an incapacitating disease, or dies," because "the employer does not have a reasonable chance of reversing the employee's decision" (p. 18). Terminations, while a form of involuntary turnover, are not viewed as unavoidable in this framework. Ahlrichs (2000) believes that terminations should be included in avoidable turnover because they generally reflect bad hires or bad management, both of which are avoidable in her eyes. Some companies will exclude other factors as unavoidable turnover. Joinson (2000) advises that companies

often dismiss temporary or contract workers from these equations and they “exclude cyclical layoffs, permanent reductions-in-force, and cutbacks due to mergers” when adjusting for unavoidable turnover (p.110). To compute avoidable turnover, unavoidable turnover is subtracted from total turnover. The denominator remains unchanged in this formula. The purpose of using this formula is to identify turnover that is reversible (Ahrichs, 2000).

$$\frac{\text{Total Turnover} - \text{Unavoidable Turnover}}{\text{Total Employees at Mid-Month}} \times 100$$

The final formula solely examines turnover of new hires in an organization. Ahrichs (2000) contends that turnover of new hires is the worst waste of money in a company because this individual leaves “before the expenses of hiring and training can be recouped” (p. 19). Tracking new hire turnover requires a little more work than tracking the other forms of turnover. In order to track new hire turnover, one must “track the names of the individuals hired each month and then track their retention” at a later date (Ahrichs, 2000). In this example, turnover is tracked three months after hire and then again six months after hire. These figures are arbitrary though; new hire turnover can be tracked at any specified period of time.

$$\frac{\text{New Hires this Month}}{\text{New Hires After Three Months (After Six Months)}} \times 100$$

Computing Turnover Costs. Turnover is not going away and research suggests that the problem might only get worse in coming years. A 2006 SHRM study on

retention indicates that 72% of employees are currently looking for jobs, with 31% characterizing their search as actively seeking a job (Frincke, 2006). What is worse is that this study indicated that this data was not significantly different from 2004 or 2005 results (Frincke, 2006). A similar study found slightly more alarming results, estimating that 83% of employees were looking for new jobs (Frank et al., 2004). If these results are correct, the turnover problem will get worse before it gets better. This scenario is a double edged sword for human resources. On the one hand, monitoring turnover is an issue that most in human resources readily accept. On the other hand, most organizations do not recognize the human resource department as a legitimate strategic partner, so these organizations are less willing to commit resources to fix the problem.

To be a strategic partner, human resources practitioners have to be able to demonstrate their worth to an organization and they must be able to deliver value. Meisinger (2005) is correct in that “HR professionals aren’t entitled to a seat at the strategic table” just because others should recognize the value of good HR management (p.79). Monitoring turnover cost and, even better, diminishing these costs are excellent ways for human resources to add value to the organization and to gain recognition as a strategic partner because this is not being done in most organizations today. Branham (2000) found that two-thirds of managers did not know what turnover cost their organization, while Ahrichs (2000) found that “only 16% of U.S. Companies track turnover costs” and most do not factor the cost of lost productivity associated with turnover of employees into their calculations (p. 8). The first step in monitoring turnover cost is to determine how to calculate these costs.

Turnover costs vary greatly depending on the source and the formula used to calculate the loss. A significant amount of research has been conducted on computing turnover costs, but there seems to be little consensus on exactly how to compute these costs because there are so many variables, both tangible and intangible, involved in the process. Most researchers agree that “the challenge for HR is to capture all the costs, so that strategies can be aligned with true expenses” (Joinson, 2000). Researchers use a variety of different techniques to describe and capture these costs. Ahlrichs (2000) uses an analogy to compare turnover to an iceberg in which only about a fifth of the mass is seen, the rest is beneath the surface and does the most damage to an organization. The “Total Turnover Iceberg” is composed of both “green money” costs, which are the more tangible, visible costs involved with turnover that encompass the tip of the iceberg that floats above the water, and “blue money costs,” which are the less obvious costs associated with employee turnover or the harder to quantify costs that float beneath the surface (Ahlrichs, 2000). Ahlrichs (2000) describes green money costs as planned expenditures that are generally found in the organization’s budget, while blue money costs are generally intangible, invisible costs associated with turnover. Ahlrichs (2000) contends that these costs occur during three distinct periods, the notice period, vacancy period, and the hiring/orientation period. The notice period occurs when the employee gives notice that they are leaving the organization. Green money costs associated with this period include the employee’s salary, payment for accrued leave, and payment of benefits (Ahlrichs, 2000). Decreases in productivity for the employee that is leaving and those that remain, transferring knowledge, and the efforts of human resources to out

process the employee are all blue money expenditures (Ahlrichs, 2000). The vacancy period begins as the employee is leaving the organization and continues until the vacancy is filled by a new employee. This is the period in which human resources is gearing up to find a replacement for the departed employee. During this period, the organization incurs advertising and recruiting costs, testing and screening costs (i.e. drug screens, background checks, etc.), and hiring costs (i.e. salary, bonuses, possible relocations, etc.), which are all examples of green money costs (Ahlrichs, 2000). If temporary employees are used by the organization during this period, then these costs are also considered green money costs (Ahlrichs, 2000). The numerous blue money costs associated with this period probably make this the most expensive period for the organization. Lost productivity continues as an issue for workers throughout the organization, adding to the blue money costs. Human resource staffs and, in some cases, managers, busy themselves by amending job descriptions, writing and placing ads, reviewing applications and résumés, responding to inquiries, and conducting interviews; each of these duties are done in lieu of or in addition to their regular duties (Ahlrichs, 2000). Work doesn't diminish, so employees may have to work twice as hard to meet deadlines, continue with services, or maintain a semblance of order in the workplace. Productivity cannot help but decline when workers cannot focus entirely on their regular duties or they are asked to do more with less. To maintain levels of productivity, employers might resort to paying overtime to fill the gap left behind by the departed employee. These overtime expenditures are categorized as blue money costs (Ahlrichs, 2000). Salaries of those involved with the hiring process can also be included as blue money costs, especially if

these are extra duties or duties done in lieu of regularly assigned work (Ahlrichs, 2000). Without even looking at the dollars and cents involved with turnover, it is easy to see how an organization in a perpetual hiring cycle may face serious issues. When a new hire is eventually made, the hiring/orientation period begins for the organization. If there is a formal orientation or training program, orientation materials and training programs are both considered to be green money costs (Ahlrichs, 2000). Rarely can a new employee be hired one day and hit the ground running the next. Even if there is no formal orientation process, it takes time for the new employee to become acclimated to the new position and become productive in the job. The salaries of those supervisors and employees who conduct informal on-the-job training or assist with informal orientation are considered blue money costs (Ahlrichs, 2000). Productivity remains an issue for “supervisors, peers, and subordinates of the new hire . . . until the learning curve is completed” (Ahlrichs, 2000, p. 16). Ahlrichs (2000) contends that there are hidden costs throughout the three periods, “including loss of organizational knowledge, disruption or loss of client relationships, disruption of the department’s operation, lower morale, missed deadlines, late shipments, and more turnover,” that vary according to the position and the individuals involved in the process (p.16). The total turnover iceberg provides a comprehensive list of some of the costs involved with turnover and provides a good foundation for developing an understanding of computing turnover costs. But this approach is not completely inclusive of all the costs associated with turnover, so it is beneficial to review additional literature on how to compute these costs.

For the most part, the invisible costs are what create the most contentious debate among researchers because most researchers cannot agree on exactly what should be included in the calculations and how to make these calculations. For example, how does one quantify the loss of knowledge in an organization? Rosenblatt and Sheaffer (2001) recognize that brain drain contributes to visible costs, such as recruitment, selection, and training of new employees, but it also contributes to invisible costs, such as the “need to treat survivors’ demoralization” (p 417). Does it make a difference whether the organization is replacing strong performers versus weak performers? Birati and Tziner (1996) and Rosenblatt and Sheaffer (2001) both recognize that replacing high-performers is more costly than replacing weaker employees. These are some of the questions that have led researchers to conduct additional research on turnover costs.

Some of the researchers follow a model similar to the turnover iceberg, while some diverge from the model. Koch (2006) proposes a model of personnel costs that breaks down into three categories, hiring process costs (i.e. advertising and recruitment costs, selection, testing, and interview costs), separation costs (i.e. HRs expended time on termination process, final pay and benefits, legal costs), and performance costs (i.e. real and opportunity cost associated with diminished productivity). Koch (2006) included two cost drivers in this model, turnover and differential performance. Although this model identifies many of the same costs, this model differs somewhat from the Ahlrich’s model in that it does not recognize the costs of training and orientation that may be necessary when a new employee is hired. Frank et al. (2004) adopted an approach from a TalentKeepers survey that examines both direct (i.e. exit interviews, advertising and

recruitment, selection, testing, interviewing, training, etc.) and indirect costs (i.e. lost productivity, time-to-productivity measures for new hires, lost customers, employee morale, lower profitability) associated with turnover. In this model, the direct costs are similar to green money costs, whereas the indirect costs closely resemble blue money costs. Joinson (2000) uses an approach that seems to combine elements from each of the previous models in that it examines four periods, consisting of pre-turnover, vacancy, recruiting, and new hire processing, while distinguishing between two categories of costs, soft and hard. Pre-turnover is the period between when a decision is made that the employee is leaving an organization, either by the employee or by the employer in the case of involuntary turnover, and the date they actually leave (Joinson, 2000). Costs incurred during this phase are similar to those previously described in Ahlrich's notice period or separation costs described in Koch's model. Whereas most of the researchers have focused on voluntary turnover with their models, Joinson (2000) adds that there are also distinct costs associated with involuntary turnover that must be addressed, such as cost incurred during a grievance process that may need to be added in the pre-turnover period. Joinson's vacancy, recruiting, and new hire processing periods mirror Ahlrich's vacancy and hiring/orientation periods. The categories of costs that Joinson uses are also similar to Ahlrich's concept of green money and blue money. Joinson (2000) describes the soft costs as the costs that "are difficult to quantify because they don't show up as a direct payment or out-of-pocket expense" (p. 116). A study of turnover costs for the supermarket industry cited in Joinson's article, conducted by the Coca-Cola Retailing Research Council (CCRRC), found that "hard turnover costs totaled \$813 million, while

soft opportunity costs – change making errors, paperwork mistakes, damaging products, etc. – added another \$4.9 billion” (Joinson, 2000, p. 116). This research further supports both Ahlrich’s and Joinson’s contention that blue money costs or soft costs, whatever it is labeled, represents the largest costs for an organization. Hinkin and Tracey (2000) developed a turnover model during their study of turnover in the hotel industry that consists of five cost categories: separation, recruitment, selection, hiring, and productivity. Although not provided for proprietary reasons, Hinkin and Tracey (2000) created mathematical formulas for each category that they were able to test and validate in their research. Each of these models either demonstrates or reinforces most of what needs to be accounted for when computing turnover costs. What these models fail to accomplish is providing a mathematical formula that tells exactly how turnover costs are computed in an organization.

Combining all of the factors presented in the research above and developing a mathematical equation to compute turnover costs is not an easy task. Birati and Tziner (1996) accomplish this goal to a large extent in their research by developing a formula that expounds upon past research on turnover costs. Birati and Tziner (1996) build upon a model developed by Cascio that incorporates three primary categories of turnover costs: separation costs, replacement costs, and training costs. In Cascio’s model, separation costs are derived from the exit interview costs (*consists of value of both interviewer’s time and the departing employee’s time*), administrative costs (*consists of removing employee from the payroll, terminating benefits, and recouping equipment*), and severance pay (*consists of salary, benefits or other compensation paid to departing*

employee) (Birati & Tziner, 1996). Without being redundant, replacement costs include all of the items previously identified as part of the process to recruit, test, interview, and select a new employee. The only difference is that Cascio includes orientation in replacement costs in his model (Birati & Tziner, 1996). But these costs are essentially what Ahlrichs and Joinson referred to as vacancy costs, Koch called them hiring process costs, and Hinken and Tracey labeled as recruitment, selection, and hiring. The same is true of what Cascio called training costs, which include costs associated with training and developing the new hire. Training costs in Cascio's model are what Ahlrichs referred to as the cost incurred during the Hiring/Orientation process and are what Joinson called costs during the recruiting and new hire processing. The final component of Cascio's formula was a component that included "the cost of the reduced productivity of the new worker during the period required for the level of performance of the previous employee to be reached" (Birati & Tziner, 1996, p. 114). This final component attempts to encompass intangible elements that each of the previous researchers also attempted to identify. This component is similar to Ahlrich's hidden costs, Joinson's soft costs, Koch's performance costs, and Hinken and Tracey's productivity costs.

Although Cascio's formula seemed very comprehensive, Birati and Tziner believed that there was room for improvement. Birati and Tziner (1996) did not feel that Cascio's formula effectively distinguished between functional and dysfunctional turnover. What Birati and Tziner (1996) believed was that when high-performers either quit or were lost in a layoff, the effects were much more severe. This is a point that has resonated in much of the research on turnover costs. Birati and Tziner (1996) also felt

that Cascio's formula failed to recognize some of the consequences that accompany dysfunctional turnover:

1. Erosion of the performance level of the remaining work force due to a drop in morale.
2. Customers lost to competitors because of the inability to supply them with services or products on schedule.
3. Excess over-time compensation to inside employees or substitute outside workers to temporarily try to make up for the loss of strong performers.
4. The additional costs paid to supervisors and coworkers to integrate new hires. (p.115)

Several of these points were broached in the previous research, so it makes sense that these costs be associated with turnover cost formula. Birati's and Tziner's (1996) final contention was that Cascio failed to account for the differences between "the immediate expenses generated by the departure of an employee (i.e. separation costs) in the same financial terms as the future expenditures (i.e. replacement costs) incurred by the need to do away with the negative consequences of dysfunctional turnover" (p. 115). What Birati and Tziner meant was that Cascio was comparing apples to oranges with his calculation because he failed to make the comparison using a common term.

To correct these issues, Birati and Tziner (1996) proposed a model based on three distinct categories: direct costs, indirect costs, and turnover rate multiplier. In this model, direct costs include "the direct outlays to the firm incurred by the replacement process: recruiting, hiring, training, and socializing new employees including the extra effort by supervisors and coworkers to integrate them" (Birati & Tziner, 1996, p. 116). Direct costs (D) are depicted as:

$$D = C + S + T + U$$

“where C is the present value of the cost differentials during the entire period (in years) in which the departing employee was expected to perform efficiently if he or she did not leave,” S equals hiring costs, T equals training costs, and U equals “the costs generated by the process of socialization of the newcomer until he or she becomes operational” (Birati & Tziner, 1996, p. 116). Indirect costs relate to “interruptions in production, sales, and the delivery of goods and services to customers” (Birati & Tziner, 1996, p. 116). Indirect costs (I) are depicted as:

$$I = O + F + M$$

where O represents overtime expenditures that are necessary to make up for gaps in performance or productivity after the employee leaves the organization, F equals the “financial value of the loss of production and/or customers to competitors due to failure to deliver products or services on schedule” after the departure of the employee, and M equals the “Turnover Effect on Morale” (Birati & Tziner, 1996, p. 117). The turnover rate multiplier (f) represents the increased costs associated with newer employees leaving an organization versus the costs of a more entrenched worker leaving the organization (Birati & Tziner, 1996). The argument being that the more entrenched worker is less likely to leave an organization and the organization has recouped many expenses incurred in hiring and training that employee over the tenure of employment. Birati and Tziner (1996) advise that “the additional expense generated by this factor can and should be estimated by the accounting department” (p.118). Birati and Tziner (1996) present the amended formula for turnover costs (L):

$$L = (D + I)(1 + f) = (C + S + T + U + O + F + M)(1 + f)$$

Provided in this literature review is a summary of the work that Birati and Tziner conducted in developing their emended formula for turnover costs. In summarizing the research, some of the accounting principles and more complex mathematical equations were left out. (See Appendix B for a complete copy of Birati and Tziner's turnover costs formula with the author's explanations of the different variables and additional information in computing these costs.)

Even with all of the research on turnover costs, the companies that measure their turnover costs still vary in their estimations. Some research indicates that turnover costs lie somewhere between one and two years salary and benefits (Ahlrichs, 2000; Joinson, 2000; Ramsay-Smith, 2004; Gupta-Sunderji, 2004; Branham, 2005; Wahl & Singh, 2006). The costs can be as high as the "eight-to-nine-figure range" as well (Koch, 2006). These costs vary greatly from "position to position, based primarily on the complexity of the task" being completed by the departing employee (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). Organizational costs also increase based on the severity of the problem in the organization. Branham (2000) sums up the issue well:

The cost of hiring and training a new employee can vary greatly—from only a few thousand dollars for hourly employees to between \$75,000 and \$100,000 for top executives. Estimates of turnover costs range from 25 percent to almost 200 percent of annual employee compensation. These kinds of costs are tough to incur even when the turnover is desired. (p.6)

Companies that are revolving doors will certainly experience higher turnover costs than companies that have relatively low turnover rates. Losses depend greatly on the individual organization and the approach used to compute these costs. It is important to

use a systematic approach that encompasses all of the different costs, both direct and indirect, in each stage of the turnover process. The more systematic the approach, the more realistic the actual costs will be when the process is completed. There may be a large debate over what constitutes turnover amongst researchers, but what they all agree on is that turnover is costly and it should be avoided in many cases. Showing how much companies routinely lose due to turnover is a key point for human resources because documenting these costs demonstrates how human resources can add value to an organization. But the next step involves developing a strategy to reduce these costs.

Defining Retention. There will always be some degree of turnover in every organization. The issue for employers is that employees today seem to be constantly looking for new jobs. Retention is the key to diminishing turnover and reducing the costs associated with turnover while demonstrating the value that human resources can add as a strategic partner. Frank et al. (2004) define retention “as the effort by an employer to keep desirable workers in order to meet business objectives” (p. 13). Retaining workers is all about keeping quality workers in the organization in order to avoid financial and knowledge losses that lead to the costs described in the previous section.

Part of understanding retention involves developing an understanding of why employees stay in an organization. Many organizations seem to avoid implementing retention programs because there is a misperception that retention is costly and that its sole focus is on raising salaries. Research indicates that 89% of managers share the view that employees leave because of money, but a study conducted by Branham in conjunction with the Saratoga Institute found the exact opposite (Branham, 2005).

Branham's (2005) study of nearly 20,000 workers from 18 industries found that between 80 to 90% of employees decide to leave an organization for reasons other than money; these reasons included the job, the manager, the culture, and the work environment. This finding is not to say that salary is never an issue, the issue is a fair and competitive salary. Bufe and Murphy (2004) contend that "as long as compensation is fair, it doesn't tend to be a major factor in staff turnover;" they believe that money is a short term satisfier (p. 58). Chaminade (2006) recognizes that monetary rewards are short term rewards that provide little retention value because employees quickly forget about the rewards after the money is spent or is dissipated in a paycheck. Messmer (2006) concurs with this point, stating that "a fair and competitive salary is the most obvious way to attract and keep top talent," but money alone is generally not a determinant of job satisfaction (p.13). While salary does play a role in retention, most researchers seem to understand that there is more to retention than money alone. Lee (2006) understands that pay is rarely the cause of ills in an organization:

Pay is usually a symptom that other things are not going well. When employees complain about pay, they are usually indirectly indicating that they are not happy with their work situation. Pay is a lightning rod issue as it is more tangible than poor management and lack of appreciation. (p. 208)

Another point made by Lee (2006) is that "money can buy labor, but it cannot buy commitment, loyalty, or affection (love) for the work or the organization" (p. 202). The research seems clear that salary, as long as it is fair and competitive, is not as big of a retention issue as what most businesses and managers seem to think.

So, if money is not the panacea for retaining employees, what should organizations focus on to improve their chances of retaining quality workers? Answers to this question seem infinite, bounded only by the limits of one's mind. Fortunately, the predominant literature on retention does support some central themes that make exploring this issue less cumbersome. Organizational culture, leadership, and engagement seem to be some of the more repetitive themes.

What is the culture of an organization? Fairbairn (2005) describes corporate culture as "the values and characteristics that define an organization" (p. 155). The culture of an organization is what drives that organization. The culture establishes norms of behavior expectations within the organization. Lee (2006) believes that culture establishes acceptable and unacceptable levels of performance and behavior in an organization. Fairbairn (2005) furthers this sentiment, believing that culture determines how employees, customers, shareholders, and leaders within the organization interact. Research has consistently shown that organizational culture impacts performance. Beer and Katz (2003) conducted a study that examined conventional research into executive benefits which had generally focused on finding a statistical link between executive incentives and some measure of performance. Beer and Katz (2003) found that there was little to link executive incentives with organizational performance. The two concluded that their data did not definitively answer the question, but their research raised questions about the real role of incentives in an organization. They found that monetary incentives had neither positive nor negative effects on the organization and that team culture was the only variable in the survey that was positively related to performance (Beer & Katz,

2003). This research has been supported time and time again. Peters and Waterman Jr. (1982/2004) conducted research on what the best-run companies in America did that was different from others. One of the elements that stood out the most for them was the importance of culture. They found:

Without exception, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an essential quality of the excellent companies. Moreover, the stronger the culture and the more it was directed toward the marketplace, the less need was there for policy manuals, organization charts, or detailed procedures and rules . . . people way down the line know what they are supposed to do in most situations because the handful of guiding values is crystal clear. (Peters & Waterman Jr., 1982/2004, p. 75 – 76)

Fairbairn (2005) agrees with this assessment, stating that “companies with strong, formally articulate values that are focused on the needs of their constituencies have an important advantage over those without such values” (p. 156). Organizations with good, functional cultures are generally people centered. They do not treat their employees like they are “disposable resources that can be bought and sold at a moments notice” (Lee, 2006, p. 206). Countless others have written and studied organizational culture. These researchers have come to the same conclusions as the researchers cited, which is organizational culture is a key driver of performance and can be a point of differentiation for an organization (Jamrog, 2002; Bufe & Murphy, 2004; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2005; Lee, 2006). The final point to be made is that the culture must be functional; toxic cultures inversely impact the organization, which further diminishes the company’s ability to attract and retain talent.

The next often mentioned retention theme deals with organizational leadership. The concept of leadership is hard to define, so the topic will only be touched upon during

this review. Roberts and Hirsch (2005) believe that successful leaders demonstrate several attributes:

1. They are driven by a strong, personal vision of effective leadership.
2. They lay out a vision of success and engage others in the process of how to achieve it.
3. They are firmly rooted in the values and behaviors required of them.
4. They muster the courage to do what's right and necessary.
5. They are modest, servant leaders dedicated to enabling their people to succeed. (p.138)

Giuliani (2002) echoes many of these same sentiments in differentiating between the characteristics that separate leaders from others, which includes accountability, courageousness, the ability to develop and communicate strong beliefs, and having a team-oriented spirit. To build upon the team-oriented spirit, leaders understand the importance of developing synergy on a team or within an organization. Synergy is an interaction between two or more individuals that adds value to the interaction, so the quality of the interaction is greater than the sum of the parts. Leaders understand the need to persevere through difficulties, the importance of being accountable for decisions, and that collective goals take precedence over individual needs. George, Sims, McLean, and Mayer (2007) sum up the discussion on the qualities of leaders stating that "leaders demonstrate a passion for their purpose, practice their values consistently, and lead with their hearts as well as their heads. They establish long-term, meaningful relationships and have the self-discipline to get results. They know who they are" (p. 130). Where do leaders come from? Some people are born leaders, but leadership rarely just happens; it usually takes time to develop (Peters & Waterman Jr., 1982/2004; Giuliani, 2002; Roberts & Hirsch, 2005; George et al., 2007). Leadership is developed in an organization

through training, experiences, through successes and failures, and from modeling the behavior of those that lead well. Roberts and Hirsch (2005) take the development issue a step further by suggesting that it is the responsibility of the organization to develop leaders and to give them the tools they need to be effective. Leadership is a difficult concept to define, but most recognize true leadership when they see it. Leadership is a retention theme because leaders develop and drive the culture of an organization. Both formal and informal leaders set the tone for the entire organization. Research consistently indicates that employees often leave an organization because of poor managers and supervision. Taylor (2002) quotes from *First Break All the Rules*: “people leave managers, not companies” (p. 29). Taylor (2002) argues that organizations with a turnover problem should look first at managers to determine what the real issue is in the organization. Burns and Concelman (2006) agree, arguing that leadership development is a key to not only retention but is also critical in establishing a competitive advantage for an organization. In order to reduce turnover, Woodruffe (2006) recognizes the vital role the leader plays at every step in the employment relationship and understands that just as leaders can play a role in attracting talent, they also play a significant role in pushing that talent out the door. Peters and Waterman Jr. (1982/2004) consistently found that excellent companies developed and cultivated excellent leaders. Taylor (2002) further demonstrates why supervisors and managers play such a vital in retention:

Supervisors are the face of the company to the vast majority of employees in most organizations. Nearly everything about a company funnels through these people. Pay and benefits are expectations today. The most important element in retention is the leader (p. 29).

Frank et al. (2004) further stresses the important role that front-line leaders and bosses play in retention, demonstrating that these leaders have the most influence on fairness, care and concern for employees, and trust in an organization. Tulgan (2004) found that the most important factor in productivity, morale, and retention was the relationship between supervisors and their employees. It is important to understand that all supervisors are not necessarily leaders and leaders are not necessarily supervisors. Cottrell (2000) sums up the focus on leadership stating, "successful companies in the year 2000 and beyond will be those that find, train, and develop leaders throughout the organization, building leadership . . . skills that will enhance leadership and not the mere performance of the managerial function." It is both the formal and informal leaders in an organization who impact retention, so organizations need strategies to develop and utilize these leaders.

Employee engagement is the final retention theme to be examined. Just as definitions of culture and leadership are debated in the literature, the same is true of employee engagement. As part of their research, Frank et al. (2004) borrow a definition of engagement that includes "bringing discretionary effort to work, in the form of extra time, brainpower, and energy" (p. 15). Frank et al. (2004) recognize that others have different ideas of what employee engagement involves:

The notion of engagement, like many psychological constructs, is simple to understand yet more difficult to define and measure. Other definitions of engagement include cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. For example, emotional components or beliefs – how employees 'feel' about their employer, its leaders, working conditions – and behavioral components – measures of intent to act in certain ways, skills they choose

to bring to bear, to go the 'extra mile' – are often included in measures of engagement. (p. 15)

Job embeddedness and job satisfaction are often the variables used in research to measure employee engagement. Research on job embeddedness suggests that trustworthiness of management, empowerment, justice, links, fit, and sacrifice are all elements of embeddedness (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Mitchell et al., 2001b). Each of these elements was touched on earlier in the discussion of voluntary turnover, so it is redundant to repeat this information at this point. Suffice it to say that research consistently demonstrates the positive link between embeddedness and turnover. The same is true of job satisfaction. Gupta-Sunderji (2004) found that “the presence of demotivators (job dissatisfactions) and the absence of motivators (no job satisfaction)” were factors that led employees to decide to leave an organization. Going back to the discussion on the Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover, it was the fourth path that employees took when they were no longer committed to the organization which was the result of diminished job satisfactions (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Based on the research, employee engagement, measured through a variety of variables to include job embeddedness and job satisfaction, seems to be a driver in the decision making process of whether an employee stays or goes.

Measuring Retention. Some researchers have begun to study retention in much the same way that turnover has been studied in the past. These efforts propose that organizations should quantify and measure retention to develop a better understanding of the factors that drive the retention of employees. Waldman and Arora (2004) believe that

retention rates differ from turnover rates in that retention rates measure something that is desired by the organization. Research conducted by both Katz and Williams (n.d.) and Waldman and Arora (2004) recognize that measuring retention rates is a fundamentally different approach to turnover; these researchers further contend that examining both retention rates and turnover rates provides a more accurate view of both the reasons employees stay in an organization and why they leave. Although agreeing with the need to measure retention, the researchers take different approaches in developing their methods for computing retention. The method developed by Katz and Williams (n.d.) examines stability of positions within an organization by looking at employees who remain in certain positions over time.

$$\frac{\text{\# of Employees Retained}}{\text{\# of Positions In the Organization}} \times 100$$

The second approach to measuring retention is similar to the new hire approach used by Ahlrichs. Waldman and Arora (2004) track new hires in specific positions and track those new hires over a period of time. The model examines four areas of retention: the individual working for an organization, the position within the organization, the specific years of hire within an organization, and specific years of interest throughout the period (Waldman & Arora, 2004).

Time with Organization		
Initial Hire	$\frac{\text{\# of Terminations in First Year of Hire}}{\text{\# of New Hires}}$	X 100
Year - 1	$\frac{\text{Initial Hires still employed Year - 1}}{\text{Original \# of Initial Hires}}$	X 100
Year - 2	$\frac{\text{Initial Hires still employed Year - 2}}{\text{Original \# of Initial Hires}}$	X 100
Year - 3	$\frac{\text{Initial Hires still employed Year - 3}}{\text{Original \# of Initial Hires}}$	X 100

These two approaches do seem to have their merits. The first approach, which examines retention by looking at the positions within an organization, adds to the debate on turnover, especially in an organization that is in a perpetual hiring process. For example, if there are a hundred budgeted positions in a company, but only eighty of those positions remain filled, there is an obvious problem that needs to be addressed. Turnover in this organization theoretically could be low, but asking eighty employees to do the job of a hundred will most certainly add to the costs of the organization and will impact productivity. The second approach, which tracks individuals and positions throughout the organization, has advantages as well. The second approach can allow an organization to identify issues that occur in different work units (i.e. operations versus support), hiring practices at certain times (i.e. if hiring standards were changed one year, this approach could help validate the effectiveness of the change), or whether key events along the way caused movement.

Generational Competence

Today's workforce is composed of employees from four different generations: Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials. Each of these generations were affected and shaped by different events in their lives, which helps to define the values they bring to work. Differences in work ethic, work/life priorities, and types of financial or material rewards that these different groups seek can be increasingly difficult to manage and may lead to conflicts (Baltierra, Hayden, Hengel, & Young, 2005). The presence of so many different generations in the workforce has presented a challenge for employers as they attempt to find ways to engage these different employees while mediating the conflict.

Defining Generational Competence. The predominant literature on generational differences supports the idea that there are inherent differences in employees from different generations. Misunderstandings, rooted in generational differences, routinely occur on both the personal and the institutional level (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). These misunderstandings can be costly in an organizational setting and add to the challenges that managers face when "charged with recruiting, retaining, managing, and motivating up to four generations in the workplace at once" (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002, p. 12). Reynolds (2005) further recognizes that businesses have finite resources, so maximizing an organization's understanding of employees, in this case by developing an understanding of generational differences, is a point of differentiation. Employers that harness an understanding of the different generations and use that understanding to develop business strategy can have a tremendous impact in terms of winning in the

marketplace. Developing generational competence within an organization is a key to navigating through these conflicts. Generational competence is the term Ceridian, a leading information services company in the human resource, retail and transportation markets, coined “to describe the adaptations or competencies organizations must develop to meet the very diverse needs of four generations in the workforce and the marketplace” (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 9). Generational competence involves developing “detailed knowledge of what makes each generation stay or leave, produce or not” within the workplace (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 10). Employers that develop generational competence set themselves apart from other organizations because they are better suited to tap the potential of talent today, tomorrow, and into the future. Successful employers recognize that employees bring a variety of different values, work attitudes, work and learning styles, levels of commitment, and job satisfaction to the workplace (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Successful employers tap into the potential that a generationally diverse workforce offers and capitalize on the uniqueness of the different generations. The goal for employers is to develop an understanding of these characteristics and to develop retention strategies that build upon the strengths while diminishing the weaknesses of each generation. *Maximizing Human Capital Assets* (2005) asserts that organizations that develop generational competence in turn develop “a better understanding of generational beliefs and preferences, differences and needs, can help build synergy among the generations and turn potential conflicts into sources of strength, with improvements in productivity,

product marketing and organizational effectiveness” (p. 2). The benefits of developing generational competence are clear:

Generational competence — the ability to understand, appreciate and meet the specific needs of different generations — can help an organization maximize the value of its human capital. By instituting management and business processes, designing benefits and employee effectiveness services, and tailoring talent management strategies to address the needs and earn the engagement of employees of different generations, an organization is taking steps to hire, retain and gain the full contribution of the most talented employees across the generations. (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 9)

Developing a better understanding of employees and building synergy within an organization are central to each of the retention themes that were previously reviewed.

An obvious part of developing generational competence involves researching the different generations. There are inherent risks and issues involved with labeling individuals or lumping groups together based on perceived characteristics. Often times, a researcher’s bias can lead to negative stereotypes in defining groups. To minimize the risk of using flawed or biased information, over 200 articles and documents were reviewed, in addition to using six published books, all of which dealt with the issue of defining the generations in one form or another. Although each of these perspectives could not be used, as many as possible were interspersed throughout the literature review.

Another issue deals with the subjectivity of defining the terms used in the debate. Smola and Sutton (2002) define a generation “as an identifiable group that shares birth years, age location, and significant life events at critical developmental stages, divided by five – seven years into the first wave, core group, and last wave” (p. 364). Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) use a definition that defines an age cohort “as a group of people who

share a given historical or socially structured life experience, the effects of which are relatively stable over the course of their life and serve to distinguish one generation from another” (p. 19). Smola and Sutton (2002) use a similar definition of generational cohorts in their research as well. Although good, the gist of which are often repeated in the literature, these are very subjective definitions. For the purposes of this research, certain lines had to be drawn to delineate among the different groups. Once again, for the purposes of this literature review, as many different perspectives as possible were included to add to the body of work.

The Veteran Generation. The Veterans are the oldest of the four generations currently in the workforce. This generation earned the “Veteran” name as many from this generation were either part of the forces in the D-Day assault that eventually led to the liberation of Europe or they fought across the Pacific to defend the United States.

Defining the Veterans. It is generally accepted that members of this generation were born before 1945, but there is variance on the exact dates. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) list the range from 1900 to 1945; Zemke et al. (2000) use 1922 to 1943; Deal (2007) and *American Knowledge Workers* (2001) list the range from 1925 to 1945; Reynolds (2005), Howe and Strauss (2000), Martin and Tulgan (2002), Chambers (1999), and Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) all agree on 1925 to 1942 as the date range; Ceridian’s *Maximizing Human Capital Assets* (2005) uses 1927 to 1945; and Harris (2005) defines this group using 1936 to 1945. These date ranges are a representative sample of some of the ranges used by researchers. In examining this generation, some researchers look at Veterans as a distinct group, while others look at them as a combination of two separate

generations. For example, Lancaster and Stillman (2002) view this group as those born prior to 1945 because they tend to have similar beliefs and behaviors, while Harris (2005) views those born in the same time period as being a combination of two generations, the Silent Generation and the Senior Generation. There numbers range between 49 million to 52 million people (Brock, 2000; Zemke et al., 2000). Veterans have been called Traditionalist, the Silent Generation, the Greatest Generation, Matures, the Forgotten Generation and Swingers (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Zemke et al., 2000; Deal, 2007; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Reynolds, 2005; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Chambers, 1999; Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005; Smola & Sutton, 2002; Harris, 2005; Piktialis, n.d.). Members of this generation include Lee Iacocca, Warren Buffet, John Kennedy, Bob Dole, Ronald Reagan, John Wayne, Bob Hope, and Joe DiMaggio (Zemke et al., 2000; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Martin & Tulgan, 2002).

Defining Events. The Veteran Generation came of age in the 30's, 40's, and 50's. Their early years were marked by severe economic stagnation. They suffered through the Great Depression (Zemke et al., 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). In the midst of the Depression, when it seemed nothing could get worse, the country was hit with the worst drought in U.S. history, the Dust Bowl (Zemke et al., 2000). A resonating theme with the Veteran Generation is their innate ability to not only persevere through hardship, but to rebound stronger in the face of animosity. Veteran perseverance was exemplified by the generation's ability to overcome the Depression and by triumphing both at home and

abroad during the war. The road to post-crash recovery was paved by the Veteran generation through New Deal public works initiatives:

Between July 1933 and March 1939 the [Public Works Administration (PWA)] funded and administered the construction of more than 34,000 projects including airports, large electricity-generating dams, major warships for the Navy, and bridges, as well as 70% of the new schools and one-third of the hospitals built between 1933-1939. Streets and highways were the most common PWA projects, as 11,428 road projects, or 33 percent of all PWA projects, accounted for over 15 percent of total budget. School buildings, 7,488 in all, came in second at 14% of spending . . . the most famous PWA projects are the Triborough Bridge and the Lincoln Tunnel in New York City, the Grand Coulee Dam in Washington, the longest continuous sidewalk in the world along 6 1/2 miles of Bayshore Blvd. in Tampa, FL, and the Overseas Highway connecting Key West, Florida to the mainland. The PWA also electrified the Pennsylvania Railroad between New York and Washington, DC. (Public Works Administration, 2007)

Initially, the Veterans watched from the sidelines as Europe was overrun, but, when they were called to action after the attack on Pearl Harbor, a defining moment for this generation, they responded with the courage and gusto that led to eventual victory for allied forces (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). When they were done fighting, the Veterans returned home to have families and to build the country as we know it today. Veteran accomplishments include rearing the largest generation of American children, building the “national infrastructure of interstate highways, bridges and dams,” building the space program, developing vaccines that “wiped out polio, tetanus, tuberculosis, and whooping cough” (Zemke et al., 2000, p. 29 – 30). Zemke et al. (2000) describe the accomplishments of the Veteran generation, stating that “they are the generation whose vision and hard work created the United States as we know it today – a bold, powerful, prosperous, vital, modern democracy with all of its inherent challenges and paradoxes”

(p. 29). The core values of the Veteran Generation include dedication, sacrifice, hard work, honor, conformity, respect for authority and order, adherence to the rules/policies, patience, and delayed rewards (Zemke et al., 2000; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). This is a generation that was challenged immensely, but their spirit and attitude led them to accept nothing less than success.

Veterans at Work. The youngest Veterans today are in their early 60's. This generation represents somewhere between 5 to 10% of today's U.S. workforce by most estimates (Reynolds, 2005; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005; Piktialis, n.d.). Veterans believed in "an honest day's work for an honest day's pay" (Zemke et al., 2000, p. 47). They grew up in a time when their parents were thankful to have a job, so they were dedicated and grateful to their employers for giving them the opportunity. Veterans' sense of dedication and gratefulness leads them to be fiercely loyal to the organization. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) described the impetus for this loyalty:

This is a generation that learned at an early age that by putting aside the needs and wants of the individual and working together toward common goals, they could accomplish amazing things. Traditionalists learned to partner with large institutions in order to get things done, like winning two world wars, conquering the Great Depression, building the A-bomb, and sending a man to the Moon. This is a generation that still has an immense amount of faith in institutions, from the church to the government to the military. (p. 19)

This loyalty manifests itself in intense patriotism, pride in their accomplishments, and a belief that, together, anything can be accomplished. In terms of leadership, Veterans brought a military-style of leadership to the workplace. They favor hierarchy and structure in the workforce, they respect authority in the workplace, and they work well in

teams, not letting others down and carrying their workload (Zemke et al., 2000; Homan, 2005; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Veterans view feedback in terms of “no news is good news” and they believe an honest days work is reward enough for a job well done (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002, p. 255). As part of the workforce, the Veteran Generation built a country, liberated Europe, and put a man on the Moon, which all demonstrate the “can-do” attitude that continues to serve this generation well.

Veteran Challenges. One of the challenges that will face employers in dealing with Veterans involves stressing the importance of customization in the workplace. Martin and Tulgan (2002) contend that the “one-size-fits-all paradigm of solutions that worked so well in the past is gone,” so a new paradigm of customizing everything from employee benefits to work arrangements to products and services needs to be taught (p. 17). Technology represents a significant challenge for Veteran workers. Zemke et al. (2000) report that one in ten Veterans has a home computer, even fewer watch videos regularly, and only two in ten have an ATM card, so helping to increase this generation’s comfort with technology and demonstrating the importance of different technologies are keys to success. Veterans remain a valuable resource as companies continue to search for talent. Finding ways to engage and utilize these employees is also a challenge for employers. In terms of reducing brain drain, Veterans have a vast amount of knowledge and experience that they are willing to share, so they make perfect mentors in an organization (Zemke et al., 2000). Veterans also value a personal touch in communications and rewards. Veterans want to socialize in the workplace; they enjoy handwritten notes, and value plaques or photos with the CEO or VIPs (Zemke et al.,

2000). Veterans still have a lot to offer employers today and are viable options in the search for talent.

The Baby Boomer Generation. Baby Boomers received their name as a result of the dramatic increase in birth rates that occurred following World War II. In 1946, 3.4 million Americans were born; an increase of 2.8 million during the height of World War II and 2.4 million during the depression (Adler, 2005).

Defining Baby Boomers. The predominant literature on the baby boom appears to set the dates between 1946 and 1964, but there is variance depending on who is conducting the research. Smola and Sutton (2002) list the baby boom between 1940/1946 to 1960/1964, Zemke et al. (2000) fall within this range using 1943 to 1960 as does Reynolds (2005) (1943 to 1960/1964), Deal (2007) (1946 to 1963), Martin and Tulgan (2002) (1946 to 1960), Earle (2003) (1946 to 1965) and Howe and Strauss (2000) (1943 to 1960). While within the range, Lancaster and Stillman (2002), Thomas and Kunen (1986), American Knowledge Workers (2001), Harris (2005), and Ceridian's *Maximizing Human Capital Assets* (2005) all cite the dates 1946 to 1964. The Baby Boomers are a 78-million strong generation, making them by far the largest generation up to that time (Adler, 2005; Crary, 2005; Bowman, Hoffman, & Hargrove, 2007). In addition to being called Baby Boomers, this generation has been labeled the Spock Generation, the Now Generation, Generation Jones, the Woodstock Generation, and the Me Generation (Thomas & Kunen, 1986; Salopek, 2000; Martin & Tulgan, 2002). Baby Boomers include Bill Gates, Steve Jobs, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, Donald Trump,

Cal Ripken Jr., Oprah Winfrey, Steven Spielberg, and a long list of others (Adler, 2005; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Zemke et al., 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Defining Events. Many researchers recognize that there are differences between individuals within a particular generational cohort; this is especially true of Baby Boomers who came of age during the late 50's, 60's, 70's and early 80's. Both Deal (2007) and Hughes and O'Rand (2004) delineate between Early Boomers (1946 to 1954) and Late Boomers (1955 to 1963), while Zemke et al. (2000) examines first-half Boomers and second-half Boomers. Whichever term is used, there are some differences between the two groups. The oldest of the Baby Boomers were the first to have televisions in their homes, they lived through the Cold War, Vietnam, women's liberation and the Civil Rights Movement; they watched the first landing on the moon, lived through John F. Kennedy's and Martin Luther King's assassinations, and participated in Woodstock (*American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Amey-Taylor, 2002). The younger Baby Boomers shared little historic experience with the older Boomers (Monaghan, 2005). The younger Baby Boomers graduated from college during the Reagan administration; this group might have more in common with Generation X than the older Boomers. Zemke et al. (2000) found that second-half Boomers were not as driven as those born in the first-half and, as a result, focused more on their families. Zemke et al. (2000) studied both first-half and second-half Baby boomers, finding that:

First-halfers' world view was more affected by the 1950s. They felt a more integral and active part of the 1960s "scene" – free love, drugs, sex, rock-n-roll, Vietnam, women's lib – if not as active participants, then at least as very aware observers. For second-halfers, the 1950s were mostly a vague memory and the 1960s "movements" more an observed than

participated-in phenomenon, though individual exceptions do indeed abound. (p. 71)

Baby Boomers are a very diverse group. The core values of the Baby Boomers are prosperity, children in the spotlight, optimism, team orientation, personal gratification, consensus, health and wellness, personal growth, and youth (Amey-Taylor, 2002). This generation focuses on their individuality, but they are willing to work together for the greater good. Baby Boomers also grew up during eras of general economic prosperity (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). As a whole, this group has done very well for itself socially, economically, and politically.

Boomers at Work. The youngest Baby Boomer today is in his forties, while the oldest is turning sixty. Currently the largest group in the workforce, Baby Boomers represent between 43% and 50% of today's employees, depending on the source (Reynolds, 2005; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Overall, Boomers are a hardworking group as a whole. Baby Boomers were often labeled "workaholics" by themselves, the media, and other generations (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001). For Baby Boomers, hard work and climbing the career ladder equate to success (*American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Amey-Taylor, 2002). They are "driven, love challenge and want to be stars and build stellar careers" (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 5). Because of their work drive and the constant looking over the shoulder at the rest of their cohort, Boomers wanted to know how they were doing on the job. The modern performance appraisal, consisting of once-a-year appraisal and plenty of documentation, was developed to give Boomers the yearly

report card that they craved (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Lee, 2006). While Boomers as a whole are characterized as a hardworking group, many second-half Boomers have a different perspective on work based on the realities they observed and experienced. Zemke et al. (2000) believe that second-half Boomers, like many in Generation X, learned that “economics are as blind as justice; good work habits and positive mental attitude are not always rewarded, and often they are not enough to save a job, regardless of how well it has been done” (p. 74). Part of the Boomer work ethic came from the fact that there were so many of them and not always enough good jobs, but part of it was an economic drive. Zemke et al. (2000) contend that Baby Boomers “have a Pavlovian-like tendency to be driven anyway, the economic achievers among them are particularly remarkable” (p. 72). They are generally characterized by having intense optimism for the future (Thomas & Kunen, 1986). Lancaster and Stillman (2002) characterize the roots of this optimism:

The booming postwar economy gave the United States of the late 1940s, the 1950s, and the 1960s a sense that anything was possible. The availability of jobs and GI Loans to Traditionalist parents, the boom in production of consumer goods, and the promise of a good education for all allowed Boomers to grow up in a relatively affluent, opportunity-rich world. Traditionalist parents did everything they could to create a world in which their children would have opportunities that they had only dreamed of and encouraged their offspring to pursue those dreams. (p. 22)

Overall, Baby Boomers have been relatively prosperous as a whole. They realize that they have been through a lot of turmoil, but they generally believe that America will continue to succeed against any challenge it faces because they have seen and experienced most of what life has to throw at them.

Baby Boomer Challenges. One of the biggest challenges facing the Boomer workforce will occur when this generation decides to retire. The Employment Policy Foundation of Washington believes that, over the next 30 years, the demand for labor in the United States will exceed supply by 22% (Pavia, 2005). The problem is that most Baby Boomers do not seem willing to retire any time soon. Surveys indicate that “80% of Baby Boomers plan to continue working after age 65,” the general age of retirement in the United States (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005, p. 5). As this group continues to age, they will continue to dominate the workplace. Challenges for dealing with Baby Boomers in the workforce include changing their roles, recognizing their changing needs, and meshing their strengths with those of other generations. Companies that will thrive in the future will “call upon Boomers to become change leaders” to utilize their experience in developing future leaders (Pavia, 2005, p. 10). For employers to retain this talent, they will have to realize that the priorities for this generation have changed. Baby Boomers today are no longer taking care of their young children; they are now caring for their aging parents (Adler, 2005). Companies will also have to continue to find ways to minimize generational conflict. Baby Boomers, in many cases, do not see work or life in the same way as other generations (Amey-Taylor, 2002). Recognizing this and developing strategies to mesh the strengths of the generations while minimizing the weaknesses will be a key to winning the talent wars.

Generation X. Why is it called Generation X? The term originated in a book written in 1991 by Douglas Coupland named *Generation X* (Jochim, 1997). Coupland’s book described “three strangers who decide to distance themselves from society to get a

better sense of who they are" (Jochim, 1997). These characters were described as "underemployed, overeducated, intensely private and unpredictable" (Jochim, 1997).

Defining Generation X. The predominant research identifies Generation Xers as those born in the 1960s and 1970s, but exact dates still vary. Zemke et al. (2000) categorizes Gen X as those born between 1960 and 1980; Lancaster and Stillman (2002) and Homan (2005) use 1965 to 1980; Martin and Tulgan (2002), *American Knowledge Workers* (2001), Earle (2003), Ceridian's *Maximizing Human Capital Assets* (2005) and Harris (2005) define them as coming between 1965 and 1977 or 1978; Reynolds (2005) and Howe and Strauss (2000) share similar dates, 1961/64 to 1981 and 1961 to 1981 respectively; and Deal (2007) uses 1964 to 1986 to define the cohort. Generation X encompasses the nearly 50 million born during this period (Assad, Beaupre, Fish, & Rudnick, 2005). Generation X has been called the 13th Generation, Baby Busters, the MTV Generation, Slackers, Twentysomethings, Post-Boomers, Generation Lost, and Generation Invisible (Zemke et al., 2000; Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Rossi, 2006). Those representing Generation X include technology leaders Michael Dell, Amazon.com's Jeff Bezos, and Yahoo's Jerry Yang and David Filo; Tom Cruise, Jodie Foster, and Renee Zellweger are some of the generation's cultural icons, while Michael Jordan, Shaquille O'Neal, Alex Rodriguez, Tiger Woods and Lance Armstrong are among the generation's most recognizable athletes (Zemke et al., 2000; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; *American Knowledge Workers*, 2001).

Defining Events. This generation came of age during the late 70's, 80's and 90's. Events that shaped this generation include stagflation, the birth of two-income families

and the concept of “latchkey kids,” skyrocketing divorce rates, the Reagan Revolution, the end of the Cold War, the Challenger explosion, computers, MTV, and AIDS (Amey-Taylor, 2002). Violence became ordinary with this generation as cable television, 24 hour news networks, and increasing technology took roots. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) contend that, as mass media expanded exponentially, the message of violence became more pervasive with constant images of death and destruction caused by AIDS, crack cocaine, drunk drivers, and child predators. Martin and Tulgan (2002) describe the United States while Gen Xers were growing up:

During their formative years, the world was a terrifying place, even without a major war. Milk-carton kids became their MIAs. The AIDS epidemic put the lid on sexuality. Headlines screamed not of terrors abroad, but of those lurking down the street: Son of Sam, sexual abuse at home and in daycare centers, police brutality. (p. 7)

Many in this generation were often alone and without supervision, so they were forced to become self-reliant. This generation endured divorce or fended for themselves in homes where both parents worked (Hardesty, 1999). Zemke et al. (2000) describes childhood for Gen Xers:

They were the most attention-deprived, neglected group of kids in a long time. Parents were absent without leave for two reasons. First, nearly half of their parents’ marriages ended in divorce. Generation X children lived and breathed in an environment of joint custody, visitation rights, and weekend fathers Second, this was the first generation of kids within the bounds of the two-income family This one-two punch created a new sociological trend: latchkey kids. (p. 98)

Many of the values attributed to Generation X and their perceived strengths are directly related to the culture they were reared in with the violence and the changing role of the family. Feelings of abandonment shaped Generation X’s desire for their children to have

quality time versus quantity time and their concern with the moral tone of society, while their desire for order leads them to stress personal and civic responsibility over personal rights (Fishman, 2005; Zemke et al., 2000). Generation X's role on 9/11 and their role in the war on terrorism demonstrated their belief in personal and civic responsibility. Most of the September 11 firefighters, police officers, and rescue personnel, Jeremy Glick and Todd Beamer who helped bring down the hijacked plane in Pennsylvania, and Pat Tillman who gave up a lucrative NFL contract to join the U.S. Army's elite Ranger unit were all products of this generation (Fishman, 2005). The core values of this generation are diversity, thinking globally, "technoliteracy," balance between work and family, self-reliance, pragmatism, fun and informality, and skepticism (Amey-Taylor, 2002; Zemke et al., 2000). These issues and values bleed over into their work life and their work attitudes.

Generation X at work. The youngest Generation X worker is thirty, while the oldest is in his early forties. They represent between 29% and 42% of the U.S. workforce, depending on the source (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005; Reynolds, 2005). This group is much more computer literate than the Baby Boomers and they are open to change. Generation Xers are technologically savvy, eager to learn, and comfortable with change at work (Amey-Taylor, 2002). Smola and Sutton (2002) contend that, because Gen Xers grew up in the midst of financial, family, and societal insecurity, they developed "a sense of individualism over collectivism" (p. 365). Being individualistic has created a generation of problem solvers, but Generation X does often seek social attachments. Smola and Sutton (2002) believe the Generation X worker

brings “well-honed, practical approaches to problem solving” to the workplace (p. 365).

In terms of social attachments, Gen Xers seek close knit groups of friends and place significant value on their own families. Generation Xers do not have the same attachment to work that Baby Boomers displayed. They value flexibility, work-life balance and autonomy on the job; they appreciate a fun, informal work environment, but require frequent and honest feedback from their employers because they want to improve (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). In terms of communicating with Generation X employees and providing feedback, Cottrell (2000) contends that:

This generation, for the most part, has grown up with computers, finding shortcuts and streamlining ways of communicating with their friends, researching, doing homework, and accessing the universe of information provided by the Internet. These new generation workers are conditioned to instantaneous feedback. (p. 63)

Lancaster and Stillman (2002) concur with this assessment, adding that the need for instantaneous, immediate feedback often fuels conflict with Baby Boomer bosses. Work is work with Generation X; they value balance between family and work, so work becomes a necessity to fund their free time (Amey-Taylor, 2002; Zemke et al., 2000). They come to work with a different set of values and different motivators than did the Baby Boomers (McGarvey, 1999). Many believe that this generation lacks loyalty. Generation Xers tend to be loyal to their professions but not necessarily to their employers (McGarvey, 1999). This occurs because Generation X watched as their parents’ loyalty was rewarded by corporate downsizing and restructuring in the 1970s and 80s, so they are hesitant to offer loyalty when they do not believe that it will be returned (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Gen Xers will also be loyal as long

as the work experience builds upon their skill sets and the employer demonstrates loyalty to the Gen Xer in the form of developing skills that are mutually beneficial to the company and the individual employee (*American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002). Loyalty from this group is earned and, once lost, it is hard to recover.

Generation X Challenges. One of the challenges in terms of dealing with Generation X employees is that their numbers may not be sufficient to fill the gaps that will be left in the workforce when baby boomers retire or reduce their work roles. As mentioned previously, over the next 30 years the demand for labor in the United States will exceed supply by 22% (Pavia, 2005). This fuels the problem of recruiting and retaining Generation X employees. Generation Xers will not wait for opportunities, leading critics to say that they are unwilling to pay their dues (Jurkiewicz, 2000). The issue is not that they are unwilling to pay their dues; the real issue is that other companies are willing to give them what they want now. To retain Generation X employees, employers need to find ways to engage, motivate, and develop this generation (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Employers must also take into account how Generation X strives to balance their work and personal lives. Developing benefits and strategies that cater to this generation will have to account for their values of being pro-family, flexible, reward oriented, and autonomous (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Employers and Baby Boomer managers must also take into account that Generation X employees work differently and they have different approaches to doing the same jobs. Baby Boomers look at Generation X employees and believe “they’re not younger versions of me, so they must be wrong” (Further Along the X Axis, 2004). Employers and Baby Boomer managers must learn

new ways to recruit, recognize, evaluate, discipline, and develop Generation X talent recognizing that this is a unique group of individuals and not carbon copies of the Baby Boomer generation.

The Millennial Generation. Wanting to differentiate themselves from the past, the generational cohort that succeeds Generation X wanted to name themselves. Howe and Strauss (2000) write that this generational cohort invented the name Millennials because they did not want to be associated with either Generation X or the Baby Boomers.

Defining Millennials. The literature on Millennials is still forming on a daily basis as this generation continues to develop and come of age. In terms of defining the age range for this generation, it seems most agree that Millennials were born sometime after 1977, but there is little agreement from there. Multiple researchers look at this as a generation that is still forming, so they use start dates with no end dates. Earle (2003) and Harris (2005) define Millennials as those born after 1977, Ceridian's *Maximizing Human Capital Assets* (2005) includes all those born after 1978, Homan (2005) characterizes those born after 1980 as being members of this cohort, and Howe and Strauss (2000) includes all those born after 1982 in their research. Researchers that use defined start and end dates include Martin and Tulgan (2002) (1978 to 1985); *American Knowledge Workers* (2001) and Smola and Sutton (2002) (1979 to 1994); Zemke et al. (2000) (1980 to 2000); Lancaster and Stillman (2002) (1981 to 1999); and Reynolds (2005) (1982 to 1993). Worldwide estimates place Millennial births in excess of 100 million, while census figures indicate the number of U.S. born to be 82 million (Howe &

Strauss, 2000; Kissinger, 2005). This generation has been called Generation Y, Generation Me, the Dot-Com Generation, Echo Boomers, Boomer Babies, Bull Market Babies, the Net Generation, Generation Tech, Generation Next, Nexters, the Don't Label Us Generation, and Generation Why (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Zemke et al., 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; Kerslake, 2005; Twenge, 2006). Members of the Millennial Generation include Britain's Prince William and Prince Harry, Napster founder Shawn Fanning, athletes Danica Patrick, Dwayne Wade, LeBron James, singer Avril Lavigne, and actresses Mary-Kate and Ashley Olsen (*American Knowledge Workers*, 2001; Greenfield & Chisholm, n.d.).

Defining Events. Older Millennials came of age during the 80's and 90's, while the younger Millennials are still being formed today. One of the greatest influences on this generation has been the Internet and access to computers. Some studies estimate that more than half of U.S. homes were wired into the Internet at the end of 2004 with online audiences continuing to surge (Roberts, 2005). In 2003, 76% of children ages three to seventeen had access to a computer at home as opposed to 15% in 1984 (Home Computer Access & Internet, 2003). With billions of facts at their fingertips, on the Internet, handheld computers, and cellular telephones, this generation is the most technologically advanced generation in history (Kissinger, 2005). Lancaster and Stillman (2002) describe Millennials' access to technology and the impact technology has had on their young lives:

Technology moved even closer to people; in fact, it moved right into their pockets. This is the generation that has had access [to technology] . . . since they were in diapers. While the Xers were the first to jump on board

the personal computer, Millennials can brag about being able to take it for a joyride on the information superhighway. Through the Internet, they have visited virtually every corner of the globe. (p. 28)

The Millennial Generation has also been shaped by acts of domestic and international terrorism in the Oklahoma City bombings, the first bombing of the World Trade Center, and the 9/11 terrorist attacks; they also experienced Columbine and other incidents of school violence (Zemke et al., 2000; Amey-Taylor, 2002; Kissinger, 2005). In addition to these events, Howe and Strauss (2000) list the war in Kosovo, Princess Diana's death, the Rodney King riots, and the O.J. Simpson murder trial as defining events in most Millennials lives. Experiencing this violence has made this one of the most protected groups. Millennial children were reared in "the era of the helicopter parent, so named because [their parents] tend to hover over" them watching and overprotecting them in every aspect of their lives (Kissinger, 2005, p. A-1). This generation values diversity, in terms of race, ethnicity, sexuality, and individuality. Members of this generation have been characterized as being an optimistic group that does not subscribe to the wisdom of traditional racial and sexual categorizing (Amey-Taylor, 2002). In terms of race, sexuality, and gender, Howe and Strauss (2000) believe that these issues have "become so fluid, complex, and multifaceted that the old answers seem less persuasive, the old struggles less purposeful, and the old equations less relevant" to this generation (p. 219). The United States Army recognized the individualism of this generation. Mui (2004) and Twenge (2006) both highlighted how, after 20 years of a "Be All You Can Be" Army, the U.S. Army has now changed to "An Army of One" to appeal to the individualism of this generation. This generation's core values include optimism, confidence, civic duty,

achievement, sociability, morality, synergy, diversity, and respect for older generations (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Zemke et al., 2000; Amey-Taylor, 2002). Overall, the Millennial generation is a more diverse, more open group, and they value their uniqueness. Engaging this generation in the workforce will be a key for surviving future talent wars.

Millennials in the Workforce. Members of the Millennial Generation are under the age of 30, and, although a good number of Millennials are still in school, some of the older members of this cohort have entered the workforce. The Millennial Generation represents 10 to 15% of the U.S. workforce today (Reynolds, 2005; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). The Millennial Generation tends to be well organized, confident, resilient and achievement oriented; they are excellent team players, like collaboration and use sophisticated technology with ease (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Zemke et al. (2000) believe that resilience is one of the best assets for this generation because Millennials have experienced a world that is very different from that of past generations, so they take for granted the things that really annoy or traumatize the other generations. According to Howe and Strauss (2000), Millennials have been taught collaborative learning from their first day in school with all classes, including mathematics, being taught and practiced in groups. Collaboration and teamwork have been reinforced by the Millennial's parents. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) point out their participation-oriented parents have encouraged these Millennials to take part in the decision making process in the family since they learned to point, helping to decide everything from where to go on a vacation to what computer to buy. Millennials will

bring this sense of collaboration and teamwork to the workplace. Zemke et al. (2000) believe that Millennials are ideal for the workplace because they “combine the work ethic of the Boomers with the can-do attitude of the Veterans and the technological savvy of the Xers” (p. 143). Millennial children had closer relationships with their parents. So, this generation is comfortable with authority and they generally relate well to people who are older (Zemke et al., 2000; *Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). As mentioned previously, Millennial employees will value diversity. They want to work in an environment where differences are respected and valued, where people are judged by their contributions and where talent is what matters – no matter the race, gender, or generation (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Actions speak louder than words with this generation. They are result oriented workers who care more about the content of the book than its cover. In terms of communication, Millennial workers are “fluent in multiple modes of communication and types of media,” they have an innate ability to “parallel process and multi-task” (*American Knowledge Workers*, 2001, p. 2). Like the Gen Xers that preceded them, this generation wants instantaneous feedback, but they also want managers to lead, coach, develop, and nurture them (Earle, 2003). This should be no surprise for employers because Millennials have been reared by their parents and taught in school with the same styles.

Millennial Challenges. As this generation continues to enter the workforce, they are going to present several challenges to employers. Corporate image will continue to appeal to Millennial employees. Surveys indicate that 90% of Millennial job candidates view the reputation or branding of a company as being an important factor in deciding

which companies to work (Zemke et al., 2000; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; *Analysing the Aspirations*, 2005). This generation will refuse to work for companies like Enron because they have proven that the company and its leaders cannot be trusted and the company's values do not align with the values of this generation. Over 70% of Millennial candidates will not apply for positions in organizations if they do not subscribe to the values of the organization (*Analysing the Aspirations*, 2005). This generation values honesty and respect over pay and compensation (Kissinger, 2005). For employers to recruit and retain this generation, they are going to have to provide employees with honest and committed leadership. Millennial employees will not stay with organizations whose values do not align with their own. This generation will "vote with their feet" and will not "tolerate mediocre processes or mediocre leadership" (Hoffman, 2005). According to Martin and Tulgan (2002), Millennials, like other generations, believe that their relationship with their immediate supervisor is one of the critical factors in the decision making process as to whether to stay or leave an organization. Other challenges include finding Millennial talent. Companies that cannot match the technological competence of this generation will not be able to recruit this talent (Amey-Taylor, 2002). Millennial employees have a tremendous upside for companies and organizations that are willing to address these challenges. This generation represents the future workforce for every organization.

Cuspers. It is impossible to pick a set of dates and determine what generation somebody comes from based solely on that information. As mentioned previously, members from a generation share significant historical and social life events in addition

to birth years (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998; Smola & Sutton, 2002). The subjective nature of defining a generation or generational cohort leads to gray areas between different generations. Due to subjectivity of this topic, many researchers have labeled individuals who fall in these gray areas between two generations as Cuspers (Martin & Tulgan, 2002; Lancaster & Stillman, 2002; De Kort, 2004; McKenzie, 2005). Lancaster and Stillman (2002) identify Cuspers as those “individuals who carry an extra strand of generational DNA because they are positioned right between two generations” (p. 36). Zemke et al. (2000), Deal (2007), and others, while not using the same term, often recognize these differences by referring to making splits within the different cohorts, but still maintaining the overall label (i.e. late boomers vs. early boomers, first-halfers vs. second halfers, etc.). Whatever the term that is used in the research, the key to understanding this concept is that these individuals share the historical and social events that shape the cohort, so they will exhibit characteristics of both generations. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) identify three general groups of Cuspers in the workforce: Traditionalist Baby Boomers born between 1940 and 1945, Baby Boomer Generation Xers born between 1960 and 1965, and Generation Xer-Millennials born between 1975 and 1980. Now that dates have been given, realize these dates are only guidelines and that shared events are the best determinant of where an individual falls.

Cuspers, based on their unique position between two generations, offer great balance in the workplace. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) believe that Cuspers can bridge differences between the generations, becoming “naturals at mediating, translating, and mentoring” (p. 39). With their shared values, Cuspers can effectively communicate with

those in the generations that sandwich them. Cuspers can “provide a voice to those who aren’t being heard” because they share a common history with different generations, while being able to keep enough distance to maintain a balanced perspective (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002, p. 40). Cuspers can also make great managers because of the understanding they have of the generations they encompass. Lancaster and Stillman (2002) discuss the potential that Cuspers have for management because they:

Relate to more than one generation, [they] have the ability to look at the world through more than one set of lenses. It can make all the difference when employees feel they are being listened to and truly heard. Whether conducting a performance review, designing a career path, or giving day-to-day feedback, this innate understanding of more than one generation can make Cusper managers both efficient and effective. (p. 39)

Their ability to bridge gaps between different generations, coupled with the increased perspective that they bring to the workplace, increase Cusper employees’ value to an organization.

The Dissenting View. Even though the predominant literature seems to make it abundantly clear through research and workplace observations that there are unique differences that exist within the different generations, there are some researchers who find that these differences are somewhat overstated. The dissenting body of work deserves some mention because these researchers do bring up many valid points in their work.

Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) conducted research to examine similarities and differences on fifteen motivational factors among three generational cohorts (Veterans, Baby Boomers, and Generation Xers) working within the public sector. In relation to this

current research, Jurkiewicz's and Brown's (1998) research examines the attitudes of employees in the public sector, one of the few studies to delineate between public and private sector employees. Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) used a sample of 278 employees from five jurisdictions within a Midwestern metropolitan area. The sample included workers from a variety of departments in the public sector, to include public works, fire, police, and administration (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). The respondents were asked to rank the fifteen motivational factors on a scale, with "1" being the most important motivational factor and "15" being the least important factor. Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) found that "all generations are . . . generic in want [*sic*] they want from their jobs" (p. 29). They felt that any variation among the generations was due to differences in life stage versus generational differences. Issues with this study include the limited size of the group that was studied. Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) recognize that their study may not be representative of all public sector employees because their sample was limited to 278 respondents in five jurisdictions. Generational differences are also difficult to measure. This study examined fifteen motivational factors, but nothing more. The predominant literature on generational differences seems to support that differences occur not only in motivation, but in a variety of other areas as well (i.e. communication, training preferences, work style, etc.).

Deal (2007) also contends that people are fundamentally the same, with the same goals, same drivers, and same motivators, no matter what generation they are from. She argues that miscommunication and misunderstanding are actually fueled by common insecurities and desires, such as control, power, authority, and position (Deal, 2007).

This research is much more extensive than that used by Jurkiewicz and Brown. Deal's (2007) study involved 3,200 respondents who answered at least one question on the survey. Deal's (2007) research indicated that life stages, more than specific generational differences, were better determinants of employee differences. While Deal's findings make sense, and are even supported in the predominant literature on generational differences to a certain extent, there seem to be some flaws in the work. Deal (2007) characterizes the different generations in the workplace as Silents (1925 to 1945), Early Boomers (1946 to 1954), Late Boomers (1955 to 1963), Early Xers (1964 to 1976), and Late Xers (1977 to 1986). Most of the ranges used by Deal seem to be consistent with those provided in the predominant literature. Late Xers are the exception to the rule. The group that Deal describes as Late Xers seem more likely to be what other researchers identify as either Millennials or Cuspers. When Deal compares overall Xers to Boomers, the comparison would actually be between Xers and Millennials to Boomers. This might skew the data. Deal uses a significant amount of perceptual data in the analysis, which makes it difficult to generalize the data because of subjectivity. For example, Deal (2007) cites the top values identified by generation, finding that Veterans cite integrity (69%) and wisdom (60%) as their top values, whereas Late Xers cite family (78%) and love (73%). Integrity and wisdom are at the bottom of the Late Xers values, while family and love fall in the middle of what Veterans cite (Deal, 2007). While this is just one example of a discrepancy, it seems like there is a significant difference between the values listed between these two cohorts. It would be difficult to make the leap to state that this is a life stage difference versus a generational difference because many Veterans

are at a stage in their life where grandchildren and family might bring more value to them, so one might expect to see these values closer aligned using Deal's thought process.

Although based primarily on the prevailing literature on generational differences, this current research benefits from these two dissenting views in that they both expand the researchers consciousness of alternate explanations for any differences among generational cohorts. Being cognizant of this possibility guided the research in developing and analyzing the actual research for this study.

METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

There are three research questions posed in this thesis. Is turnover an issue in the Chesterfield County Police Department? Do law enforcement officers exhibit the same generational differences observed in society as a whole? Is the Chesterfield County Police Department in sync with the perceptions of its officers in terms of generational competence?

In examining the Chesterfield County Police Department, there is an appearance that the department is failing to reach staffing goals, which may adversely affect both physical and financial operations in the department. When these deficiencies are examined in light of the predominant literature on turnover, generational competence, and the different generations in the workplace, four basic hypotheses are formed:

H₁ – Turnover in the Chesterfield County Police Department will be an issue that can be successfully addressed through the development and implementation of sound retention strategies.

H₂ – Generational differences, in terms of values and beliefs identified with society as a whole, will be the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers from different generational backgrounds.

H₃ – Law enforcement officers within the Chesterfield County Police Department do not believe that the organization is generationally competent.

H₄ – Officers will perceive that perceptions of generational incompetence adversely affect the Chesterfield County Police Department's efforts at officer retention.

Research Methods

A variety of methods were used to gather the data necessary to examine and test the four hypotheses posed in this research. The first part of the research consists of examining turnover in the Chesterfield County Police which includes turnover rates, retention rates, and costs associated turnover. To examine turnover and retention within the department, a variety of techniques and sources were used to gather the information, from collecting and reviewing both raw and published data to conducting interviews. In terms of calculating turnover, the focus of this research is on retention, which primarily deals with reducing voluntary turnover. However, involuntary turnover cannot be completely ignored when studying turnover and calculating turnover rates in the department. Ahlrichs' contention that terminations reflect bad hires has merit, so the only involuntary, or unavoidable, turnover that will be excluded from this study involves police officers who were killed or who died in the line of duty and those who took medical retirement because these situations are uncontrollable. The formula used to compute turnover rates in this research will subtract this unavoidable turnover from overall turnover and will divide by the total number of officers in the department. Because the department could not provide data for the total number of officers employed at one specified time over the different years studied (i.e. on Sept 1st of each year, X # of sworn police officers were employed), this data came from a variety of different dates. When possible, common date periods were used to allow for conformity in the results. Turnover was studied from 1999 through 2006. Retention rates were also examined in the current research for many of the reasons cited in the literature review. The method

used to calculate retention rates in this research mirrors the formula proposed in Katz and Williams' research as opposed to the approach suggested by Waldman and Arora. The primary reason behind selecting Katz and Williams' method was for the sake of simplicity. Waldman and Arora's longitudinal approach is better suited for examining retention in the future, but it would have been difficult to gather the data necessary to measure retention in this manner from the department after the fact. In terms of calculating turnover costs, this research modified the formula proposed by Birati and Tziner in that it did not use the turnover rate multiplier (f) or the turnover affect on morale in computing overall costs. While the researcher had an understanding of why the turnover rate multiplier was used in their research, calculating the multiplier is a different issue. To develop an understanding of how to calculate the turnover rate multiplier, this researcher unsuccessfully attempted to contact Aharon Tziner at both Netanya Academic College and Tel Aviv University, both in Israel. Several scholarly articles published by Tziner as recently as 2005 and 2006 indicated that he was affiliated with one or both of these institutions. Computing the affect on morale was equally challenging. Birati and Tziner (1996) provide a model for calculating the turnover affect on morale, but their model required using results from morale surveys that they believed should be periodically administered in the organization. Without having this data, calculating the turnover affect on morale proved to be extremely difficult. The researcher could not quantify a monetary cost for the affect on morale, so this variable was also eliminated from the overall formula. The rest of the method proposed by Birati and Tziner seemed sufficient to at least developing a basic understanding of the costs of turnover within the

department. To determine the direct and indirect costs associated with their formula, the researcher conducted interviews with the department's recruiter, background investigators, training academy staff, and personnel section supervisors. Monetary figures were obtained from similar sources, the department's financial section, or were computed.

The second part of the research process consists of developing and administering a survey to sworn police officers and police recruits in both Henrico County and Chesterfield County. The survey was developed and administered in conjunction with Mark Banks. Church's and Waclawski's (1998) book, *Designing and Using Organizational Surveys: A Seven-Step Process*, provided the model for developing the survey with their seven-step approach, which includes pooling resources, designing and developing the survey, communicating objectives, administering and improving the survey, analyzing and interpreting, delivering results, and transferring and action planning.

Step 1: Pooling Resources. The first step of survey design involves developing objectives for the survey and gathering organizational support. The objective forms the foundation for the survey and starts the process for developing support within the organization. The survey sample included 955 sworn police officers and police recruits in both the Chesterfield County Police Department and the Henrico County Police Department, which is a neighboring jurisdiction that is similar in many ways to Chesterfield County. Administering the survey to both jurisdictions provided a larger sample of police officers and increased the researcher's chances of being able to

generalize data to prove or disprove the second hypothesis. Sworn police officers include all individuals who are sworn to enforce the laws of the Commonwealth, to include those of varying ranks (Police Officer, Detective, Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain, Major, Lieutenant Colonel, and Colonel) and assignments (Administration, Uniform Operations Bureau, Investigations Bureau, and Operational Support Bureau). Police recruits are individuals who have been hired by one of the two departments, but are still in training to become police officers and have not been sworn in by the courts. Henrico County uses the term “Probates” to describe police officers who have successfully completed the training process, but are still in a field training process where they work with a more experienced police officer. Probates, while sworn police officers, are restricted by departmental policy as to what they can and cannot do without the veteran field training officer. While Chesterfield County has officers in similar positions, these officers are still considered sworn police officers within the department. For the purposes of this survey, “Probates” will not be differentiated from sworn police officers and will fall in the police officer response to the demographic question about current rank or position. The purpose of this survey was to identify characteristics of different generations within law enforcement and to determine whether generational differences play a role in the recruitment and retention process. The survey asked a variety of questions to assess the perceptions of generational competence of the different organizations and to assess individual opinions and attitudes on generational issues, recruitment, and retention within the two departments. The survey was administered in both an online and written format. The online component utilized eListen software that had web based options to allow for

survey delivery both internally on Chesterfield County's Intranet and externally on the Internet. Although electronic delivery was the preferred method, a paper-based survey was also used. There were several rationales for using the two formats. First, the dual approach provided the most flexibility in administering the survey, which should have increased participation in the survey. Having the survey on Chesterfield County's Intranet allowed patrol officers in Chesterfield to respond to the survey from their patrol vehicles at "hotspots" located throughout the county and allowed for greater access to the survey for the remainder of the department. The Internet option allowed officers from both Chesterfield County and Henrico County to respond to the survey from any computer with access to the Internet, either at work, home, or any place in between. The Intranet and Internet options gave survey access to a minimum of 75% of the two departments. The paper-based format was intended to give those without immediate access to either the Chesterfield County Intranet or Internet a viable option for participating in the survey. This group primarily consisted of Henrico County's patrol officers who, like Chesterfield County's patrol officers, had computer access in their cars, but didn't have access to either the Chesterfield County Intranet or Internet while in their patrol vehicles. Having both electronic and paper-based options gave the entire sample the opportunity to complete the survey. The second reason for using both options was to account for individuals who were uncomfortable with online delivery for one reason or another. These individuals could print out the survey and mail it back through departmental mail to one of the two researchers after completing the survey. The third reason for the different options dealt with confidentiality concerns. Having multiple

modes to respond to the survey provided greater anonymity for the respondents. The Internet provides a degree of anonymity for users, so those comfortable with that medium were able respond feeling relatively certain that their responses could not be tracked back to them. And, even though internal networks are routinely monitored, this researcher received assurances from both the Chesterfield County Human Resource Department and the Police Department's Information Technology Section that these responses would not be tracked at any point during the survey process. For those individuals concerned about privacy on the Internet or Intranet, the paper-based option provided complete anonymity. After receiving paper-based surveys, those results were manually entered into the survey database by the researcher who received the survey.

Participation in the survey was voluntary. An informed consent statement preceded the survey. Respondents were advised that they were free to withdraw consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. To insure confidentiality, neither the respondent's name nor their e-mail address was connected in anyway to their responses to this survey. The informed consent statement stressed that the researchers would not know if respondents chose to participate or not. The informed consent statement, coupled with assurances received from Chesterfield County, insured that responses were confidential and anonymous.

Several measures were taken to build organizational support for the survey. Within Chesterfield County, this researcher individually met with several people in the department to gather support and communicated directly with many more via e-mail. Major Thierry Dupuis acted as an informal departmental advisor throughout the research

process, providing valuable input at every step. John McLenagan, the then head of Police Human Resources, and Kristen Brown, the current head of Police Human Resources, reviewed the survey and made suggestions on delivering it. Colonel Carl Baker, the Chesterfield County Police Chief, also reviewed the research proposal and survey before backing the research with his approval. In Henrico County, Mark Banks followed many of the same steps, including obtaining support from Colonel Henry Stanley, the Henrico County Police Chief. Both researchers also agreed prior to initiating the research that results for both the recruitment and retention efforts would be disseminated together in open presentations in both jurisdictions. Each of these measures was taken to build organizational support for this research.

Step 2: Designing and Developing the Survey. After completing a review of the predominant literature on generational differences and retention, designing and developing the survey was an easier task. This researcher worked with Mark Banks to compile the instrument. There were four basic components that needed to be measured by the survey which consisted of sample demographics and organizational and individual opinions on generational competence, recruiting, and retention within the two departments. The survey consisted of a total of seventy-six questions, with nine demographic questions, twenty organizational questions, twenty individual questions, ten recruitment questions, and seventeen retention questions.

The independent variables were contained in the demographic questions. The independent variables consisted of generational grouping, department, race, rank, current assignment, time employed with current department, level of education, and family

status. Of the nine demographic questions, only two questions required a response to be able to continue with the survey in eListen. Those questions dealt with the respondent's police department and their year of birth. Department affiliation was a mandatory question because it allowed the researchers to focus on results for the specific agency being studied. This researcher would not have been able to test hypotheses three or four without having the ability to separate results between the two departments. Year of birth was a mandatory question because this research focused on generational differences, and, without knowing the birth range of the respondent, conclusions could not be drawn without this information. Paper-based surveys that did not answer these two questions were not processed by either researcher. Birth ranges were used to identify with which generational cohort the respondent most likely associated. The ranges used included those born prior to 1945 (Veterans), 1946 to 1955 (Early Boomers), 1956 to 1964 (Late Boomers), 1965 to 1976 (Generation Xers), and those born after 1977 (Millennials). Other demographic questions were included in the survey so that variables other than generation could be examined as causative factors for any differences that might have been observed. To limit the likelihood that a respondent could be identified based on their responses to the demographic questions, responses were grouped to reduce the total number of possibilities. For example, five choices were used to describe race (White or Caucasian, Black or African American, Asian, Hispanic or Latino, and Other) and rank (Police Recruit, Patrol Officer Detective, Sergeant, Lieutenant, and Captain or above); four choices were used to describe current assignment (Administration, Uniform Operations Bureau, Investigations Bureau, and Operations Support Bureau), time

employed with current department (0 to 5 years, 6 to 15 years, 16 to 25 years, and over 26 years), level of education (Completed H.S. or equivalent, Associate's Degree, Bachelor's Degree, and Master's Degree or higher), and family status (Single With No Children, Single With Children, Married With No Children, and Married with Children).

The dependent variables consisted of police officers perceptions on the generational competence of their organization, individual attitudes on generational values and beliefs, and their opinions on recruiting and retention within the two departments. The questions used to measure the dependent variables came from a variety of sources. Zemke et al. (2000) published an inventory of twenty questions in their book that attempted to measure the level of generational competence in an organization which provide a foundation for all of the organizational questions and five retention questions that were included in the survey. Several of these questions were double and triple barreled, so the questions were changed and adapted for use in the current survey instrument. For example, one question was "we take the time to talk openly about what different cohorts – and the individuals within them – are looking for on the job . . . what makes work rewarding . . . which environment is most productive . . . what types of work load, schedule, and policies work best" (Zemke et al., 2000, p. 254). This question was adapted to become: (1) The department takes time to talk openly about what you are looking for on the job and (2) The department takes time to talk openly about what types of work load, schedule, and policies work best for you. Other questions were developed through the readings of literature on the generations and turnover, while the researcher's personal observations led to other questions. One of the goals of the survey effort was to

validate whether the values identified and associated with the different generations in the predominant literature resonated with the different generations working in the police departments. The predominant research identified twenty-five values associated with the different generations:

Veteran Values:

- a. Dedication/Sacrifice
- b. Hard work
- c. Conformity
- d. Respect for Authority/Order
- e. Adherence to the Rules/Policies
- f. Delayed Rewards

Generation X Values:

- a. Technologically Literate
- b. Eager to Learn/Continuous Learning
- c. Comfortable with Change
- d. Flexibility/Informal Work Life
- e. Work-life Balance
- f. Autonomy On the Job

Baby Boomer Values:

- a. Optimism
- b. Prosperity/Personal Gratification
- c. Work Ethic
- d. Team Orientation
- e. Consensus
- f. Personal Growth

Millennial Values:

- a. Morality
- b. Honesty and Respect
- c. Diversity
- d. Civic Duty
- e. Achievement
- f. Synergy
- g. Integrity of Leadership

A ranking question was developed using these values in which the respondents were asked to rank the top five values that related to themselves in their lives and at work. The different values were arranged in a random order so that groupings were not apparent. Additional questions were developed based on the research on the different generations. These questions covered a variety of topics to include employee loyalty, work/life issues, and technology. Research on turnover and retention led to many questions as well, to

include questions on job satisfaction, leadership, perceptions about retention, compensation, and related topics.

A variety of different question types were used in the survey to elicit responses. The majority of the questions asked were close-ended questions. Church and Waclawski (1998) define close-ended questions as those questions that are answered with “a limited number of options from which respondents must make one or more choices” (p. 67). A 5-point Likert scale, using both a frequency type scale and an evaluation type scale, provided the standard for responses on the close-ended questions. The frequency scale consisted of responses ranging from Never to Always, while the evaluation scale used both Completely False to Completely True and Not Important to Very Important response ranges. For simplicity, questions within the same category on the survey and with similar responses were grouped together in the final survey. Responses in the Likert scale ran negative to positive throughout the survey with the exception of one question (I am currently looking for another job with a different organization or organizations), which was an oversight that was not caught until after the survey was deployed. There were four open-ended questions, two in the recruitment section and two in the retention section. The open-ended questions were intended to elicit a more in-depth, thoughtful response to these specific questions. Although not counted as a question, respondents were also allowed to add additional comments in a text box inserted at the end of the survey.

The survey was reviewed by a number of peers and colleagues as a quality control effort. Survey reviewers assisted by reviewing questions to insure they were relevant and

unbiased, focused on only one idea at a time (double-barreling), and were clear and concise. The survey went through a minimum of eight significant revisions from start to finish. After going through the quality control effort, the next step involved piloting the survey to the twelve members of the researchers Public Safety University cohort. The piloting group was asked to complete the survey and to evaluate whether questions and instructions were clear, relevant, and specific. On average, individuals piloting the survey took approximately ten minutes to complete the instrument. Upon completion, these individuals were asked to return the survey with feedback, positive or negative. Feedback from the piloting led to the final revision of the survey that was entered and eventually deployed using the eListen software.

While the survey was tested and improved, it was also submitted to the University of Richmond Institutional Review Board (IRB) as part of the university mandated approval process for conducting research studies. The survey was originally submitted on September 4, 2006, for expedited review. On September 12, 2006, Dr. Kathy Hoke, IRB Chair, provided conditional approval for the survey. After initial concerns with the survey were addressed, the IRB granted full approval for the survey phase of the research on September 20, 2006. No changes were made to the survey after final approval was obtained from the IRB (See Appendix C for Survey in Final Form).

Before being officially deployed in October 2006, the survey was tested on both the Chesterfield County Intranet and the Internet by the researchers. This researcher successfully tested the survey from a home computer, an in-car computer at several different hotspots within Chesterfield County, and from several work computers. Mark

Banks conducted similar tests in Henrico County as well. After verifying that the survey worked and collected data, the test data was purged and the survey was officially deployed.

Step 3: Communicating Objectives. This researcher identified individuals throughout the Chesterfield County Police Department, from every shift, operational assignment, and at varying ranks, to act as point of contacts for answering questions and promoting the survey. When the web link to the survey was sent out to the officers in both Chesterfield County and Henrico County, an introductory letter explaining the purpose of the study, methods for taking the survey, and how final results would be disseminated were provided so that the officers in the sample would buy-in to the effort (See Appendix D for a copy of this letter). Additionally, reminder e-mails were sent out weekly to all officers in the survey sample encouraging participation in the research effort.

Step 4: Administering Survey. The survey was launched in Chesterfield County on October 2, 2006, and in Henrico County on October 3, 2006. Since every member of the sample group had e-mail access through their respective departments, all communications with the group took place via e-mails from the researchers. A month later on November 3, 2006, the survey was closed. A grace period of one and a half weeks was added after the survey closed to receive any additional paper surveys that might have been sent through departmental mail to the researchers. No surveys were received after this grace period. By the week of November 27th, all of the paper-based surveys had been entered into the web based program, so the survey was officially closed.

Steps 5 through 7 involve analyzing and delivering the survey results and forming an action plan for dealing with the issue, or issues, covered in the survey. These steps are covered in subsequent chapters in this thesis through the analysis of the data and the application of the research in the organization.

The final phase of research involved conducting field interviews and collecting questionnaires from sworn police officers who have left the Chesterfield County Police Department. The purpose of the field interviews and questionnaires was to determine whether generational differences played a role in the decisions made by those police officers who have left the department since 1999. The field interviews focused on former police officers that had voluntarily left the organization under good standing because these are all officers that could not be retained by the department for one reason or another. Understanding why these individuals left was a key to determining whether generational differences played a role in their departure. Individuals who retired, including both standard and medical retirements, were not focused on in the field interviews because retirements are somewhat unavoidable, especially in the case of medical retirements, and, in the case of standard retirements, these are employees that have been retained for the duration of their career with Chesterfield County. Officers that were terminated or were forced to resign were also excluded from this phase of the research because, while important in examining turnover and retention overall, these employees could no longer be retained by the department due to whatever reason precipitated the firing or the forced resignation. There were 223 sworn police officers who left the department from 1999 to 2006. Of these officers, 46 retired, 5 died, and 21

were terminated or forced to resign, leaving 151 officers who met the criteria established to participate in the field interview and questionnaire process. This researcher's goal was to have a minimum of 10%, or 15 former police officers, participate in the research.

Participation in this phase of the research would be completely voluntarily, just as the case was with the survey. Letters were to be mailed to the last known address of the 144 officers who met the established criteria that asked if they would be willing to participate in the study. The officer's name and last known address would be provided to the researcher by the Chesterfield County Police Human Resource Section. Participants who chose to respond would be asked to contact the researcher via telephone or e-mail to set up an interview.

Development of the questionnaire mirrored development of the survey. The questionnaire asked a variety of questions to assess the generational competence of the Chesterfield County Police Department and to assess individual opinions and attitudes on generational issues and retention within the department. The field interview was intended to supplement data collected on the questionnaire using a structured question format. Other than minor changes in wording, the organizational component of the questionnaire replicates the survey's organizational component, using close-ended questions and the same 5-point Likert scales used in the survey for responses. The individual component of the questionnaire mixes many of the close-ended questions from the survey with open-ended questions, which require the respondents to expound further on their responses. Sample open-ended questions included:

- What role did supervision play in your decision to leave?
- Why did you leave Chesterfield?

- To what extent was mobility within the department an issue that you considered when you decided to leave Chesterfield?
- What training formats engaged you the most?

Because of the limited sample size, the mix of close-ended and open-ended responses provided the best chances of obtaining meaningful data without overwhelming the researchers with too much data. The questionnaire and structured interview were both reviewed by a number of peers and colleagues, in the same way that the survey was reviewed, to insure that questions were clear, unbiased, and within the scope of the research themes (See Appendix E for Questionnaire and Structured Interview Form).

The field interview and questionnaire would be conducted in one of several ways. The preferred method was in a face-to-face interview. With this method, the respondent would be given a questionnaire to complete – the demographic and organizational questions. Once the questionnaire was completed, the researcher would ask the respondent questions from the structured interview. Another method for conducting this phase of the research was using a telephone interview. In this case, the respondent would either have been read questions from the questionnaire or they would have completed an electronic version of the questionnaire prior to the interview. Once the questionnaire was complete, the researcher would ask the respondent questions from the structured interview. The final collection method, which is also the least preferred, would have involved disseminating the questionnaire and structured interview in an electronic format. With this method, both the questionnaire and the interview would be conducted electronically via e-mail, instant message, or similar medium. Telephone interviews and electronic delivery were not preferred methods of disseminating the questionnaire and

interview, but might have been necessary for individuals who no longer reside in Virginia.

Participation in the questionnaire and field interview phase of this research was completely voluntary. There were several measures taken throughout the development of the questionnaire and field interview to stress the voluntary nature of the research and to insure confidentiality of the respondents. First, participants had to decide on their own if they were interested in responding to the initial mailing. If a former police officer was not interested in participating in the study, he simply disregarded the initial letter. Second, an informed consent letter preceded the questionnaire and the structured interview. This letter reiterated the voluntary nature of the study and advised participants that they were free to withdraw their consent and discontinue participation at any time during the study. Finally, participants were under no obligation to answer any questions that they did not feel comfortable answering. To insure confidentiality, completed questionnaires would be assigned a control number so that documentation could not be tracked to the respondent. Individual responses would only be reported if the data did not reveal the source of the information due to the specific nature of the response.

The questionnaire and structured interview questions were also submitted to the University of Richmond Institutional Review Board (IRB) as part of the university mandated approval process. The questionnaire and structured interview questions were originally submitted on September 4, 2006 for expedited review. On September 19, 2006, these questions were resubmitted to the IRB due to confusion over the different phases of research. On September 22, 2006, IRB Chair, Dr. Kathy Hoke, provided

conditional approval for the questionnaire and structured interview. While addressing the concerns of the IRB, John McLenagan, then the head of Police Human Resources, decided that Police Human Resources would not release contact information for officers that no longer worked in the department (K. Brown, personal communication, September 27, 2006). On October 5, 2006, this researcher withdrew this phase of researchers from IRB consideration. In lieu of this phase of research, exit interview data will be analyzed in conjunction with the aforementioned survey.

Threats to Internal Validity

Instrumentation is a threat to internal validity. The online versus the written format provides two different formats for responding to the survey. While increasing the likelihood of getting responses, the two different formats may impact the results. Also, the written format had to be manually entered by one of the two researchers, which may lead to data entry mistakes that might impact the overall data.

Sample selection is a threat to internal validity. Since individuals are volunteering to take the survey, the possibility exists that only disgruntle employees may respond to the survey. With the 38% response rate, it seems highly unlikely that all of those respondents are disgruntle, the chance still exists.

FINDINGS

H₁ – Turnover in the Chesterfield County Police Department will be an issue that can be successfully addressed through the development and implementation of sound retention strategies.

R₁ – Although turnover and retention rates are relatively low in the department, costs associated with turnover are high (between \$2.85 million to \$3.57 million in 2006 alone). The costs alone make retention an issue in Chesterfield County, which supports the hypothesis. Retaining officers through many of the recommended strategies will save the department money in the long term.

H₂ – Generational differences, in terms of values and beliefs identified with society as a whole, will be the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers from different generational backgrounds.

R₂ – Overall, in terms of ranking values, loyalty, technology, and job seeking, the data tends to support the hypothesis that generational differences identified with society as a whole are the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers from different generational backgrounds.

H₃ – Law enforcement officers within the Chesterfield County Police Department do not believe that the organization is generationally competent.

R₃ – Respondents gave the Chesterfield County Police Department a score of 57.73 out of a total of 100, which would tend to support the hypothesis.

H₄ – Officers will perceive that perceptions of generational incompetence adversely affect the Chesterfield County Police Department's efforts at officer retention.

R₄ – Results are inconclusive in terms of supporting or not supporting this hypothesis because, although there are many generational overtones in the reasoning provided by officers surveyed and by those who have left the department, the data is still incomplete.

Turnover & Retention in the Chesterfield County Police Department. The first hypothesis (H₁) examines whether turnover in the Chesterfield County Police Department

is an issue that can be successfully addressed through the development and implementation of sound retention strategies. The first part of examining this hypothesis deals with computing turnover rates and determining how much turnover costs the department. Examining the second part of the hypothesis involves figuring out whether the costs of retaining officers are lower than the costs of letting them go, which is somewhat dependent on other findings in this research and the overall strategies that are recommended.

The examination of turnover began in the Police Human Resource Section with an interview of John McLenagan, then the head of Police Human Resources, and Kristen Brown, the current head of Police Human Resources. McLenagan and Brown are civilian employees within the department. The department tracks turnover rates, which McLenagan advised fluctuate between 4.5% and 6% (J. McLenagan, personal communication, Summer 2006). This researcher computed turnover rates for the department from 1999 to 2006 using raw data provided by the department. Police Human Resources was not able to provide data with the total number of personnel on specific dates since 1999, so this data was obtained through strategic reports and raw data. The following strategic plans were used to gather data on department strength: Strategic Plan: FY2000 - 2003 (1999); Strategic Plan: FY2001 - 2004 (2000); Strategic Plan: FY2002 - 2005 (2001); Strategic Plan: FY2003 - 2006 (2002); Strategic Plan: FY2004 - 2007 (2003); Strategic Plan: FY2005 - 2008 (2004); Strategic Plan: FY2006 - 2010 (2005); and Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011 (2006). The raw data supplemented the figures from the strategic reports because there is significant variance among numbers

reported in several of the strategic reports and actual raw data provided by the department. For example, the Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011 (2006) lists the number of officers employed in 2005 as 468, while a snapshot of the department's strength on November 1, 2005, showed the department only employed 436 officers (Scott, 2005a). Also, the same plan did not provide actual data for 2006, instead listing that the department planned to have 493 officers (Strategic Plan: FY2007 - 2011, 2006). As previously mentioned, raw data showed the department's strength on September 1, 2006, was 453 officers (Scott, 2006a). Turnover rates, minus unavoidable turnover, were computed for each year from 1999 to 2006. Only partial data, through September 2006, was used for 2006. From 1999 through 2006, voluntary turnover rates were as low as 3% (2003) and as high as 8% (2001), which was consistent with the information provided by McLenagan (See Table 1: Department Turnover & Retention Rates).

On its face, these single digit turnover rates look great. But, for some of the same reason cited by researchers recommending the use of retention rates, turnover rates alone do not completely encapsulate turnover in an organization. For example, the Strategic Plan: FY2006 - 2010 (2005) set a goal to employ 500 sworn officers by 2006. As of September 2006, 453 officers were being asked to do the work of 500. Can 453 police officers do the job of 500 officers? In terms of overtime expenditures alone, the Uniform Operations Bureau has spent \$5.9 million dollars since 1999 (V. Foutz, personal communication, February 5, 2007). These expenditures cannot be completely blamed on this shortage of officers because the overtime includes court overtime and special operation overtime expenditures, but part of the figure most certainly can be linked to a

shortage. If the department was operating at full strength, the need for overtime would probably be diminished, thus saving the department money. Retention rates were computed for each year from 1999 to 2006. Once again, only partial data was used for 2006. Data on “authorized strength” was obtained from forecasts for sworn police

Table 1 Department Turnover & Retention Rates

		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Departures	Total	27	32	37	32	15	26	31	23
	Medical Retirements	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	1
	Deaths	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
	Unavoidable Turnover	2	1	3	2	1	1	0	2
Total Personnel		435	443	443	443	447	449	436	453
Voluntary Turnover		6%	7%	8%	7%	3%	6%	7%	5%
Authorized Strength		435	435	443	443	443	470	468	500
Retention Rate		100%	102%	100%	100%	101%	96%	93%	91%
Average Time with the Department		4.98	4.18	4.42	2.81	2.98	7.67	3.36	4.18
NOTE: 2006 Data is Partial Data through September 2006									

officers contained in several strategic reports. There is some variance in this data. For example, Strategic Plan: FY2000 - 2003 (1999) forecasts 467 sworn officers in 2000, while Strategic Plan: FY2001 - 2004 (2000) reduces the forecast to 436 sworn officers and Strategic Plan: FY2002 - 2005 (2001) forecasted 442 officers. Also, specific hiring goals (i.e. hiring a total of 500 officers by 2006) were not included in earlier plans. These

differences seem to indicate that the department has a different definition of authorized strength than this researcher. Whatever the reason for these differences, the data used is the data provided. Based on the collected data, the department's retention rates for sworn police officers ranged from 91% to 102% from 1999 to 2006 (See Table 1: Department Turnover & Retention Rates). The data on turnover and retention rates alone gives the appearance that turnover is not an issue for the department. To better understand whether turnover was adversely impacting the department, turnover costs were computed. Direct costs included separation, hiring, training, and socialization. Indirect costs included overtime expenditures and loss of production that accompanied the hiring and training processes.

Separation Costs (C). Separation costs include costs associated with exit interviews, administrative costs involved with separating an employee, and any severance pay for the departing employee. To calculate these costs, this researcher decided to only calculate the police officer's final pay because salaries for the human resource personnel conducting exit interviews and for those out-processing the employee were included when computing hiring costs for incoming officers. Separation costs were calculated using turnover data from 2005 because police officers who left at that time were driving the need for 2006 expenditures and because 2006 data was incomplete. To focus solely on voluntary turnover, all retirements were factored out of the data in computing these costs because retiring officers had been retained for twenty or more years, so one could argue that the department got an adequate return on their original investment in these officers. Based on this criteria, 27 officers left the department in 2005 after serving an

average time of 3.36 years. To calculate the final pay for these officers, the average salary of an officer with three years (\$38,564.00) was divided by the twenty-six pay periods in a year to determine the amount of the officer's final pay check (\$1483.23). The officer's final pay was multiplied by the total number of departures to determine separation costs for the department (\$40,047.23). This figure represents the minimum amount that the department might have to pay in a year; it does not include legal costs that may be associated with terminations nor does it include the officer's benefits.

Hiring Costs (\$). Hiring costs consist of salaries of human resource personnel, recruitment and selection costs, and background investigation costs. Actual salaries for police human resource personnel were used to compute staff salaries. Since hiring is not the sole focus of all of the employees in the police human resource section (i.e. the director, human resource analysts), salaries of individuals who were not exclusively involved in the hiring process were divided to provide a cost estimate for their work. The estimate assumes that these employees collectively spend either 25%, 50%, or 75% of their time working on hiring. Using this approach allowed this researcher to compute a high and a low range for these costs. Full salaries for the full-time background investigators and the department's recruiter were included into the hiring costs because the sole focus of these employees' jobs is the hiring process. The salary range for all of these employees was between \$216,629.25 and \$313,257.75. Salaries of part-time employees that assist with hiring were not included in this range.

In addition to salaries, there were other costs involved with the selection and hiring process. The FY 2005 – 2006 Police Personnel Recruiting Budget identifies many

of the expenditures involved with selecting and hiring police officers. These costs include travel, testing, screening, and advertising expenses as well as administrative costs that include supplies, postage, and other incidental expenditures. Police Human Resources were budgeted \$86,100.00 for FY 2005 – 2006 (Foutz, 2005). Not included in these budgetary items were the costs attributed to conducting pre-employment polygraph examinations for applicants. As a polygraph examiner for the department, the researcher developed personal knowledge of the pre-employment polygraph process. The pre-employment process generally runs one hour, with an extensive interview followed by the polygraph examination. The pre-employment polygraph examination is administered by detectives in the Criminal Investigations Division. These detectives administered 159 pre-employment polygraph examines in 2006 (B. Badgerow, personal communication, March 6, 2007). Computing the costs of these polygraphs involves multiplying the number of tests by the average hourly rate for an officer/detective (\$20.43). The total cost of conducting these pre-employment polygraph examinations is approximately \$3,248.37. Polygraph instrument costs and maintenance were not included into this estimate because these costs were negligible and the instrument is also used to conduct criminal examinations, so differentiating between these costs would be difficult. This researcher interviewed a background investigator to see if there were any additional expenses that were not included in this estimate, but none were pointed out.

Hiring costs vary depending on the estimated time that the human resource staff spends on the recruitment process. Assuming they spend a minimum of 25% of their time on recruitment, then hiring costs are approximately \$305,977.62. Using a mid-range

of 50% for their time, these costs are approximately \$354,291.87. Assuming that the staff spends the maximum of 75% of their time on recruitment, these costs are approximately \$402,606.12.

Training Costs (T). Training costs consist of the initial training that a police recruit goes through to become a certified police officer in Virginia. The Chesterfield County Police has its own academy to conduct this training. Several people were interviewed, to include Lieutenant Chris Hensley, Sergeant Matt Botset, Sergeant Tim Spivey, and Training Officer Mark Younce, to gather information on training costs. Four 26 week basic police academies were run in 2006 (personal communication, February 2007). The 46th and 47th Basic Recruit Schools were run completely in 2006, while the 45th Basic Recruit School ended in 2006 and the 48th Basic Recruit School started in 2006 (personal communication, February 2007). Since half of both the 45th and 48th Basic Recruit Schools were run in 2006, there were three full academies run during the year. Although officers from other jurisdictions attend the Chesterfield County Basic Recruit School, only Chesterfield County Police Officers were included in the analysis of costs.

Salary data make up a portion of training costs. Actual salaries for police training personnel were used to compute staff salaries. Similar to the human resource personnel, training of recruits is not the sole focus of all of the employees in the training academy, so salaries were once again adjusted to provide a cost estimate for work associated with the basic recruit schools. The estimate assumes that these employees collectively spend either 25%, 50%, or 75% of their time working on issues involving the recruit schools. The training officer for the recruit school is the only individual who

devotes all of his time to the recruit training, so his full salary was included in the training costs. Also, since the academy runs six months, half of the salaries for the recruits were included in these costs. Police recruits from the 45th, 46th, and 47th Basic Recruit Schools, totaling forty-six recruits, were included for purposes of determining salary since there were three complete academies run in 2006. The obvious issue with using the 45th school is that only half of that school was conducted in 2006. This issue is mitigated since the 48th school was not used, which evens out the costs to a degree, and since these costs are not intended to be exact. The salary range for all of these employees was between \$938,810.25 and \$1,068,866.75.

Instructional costs were the next major training expenditure. The basic academy consists of 960 hours of instruction (personal communication, February 2007). The core curriculum provided to this researcher consists of 76 classes, which accounted for the bulk of the time (821.5 hours). The remainder of the courses (138.5 hours) consists of physical training, orientation, issuing equipment, drill and ceremony, and similar events. These remaining hours are not specifically included in the total calculations, but are most likely accounted for through staff salaries. While academy staff teaches some of these courses, they generally use subject matter experts from within the department to teach classes. Using schedules provided by the training academy, this researcher calculated the cost per class. Costs varied by the number of instructors, instructor's rank, and the number of hours devoted for each class. It costs approximately \$61,152.01 to teach the 76 core courses. An additional cost of \$18 per recruit is incurred when the recruit class

participates in group building exercises at a local facility, Camp Baker. The cost for the forty-six recruits to participate in these exercises is \$828.00.

There are equipment, facility, and maintenance costs which are all associated with training new recruits. The vast majority of equipment (i.e. guns, gun belts, handcuffs, vehicles) are reusable, so these costs were not factored into training costs. Ammunition was included in the data. Sergeant Spivey, the shooting range supervisor, estimated that basic recruits shoot approximately 2025 rounds with their handguns during the firearms week, which translates to an approximate cost of \$475 per recruit (personal communication, February 2007). Based on this data, the academy spent approximately \$21,850.00 in 2006 on ammunition for recruit training. All agreed that the expense involved with operating the training building would remain constant whether an academy class was in session or not, so these costs were not included. The academy does spend \$150 per academy to rent an area at Ft. Pickett to conduct drivers training, so that expense was included.

Overall, training costs are the largest single expenditure measured. These costs vary depending on the estimated time that training academy staff spend developing and influencing the basic recruit school. Assuming they spend a minimum of 25% of their time on the basic recruit school, then training costs are approximately \$1,145,394.27. Using a midrange of 50% for their time, these costs are approximately \$1,210,422.52. Using the maximum amount of time (75%), these costs are approximately \$1,275,450.77.

Socialization costs (U). Field training in the police department accounts for the socialization costs. Field training occurs after the police recruits successfully complete

the basic recruit school. Consisting of four two-week stages, the police recruits are paired with a different senior officer during each stage of the field training process. The purpose of field training is to insure that the new officers can apply their training in the “real world” and to integrate them into the department. Field training is generally 360 hours long, but new officers can be extended if issues are encountered. The primary costs involved with this process include both the new officer’s pay and the field training officer’s pay. To calculate the new officer’s pay, the starting salary for an officer (\$36,000.00) was divided by the twenty-six pay periods in a year to determine the amount of the officer’s pay check (\$1384.62). The new officer’s pay was multiplied by the total number of pay periods in the field training process (4) to determine how much they would make during the process (\$5,583.46). The field training officer’s pay during this period was computed by multiplying the number of hours involved in the process (360) by the average hourly rate for a police officer (\$20.43), which is \$7,354.80. Both salaries are combined and multiplied by the number of new police officers who graduated from the academy in 2006 (36) to compute the final socialization process costs (\$464,157.42). As with other costs, these are all estimates that do not include extra hours that either officer may have to work and does not account for any extensions to the four stage program that may occur if the new officer is not progressing in a suitable manner. Also, an Administrative Lieutenant and a Field Training Sergeant have to review and monitor the progress made by each new police officer. These estimates are not included in the final socialization costs.

Overtime Expenditures (O). Overtime expenditures are costs the department has to pay to fill the gaps created whenever an officer leaves the department. The police department captures Uniform Operation Bureau overtime expenditures as a whole, so court overtime and special operation overtime are included by the department with shift overtime (V. Foutz, personal communication, February 5, 2007). Shift overtime is caused by shortages on the three shifts in the Uniform Operations Bureau and is most likely to be related to officer shortages. The department was still compiling expenditures for FY 2006 – 2007, so FY 2005 – 2006 expenditures were used in computing overtime costs (\$982,500) (V. Foutz, personal communication, February 5, 2007). Not knowing exactly what percentage of the overall overtime expenditures were related to shift overtime and what percentage were related to other costs, court or special operations, this researcher decided to resort to using the 25%, 50%, and 75% estimates for shift overtime. Assuming that 25% of overall overtime is due to shift shortages, the amount related to turnover is \$245,625. When adjusted to 50%, the amount of overtime becomes \$491,250, while it increases to \$736,875 when adjusted to 75%. Very few detectives seem to leave the department, so Investigations Bureau overtime was not included in these calculations.

Loss of Productivity (F). Police officers who voluntarily leave the department generally have between three to five years of experience. Replacing the knowledge that these officers take with them cannot be done overnight. In fact, most officers tend to agree that it takes somewhere between three to five years before a new officer is “competent” enough to fill that void. The department seems to support this belief to a certain degree in that it imposes time restrictions, generally of two to three years with the

department, on officers applying for different positions within the department or seeking additional duties. To remain somewhat conservative with estimates, this research attempts to quantify this loss by going with the assumption that it takes a minimum of six months after the academy before the officer is competent enough to replace a worker who left. The new officer's salary during this period should adequately represent the value of the loss of production because it represents money that was still being invested in the officer until they were competent enough to provide a return on the department's investment. To compute this salary, the researcher multiplied the new officer's salary (\$36,000) by the number of recruits who successfully passed the academy in 2006 (36) and then divided this figure in half to determine how much the department would pay before the officer successfully filled the void of the officer who voluntarily left (\$648,000). This figure represents the lowest value for the loss in productivity. Based on the three to five year estimates provided by many officers, the cumulative loss is between \$4 million to \$6.9 million. Although not added to this value, these losses are even greater when a detective leaves the organization because the years of experience that most detectives possess are greater than that of what many of the patrol officers have who are leaving.

Another cost that relates to the loss of productivity involves losses incurred by individuals involved in the hiring and training process. For example, detectives in the Criminal Investigations Division administer the pre-employment polygraph examinations to prospective recruits. This duty is a secondary duty. The primary duty for these detectives is to work their assigned cases. When detectives lose 159 hours while running

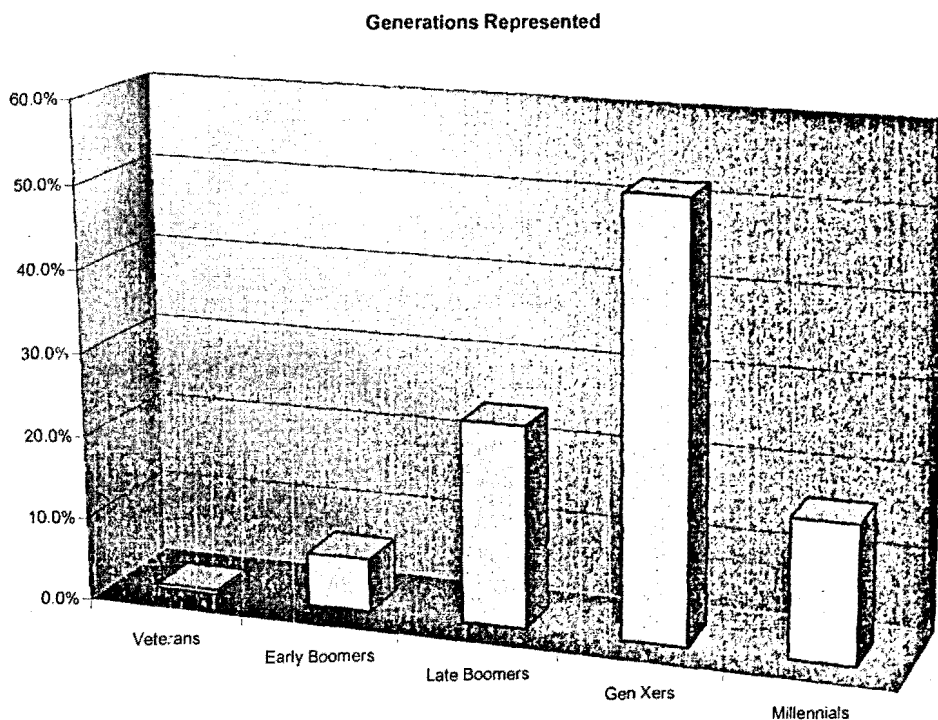
pre-employment examinations, the lost time must be made up somehow or productivity is diminished. To account for this loss, the detective's cost per hour for the 159 hours (\$3,248.37) is added to value of lost productivity. The same argument can be applied to the police officers, detectives, and supervisors who teach the basic recruits in the academy. The hours these officers, detectives, and supervisors spend preparing to teach and the actual instructional time that takes these individuals away from their primary duties are costly. In the end, these costs were not included in this computation because they are generally absorbed by the overtime expenditures that are created by shortages and the exact costs are difficult to quantify.

Total turnover costs, both direct and indirect, range between \$2.85 million and \$3.57 million in 2006 (See Appendix F for Turnover Costs Chart). These are conservative figures because they do not include many variables that were too difficult to compute (i.e. the turnover multiplier, the turnover affect on morale, lost productivity related to officers teaching) and many of the variables were purposely undervalued to err on the side of caution (i.e. using six months versus three to five years to fill the knowledge void created when experienced officers leave). The predominant literature supports the theory that sound retention theories are less costly than continually replacing workers that voluntarily leave. Based on the cost alone, the data seems to support this hypothesis.

Generational Differences & Police Officers. The second hypothesis (H₂) examines whether generational differences, in terms of values and beliefs, identified with society as a whole are the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers

from different generational backgrounds. This hypothesis is tested by comparing the values and beliefs of the different generations as a whole, which are identified in the review of literature, to those values and beliefs identified by the officers completing the generational survey from both Henrico Police and Chesterfield County Police Departments.

There were 362 total responses to the survey, which was a 38% response rate. Of the responses, 52.5% of the respondents identified Henrico County Police as their employer, while 47.5% identified Chesterfield County Police. Only two respondents identified themselves as being Veterans (born prior to 1945). Of those that identified themselves as Baby Boomers (total of 30.7%), 6.4% fell within the early Boomer range



(1946 – 1955) and 24.3% fell within the late Boomer range (1956 – 1964). The majority of respondents fell into the Generation X age range (1965 – 1976), representing 52.2% of

responses. The remainder of the respondents, 16.6%, identified themselves within the Millennial age range (After 1977). In terms of racial breakdowns, 89.5% identified themselves as White or Caucasian, 5.8% identified themselves as Black or African-American, .8% identified themselves as Asian, 2.2% identified themselves as Hispanic or Latino, and 1.1% identified themselves in the other category. The respondents were overwhelmingly male, 91.4% versus 8% female. In terms of rank, the majority of the respondents were Patrol Officers or Detectives (67.4%), followed by Sergeants (16.9%), Lieutenants (6.9%), Captain or above (5%), and Police Recruit (3.6%). Assignments for these officers varied among Administration (7.5%), Uniform Operations Bureau (53.6%), Investigations Bureau (28.7%), and Operations Support Bureau (9.7%). The respondents' time with their respective departments varied from 23.3% with 0 to 5 years, 42.3% with 6 to 15 years, 23.8% with 16 to 25 years, and 10.8% with over 26 years. Education levels varied among the respondents, but the vast majority identified themselves as having a college degree of some sort. While 20.4% identified themselves as only having completed high school or obtaining an equivalent level of education, 21.3% had an Associate's degree, 50.3% had a Bachelor's degree, and 7.5% had a Master's degree or higher. The vast majority of respondents were Married With Children (64.4%); versus those that were Married With No Children (12.7%), Single With Children (5.3%), and Single With No Children (17.1%). The demographic data provides a snapshot of the overall respondents. Demographic data that is specific to the Chesterfield County Police Department will be examined in further detail in the analysis of results.

To make these comparisons, the data was cut by birth range. The first question examined was the ranking of values. Due to the small number of early Boomer responses, Baby Boomers were examined in terms of early Boomers, late Boomers, and all Baby Boomers combined. In comparing the data across generational lines, there are several key findings (See Table 2: Ranking of Values). First, Millennials were the only group whose values seemed to align with their own generation. Millennial respondents chose values attributed to their own generation 35.02% of the time. Taken at face value, this finding would seem to disprove the hypothesis because each of the other generations were more likely to align with Millennial values versus what the research suggests should be their own values. For example, both Baby Boomers and Generation Xers aligned with Millennial values 43.85% and 38.48% respectively. Taking a closer look at the values may help explain why police officers in general chose Millennial values over the other values. Millennial values included "Integrity of Leadership" and "Honesty & Respect," which may be values that are more predominant in law enforcement officers versus others in society. The other issue may be that "Integrity of Leadership" and "Honesty & Respect" are too closely aligned to be considered separate values. When these two sets of values are removed from consideration, Baby Boomers, whether early Boomers, late Boomers, or all Baby Boomers combined, do choose the values attributed to their generation more than they value other generation's values (30.95%, 29.17%, and 29.55% respectively). Instead of choosing Millennial values 40.87%, 44.65%, and 43.85%. Baby Boomers chose Millennial values 19.05% (early Boomers), 23.72% (late Boomers), and 22.73% (All Baby Boomers) when controlled for these two values. Generation Xers

Table 2: Ranking of Values (Represents the percentage of time each respondent chose one of the different values.)

Values		Generations				
		Baby Boomers			Generation X	Millennials
		Early Boomers	Late Boomers	Combined		
Veteran Values	Dedication/Sacrifice	7.83%	4.65%	5.32%	6.36%	6.40%
	Hard Work	2.61%	8.14%	6.97%	7.30%	12.79%
	Conformity	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.21%	0.34%
	Respect for Authority/Order	4.35%	3.26%	3.49%	3.13%	3.70%
	Adherence to Rules/Policies	1.74%	2.56%	2.39%	1.98%	1.01%
	Delayed Rewards	0.00%	0.23%	0.18%	0.31%	0.00%
		16.52%	18.84%	18.35%	19.29%	24.24%
Baby Boomer Values	Optimism	1.74%	1.86%	1.83%	1.88%	0.34%
	Prosperity/Personal Gratification	1.74%	0.93%	1.10%	2.61%	1.68%
	Work Ethic	9.57%	10.93%	10.64%	12.20%	8.75%
	Team Orientation	4.35%	3.72%	3.85%	3.86%	5.05%
	Consensus	0.87%	0.47%	0.55%	0.21%	0.00%
	Personal Growth	4.35%	3.26%	3.49%	3.86%	6.73%
		22.61%	21.16%	21.47%	24.61%	22.56%
Generation X Values	Technoliteracy	0.00%	0.70%	0.55%	0.31%	0.67%
	Eager to learn/Continuous Learning	0.87%	0.00%	0.18%	1.98%	4.04%
	Comfortable With Change	0.00%	0.47%	0.37%	0.52%	0.67%
	Flexibility/Informal Work Life	1.74%	1.63%	1.65%	1.98%	1.68%
	Work/Life Balance	13.91%	11.86%	12.29%	11.26%	9.76%
	Autonomy on the Job	3.48%	0.70%	1.28%	1.56%	1.35%
		20.00%	15.35%	16.33%	17.62%	18.18%
Millennial Values	Morality	8.70%	10.23%	9.91%	8.24%	8.08%
	Honesty & Respect	16.52%	17.91%	17.61%	16.06%	16.84%
	Diversity	1.74%	1.40%	1.47%	1.56%	1.01%
	Civic Duty	1.74%	2.56%	2.39%	2.40%	1.68%
	Achievement	0.87%	2.79%	2.39%	2.29%	3.03%
	Synergy	0.87%	0.23%	0.37%	0.31%	0.34%
	Integrity of Leadership	10.43%	9.53%	9.72%	7.61%	4.04%
		40.87%	44.65%	43.85%	38.48%	35.02%

remain the anomaly in this scenario, still identifying closer with other generational values than their own. A second finding that is interesting supports the research that suggests that Millennials are similar to Veterans in terms of their values. Millennial respondents more often associated with Veteran values (24.24%) than they did Boomer values (22.56%) and Generation X values (18.18%). While it is difficult to generalize these results using perceptual data, this association does tend to lend support to the hypothesis. The third finding of interest involves examining “Hard Work” and “Work Ethic” as values. In retrospect, these two variables seem to be synonymous terms with similar connotations. When these two variables are combined, “Work Ethic/Hard Work” as a single variable ties with “Honesty & Respect” as the variable most valued by Baby Boomer respondents (17.61% for all Baby Boomers), while it is the most selected variable for late Boomers (19.07%) in that scenario. The differences are even greater when the “Integrity of Leadership/Honesty & Respect” values are eliminated as well. This finding also lends some support to the hypothesis.

In terms of loyalty, police officers from different generational backgrounds do display some characteristics that are common for their respective generational cohort as a whole. For example, Baby Boomer respondents were most likely to say that they were loyal to both their employer and their profession (47.4%), but loyalty to their profession alone was a close second (42.3%). Many might argue that this finding is inconsistent with the views on Baby Boomers because they are supposed to be the ones who are loyal to their employers. Choosing both does not suggest that Baby Boomers lack loyalty for their employer; what these findings do support is the closeness of late Boomers to

Generation X. Remember, there were only 23 early Boomers compared to 88 late Boomers who participated in the survey, so the late Boomers do skew the data towards their generational cohort. Late Boomers relate well to Generation Xers because they share many of the same life experiences, a point made in the predominant literature. Looking at Generation X, nearly half (49.7%) of these respondents advised that they were more loyal to their profession or career than they were to their employer (6.8). While some Gen Xers did choose both (37%), the vast majority were solely loyal to their profession, which sets them apart from the other generations studied. Because Generation X came of age during a period of economic instability where their parent's loyalty was often rewarded with layoffs, it is expected that Gen Xers would place their loyalties in either themselves or their professions before their employers. Over half of Millennial respondents advised that they were loyal to both their employer and their profession, the most for any generation. Once again, this makes sense for the Millennial employee because they mix the individuality of Generation X with the team spirit and sense of duty that they learned from their Veteran grandparents. There are also law enforcement implications with the loyalty question that should be further explored in future research. Individuals who gravitate towards law enforcement jobs, like those who take non-profit jobs, may be drawn more by the social capital of the mission than anything else. If this is true, then it would be expected that these individuals would tend to be more loyal to the mission itself (manifested in the profession or career), than the organization (exemplified by the employer). Overall, there are several implications from the data on employee loyalty that lend credibility to this hypothesis.

In terms of technology, there were some interesting findings. As expected, Millennials were the most comfortable with technology. All of the Millennial respondents advised that they felt comfortable using the computer and the Internet, while 91.7% provided a favorable response to the question of whether they viewed technology as an important crime fighting tool. In terms of the importance of technology to Millennial respondents, the vast majority (85%) advised that it was important for their department to possess the best available technology. Generation X respondents followed Millennials as the second most comfortable with technology. Gen Xers responded that they felt comfortable with computers 91.5% and the Internet 92.6%, while 91% viewed technology as an important crime fighting tool. Somewhat surprising was that only 83.6% felt that having it was important for their department to possess the best available technology. Baby Boomer, while the least comfortable with technology, were not far behind the other generations. Most Baby Boomers reported that they felt comfortable using the computer (82%) and the Internet (82.9%). Late Boomers felt more comfortable than early Boomers with the Internet (84.1% versus 78.3% respectively), which would be expected based on the predominant literature. Baby Boomers were similar to Gen Xers in their views of using technology as a tool to fight crime, with 84.7% viewing technology favorably. Baby Boomers do believe it is important for their respective departments to have the best available technology, with 88.3% responding favorably to this question.

Pay and benefits were most important to Baby Boomers, while all three generations viewed work/life balance and flexibility roughly the same. Salary was

considered important to 99.1% of Baby Boomers, 94.7% of Gen Xers, and 95% of Millennials. All Baby Boomers thought benefits were important, followed closely by Gen Xers (98.9%) and Millennials (95%). Although salary and benefits were generally thought of to be universally important, satisfaction with salary and benefits was not. Generation X was the least satisfied with their salary (18.5%), while a quarter of Millennials and 27.9% of Baby Boomers reported being satisfied with their salary. There were similar findings with Generation X's satisfaction with their benefits in which 15.9% were satisfied versus 28.3% of Millennials and 27.9% of Baby Boomers. The data here is interesting, but, other than connections between Millennials and Baby Boomers, nothing in the predominant literature on generational differences adequately explains why Gen Xers would diverge so much from the other generations in terms of satisfaction with their salary and benefits. This is a point that will be examined later when looking at other variables. Work/life balance was viewed as important by 98.2% of Baby Boomers, 96.3% of Generation Xers, and 96.7 % of Millennials. Interestingly, flexible work schedule, a component of work/life balance, was viewed important by only 83.8% of Baby Boomers, 81% of Generation Xers, and 80 % of Millennials. These findings are somewhat inconclusive in terms of providing support for the hypothesis. Salary and benefits are important to all generations, a point that is not disputed in the predominant literature. Some research has indicated that Millennials value honesty and respect over compensation. All Millennials thought honest leadership was important, whereas only 95% thought that compensation was important. The 5% difference may not be significant, but it still implies that Millennials do value honesty and respect over

compensation. And, while Gen Xers and Millennials overwhelmingly value work/life balance, so do Baby Boomers. The fact that all three generations place similar values on work/life balance suggests that the issue might involve an overall change in values for employees versus either generational differences or life stage differences.

The predominant literature suggests that younger generations are more likely to be looking for new jobs, which is supported by this data. Nearly half of Generation X respondents advised they were either actively looking for jobs (26.5%) or on the fence (20.6%). Millennials were in a similar situation with 26.7% actively looking for jobs and 18.3% on the fence. And, while Baby Boomers are looking for new jobs as well (30.6% actively seeking and 13.5% on the fence), over a third were looking because they were getting ready to retire and 90.1% are approaching or have passed time in service requirements that allow them to retire which makes Boomers different from the other generations.

To insure that generational differences observed in the respondents were not caused by other variables, the data was cut and analyzed by job satisfaction, family status, education level, and time employed. Drawing conclusions on the data on job satisfaction is difficult because only 57 respondents reported unfavorable job satisfaction, while 207 reported favorable satisfaction. That being said, job satisfaction did not seem to have any significant impact on the differences observed. In terms of ranking values, both satisfied and dissatisfied respondents ranked the values in similar ways. There was little difference among the generations in terms of job satisfaction. Baby Boomers were satisfied 31.9%, Generation Xers 52.3%, and Millennials 15.5%, while Baby Boomers

were dissatisfied 29.8%, Generation Xers 50.9%, and Millennials 17.5%. Dissatisfied respondents were more likely to be loyal to their profession (71.9%) than to their employer (0), both their profession and their employer (12.2%) or neither (15.8%). Satisfied respondents were most loyal to both profession and employer (56.5%), then to profession alone (30.9%), employer alone (9.7%), or neither (2.4%). Although both groups were dissatisfied with compensation, respondents who were dissatisfied with their jobs were nearly two times more likely to be unhappy than those who were satisfied with their jobs. Job dissatisfaction did seem to be a predictor of whether an individual was actively looking for another job. Dissatisfied respondents were more likely to report that they were actively job searching than were satisfied respondents (68.4% versus 13%). Of those satisfied respondents looking for a new job, the vast majority also reported that they were looking for a new job because they could retire soon. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction is relatively constant across the generations, so although it does seem to impact an individual's views, satisfaction does not seem to change any of the theories related to generational differences.

When examining family status as a contributing factor for differences observed, it is difficult to generalize responses because of the limited number of respondents (i.e. Single With Children – 19, Single With No Children – 62, Married With No Children – 46). Most Baby Boomers were Married With Children (81.1%), followed by Married With No Children (10.8%), Single With Children (4.5%), and Single With No Children (3.6%). Generation Xers also tended to be Married With Children (67.2%), but were also Married With No Children (11.6%), Single With Children (6.8%), and Single With No

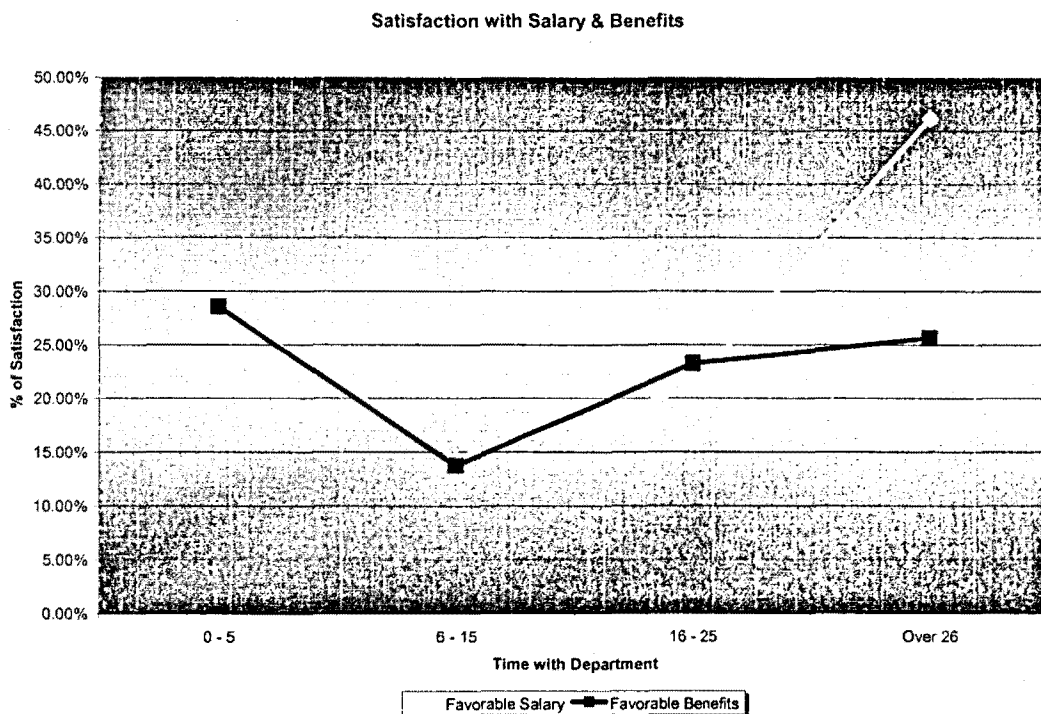
Children (13.8%). Most Millennials were Single With No Children (51.7%), followed by Married With Children (25%), Married With No Children (20%), and Single With Children (1.7%). Family status seems to have little to do with loyalty. There were no discernible differences between family statuses and loyalty to employer, profession, both employer and profession, or neither. In terms of compensation, respondents who were Single With No Children were more likely to be satisfied with their salary (32.3%) while respondents with children were least likely to be satisfied with their salary (Married With Children – 17.4%, Single With Children – 11.1%). Overall, having children seemed to directly impact how important salary was to the different respondents (Married With Children – 97.8%, Single With Children – 100%, Married With No Children – 93.5%, Single With No Children – 91.9%). Work/Life balance was most important for respondents who were Married With Children (98.7%), followed by Single With No Children (95.2%), Married With No Children (93.5%), and Single With Children (89.5%). This finding may better explain why Baby Boomers value work/life balance since 81.1% reported being Married With Children. Married respondents were more likely than single respondents to be actively looking for a new job (Married With Children – 29.4%, Married With No Children – 31.1%, Single With Children – 22.2%, Single With No Children – 23%). While this finding does not seem to explain the possible generational differences observed, it is still an interesting observation since one might expect that married respondents, especially those with children, would be less likely to risk changing jobs due to attachments to the community and family dynamics.

Education level had little impact on differences observed. Educational levels for the three generations represented in the study showed few differences. Baby Boomers had a high school degree or equivalent 17.1% of the time, an associate's degree 26.1% of the time, a bachelor's degree 45% of the time, and a master's degree or higher 10.8% of the time. Generation Xers reported education levels of 22.2% with a high school degree or equivalent, 19.1% with an associate's degree, 51.3% with a bachelor's degree, and 6.9% with a master's degree or higher. Of Millennial respondents, 20% reported having a high school degree or equivalent, 20% reported having an associate's degree, 56.7% reported having a bachelor's degree, and 3.3% reported having a master's degree or higher. In terms of loyalty, salary, benefits, work/life balance, and job searching, there were no distinct differences among respondents with differing levels of education. The only difference noted with any of the variables was in terms of comfort with technology, in which comfort seemed to be directly proportional to increasing levels of education. Respondents who had completed high school or received an equivalent were the least comfortable with using computers (83.8%) and the Internet (86.5%), followed by those with an associate's degree (85.7% with computers, 88.3% with the Internet), bachelor's degree (93.4% with computers, 92.7% with the Internet), and master's or higher (100% with computers, 100% with the Internet). While this finding was expected, the data does nothing to disprove generational differences observed since the generations were equally represented in terms of education.

As would be expected, time with their respective departments varied greatly depending on the generation. The majority of Baby Boomers reported having worked for

between 16 to 25 years (56.8%), followed by those reporting over 26 years (33.3%), between 6 to 15 years (8.1%), and under 5 years (1.8%). Of the Generation X respondents, 18% reported working for their respective department for less than 5 years, 69.8% reported to be in the 6 to 15 year range, and 12.2% reported having 16 years or more. Millennials were primarily accounted for working with their department in the 0 to 5 year range (78.3%), while the remainder fell into the 6 to 15 year range (20%).

[NOTE: One respondent advised that he was in the 16 to 25 range, which seems impossible for individuals who were born in 1977 or later. So this response was not examined further.] In terms of loyalty, technology, work/life balance, and job searching, there were no distinct differences among respondents with differing levels of tenure



within the different departments. It was previously noted that Generation Xers appear to be the least satisfied generation in terms of salary and benefits, an issue that may have

more to do with time with the department than it does with generational differences. In examining the relationship between salary satisfaction and differences in time with the respective departments, the data showed that respondents with 6 to 15 years were the least satisfied in terms of salary (14.5%) and benefits (13.7%). Of those respondents with less than 5 years, 28.6% were satisfied with salary and benefits. Respondents with between 16 to 25 years reported they were satisfied with salary 20.9% of the time and benefits 23.3% of the time. The most satisfied group, those with over 26 years, was satisfied with both their salary (46.2%) and their benefits (25.6%). While it may be expected that satisfaction with salary would increase as one's salary increases over the individual's duration with the department, the significant drop off in satisfaction between those with 6 to 15 years is an interesting finding. Even though Generation Xers overwhelmingly make up the group of employees in the 6 to 15 year service range, generational differences alone do not seem to explain this data.

Overall, the data tends to support the hypothesis that generational differences identified with society as a whole are the same as those differences found in law enforcement officers from different generational backgrounds. In terms of ranking the values, Millennials were the only generational cohort within the two police departments to choose values attributed to their generation by the literature over values of other generations. When controlled for Honesty and Integrity, Baby Boomers also align with the values attributed to their generation by the literature. Also, Millennials associated the second most with Veteran values, which is consistent with the literature findings that these two generations have similar values. Each of these points tends to support the

hypothesis. On the other hand, Generation Xers associated more with every other generational cohort's values than they did their own, which does not support the hypothesis. Generational differences were further supported by examining loyalty and technological literacy, in which all the data seemed consistent with the predominant literature. Compensation provided little support other than the point that Millennials valued honesty over compensation, but the difference was small. Work/Life balance seems inconclusive because all three generations taking the survey valued balance in much the same terms. When family status is examined, work/life balance was the most important for respondents who were Married With Children. This finding may better describe why Baby Boomers, with 81.1% being Married With Children, valued work/life balance versus a generational reasoning. So, generational differences may explain why Generation Xers and Millennials valued work/life balance while family status may explain why Boomers diverged from the predominant literature. Generational differences were further supported by examining whether respondents were looking for new jobs. While all three generations had significant groups either actively looking for a new job or on the fence, Baby Boomers were the only group with significant numbers reporting that their job search was related to a pending retirement or they were significantly closer to retirement than the other generations (a life stage issue).

These conclusions are drawn from perceptual data, so the conclusions cannot necessarily be applied to all law enforcement officers. The researcher intended to use the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software to conduct an inferential

analysis of the data, but was unable to conduct the analysis because the student version of SPSS limits the number of variables used in an analysis to 50.

Generational Competence & Chesterfield County. The third hypothesis (H₃) examines whether sworn police officers in the Chesterfield County Police Department view the organization as being generationally competent. This hypothesis is primarily tested by comparing overall responses of Chesterfield County Police Officers to the generationally specific questions adapted from the inventory assessment identified in the book, *Generations at Work*. The mean responses for the 26 adapted questions were compiled to develop an overall score to measure the generational competence of the Chesterfield County Police Department. As mentioned previously, Zemke et al.'s inventory assessment had to be adapted because several questions were double and triple barreled. This issue was corrected while designing the current survey by expanding the original assessment to 26 questions. To analyze these questions using the same standards established by Zemke et al., the six additional questions had to be weighted so that the responses were equal to the original questions. For example, if the original question was broken up into two separate questions, then this task was accomplished by multiplying each response by $\frac{1}{2}$ and adding the two questions together. Weighting the scores allowed the 26 questions in the current research to be compared to the 20 original questions in the Inventory for scoring purposes. Table 3 lists the mean score for each individual question and shows the overall score. Overall data, Chesterfield County Police data, and Henrico County Police data were included in the table, even though Chesterfield was the focus of the current research effort.

Table 3: Generational Competence in the Henrico and Chesterfield County Police Departments (See Appendix G for the question key). Results based on five point scale.

Questions		Overall	Chesterfield	Henrico
Q1		3.599	3.616	3.584
Q2		3.176	3.250	3.111
Q3		2.303	2.378	2.237
Q4		2.555	2.657	2.463
Q5	A	2.370	2.488	2.263
	B	2.188	2.134	2.237
Q6	A	2.975	3.099	2.863
	B	3.638	3.738	3.547
	C	2.555	2.581	2.532
Q7	A	4.099	3.977	4.211
	B	2.870	2.890	2.853
Q8		2.077	2.180	1.984
Q9		2.254	2.360	2.158
Q10		2.414	2.494	2.342
Q11		3.199	3.145	3.247
Q12		2.370	2.360	2.379
Q13		3.066	3.174	2.968
Q14		2.931	2.913	2.947
Q15	A	3.445	3.459	3.432
	B	2.586	2.876	2.547
Q16		2.436	2.366	2.500
Q17		3.569	3.610	3.532
Q18		3.099	3.337	2.884
Q19	A	3.227	3.320	3.142
	B	3.246	3.297	3.200
Q20		2.403	2.564	2.258
Total:		56.49194	57.73244	55.4874

The inventory assessment created by Zemke et al. (2000) also includes a scoring key that is based on their research findings:

- 90 – 100 – Congratulations! Not only is turnover lower than the average for your industry, but the work atmosphere you've created is so attractive to employees that recruiting nearly takes care of itself. Good Job.
- 80 – 89 – Your turnover is probably lower than the industry average. You are doing a good job, but there's room for improvement.
- 70 – 79 – You're typical of most organizations. Although you're doing some good things, you must make major improvements to your work environment if you're going to survive and thrive in today's competitive market.
- Under 70 – Your Organization is in danger. The high costs of losing, recruiting, and training employees will seriously damage your bottom line, if they haven't already. (p. 257)

Respondents gave the Chesterfield County Police Department a score of 57.73 out of a total of 100, which would tend to support the hypothesis that police officers within the department do not view the organization as being generationally competent.

Generational Competence & Retention of Police Officers. The fourth hypothesis (H₄) examines whether lacking generational competence adversely affects the retention efforts of the Chesterfield County Police Department. Originally, this hypothesis was to be tested using data from interviews conducted with officers who had left the department. Since this research could not be conducted, the researcher instead used survey and exit interview data to examine the hypothesis.

Before examining survey data, it is important to compare the department's actual demographics, in terms of the different generations, with the demographic data obtained from the survey to determine whether the data can be generalized to any degree. Of the 362 total survey responses, 172 identified Chesterfield County as their employer (40% response rate). One respondent claimed to have been born prior to 1945, associating himself with the Veteran Generation. A combined 37.2% identified themselves in the Baby Boomer age range (early Boomers – 5.2%, late boomers – 32.0%). A slight

majority of officers (40.7%) identified themselves in the Generation X range, while 21.5% identified themselves in the Millennial range. In comparing these responses to generations represented in the department, the data is somewhat consistent. As of September 2006, there were no Veterans employed in the department, Baby Boomers (33.6%), Generation Xers (43.9%), and Millennials (22.5%) were represented. Even though the analysis uses perceptual data, the results seem to be generalizable to the department as a whole based on this comparison.

The first step in examining this hypothesis is attempting to determine what retention efforts are currently being used by the department. John McLenagan and Kristen Brown advised that career development was the only overt retention tool that was currently being used by the department (personal communication, Summer 2006). The two advised that steps within career development were adjusted to increase officer retention (personal communication, Summer 2006). The department's career development program consists of three steps: Senior Officer/Detective, Master Officer/Detective, and Career Officer/Detective. Officers that are involved with the career development process are required to meet several minimum standards for inclusion in the program as well as passing a written test.

The primary survey data used to examine this hypothesis comes from responses to the open-ended retention questions asked on the survey. These questions include:

1. What is this organization doing to retain you?
2. What should this organization do to retain you?

In addition to these two questions, an additional comments section included open-ended responses that were also included in this analysis. Nearly three-quarters (72%) of respondents provided feedback to the question of what this organization is doing to retain them. This researcher conducted a content analysis of these responses. The vast majority of the comments were negative (76%), while 18% were positive and 7% were neutral. The question about what the department should do to retain the individual officer was answered 70% of the time. Nearly a third (30%) of respondents left additional comments as well. While not all of the comments relate to generational differences, there are generational overtones in many statements. Common themes that have generational implications include organizational culture (identified in 28 responses), career development/mobility within the department (identified in 24 responses), honest/integrity of leadership (identified in 12 responses), work/life balance (identified in 7 responses), communication (identified in 9 responses), and technology (identified in 4 responses). Salary equity, although not necessarily a generational issue, was identified in 35 responses.

Responses to close-ended questions from the survey may assist in examining this hypothesis. A majority of Chesterfield County Police Officers (53.5%) responded unfavorably to the question of whether the department is concerned and focused on retention. Just over a quarter of respondents (27.3%) responded favorably to the same question. When viewed in terms of how different generations responded to this question, there are some interesting findings. While none of the generations believe the department is concerned and focused on retention, Generation Xers had the least favorable view

(18.0% favorable versus 57.2% unfavorable), followed by Millennials (28.3% favorable versus 43.3% unfavorable) and Baby Boomers (31.2% favorable versus 37.7% unfavorable). Based on differences in salary satisfaction that were observed when examining time with the department, this researcher considered whether time with the department impacted respondent's views of whether the department was concerned with retention. Respondents with less than 5 years viewed the department's concern and focus with retention favorably 27.2% of the time, while they viewed it unfavorably 48.2% of the time. Of respondents with 6 to 15 years of service, 17.7% viewed the department's concern and focus with retention favorably, while 61.2% viewed it unfavorably. Those with between 16 to 25 years viewed the department's retention efforts favorably 27.6% of the time, while they viewed it unfavorably 43.4% of the time. Of those with over 26 years, 37.1% viewed retention efforts favorably and 25.7% viewed these efforts unfavorably. These results are similar to what was observed when salary and benefit satisfaction were compared based on time with the department. Using perceptual data, it is difficult to determine whether it is the generational differences, time with the department, or some other variable that causes these differences.

The issue with all of the survey data is that the responses come from police officers who are still employed in the department. In essence, these are all police officers who have been retained to some degree because they are still employed by the department. To examine the attitudes and opinions of employees who have left the department, this researcher was forced to examine exit interviews. Kristen Brown conducts exit interviews for the police department. She does not use a structured

interview format. When conducting an exit interview, she said that she attempts to find out where the individual is going and for what salary, why they decided to leave the department, and whether they were job hunting (personal communication, February 7, 2007). Brown also inquires about their opinion of the hiring process and how they found us or if we found them (personal communication, February 7, 2007). Finally, she seeks their opinion on a variety of issues, to include training, equipment, supervision, peers (working relationships), career advancement or promotional opportunities, and the department overall (i.e. what issues we have as a department, problems that need to be addressed) (personal communication, February 7, 2007). Brown has started inputting this data into a Microsoft spreadsheet, but the data was limited to ten interviews that were provided to this researchers. Of these ten interviews, three cited reasons that have generational overtones, to include issues with work/life balance, honesty, and culture. The remainder of those who left either provided other reasons for leaving or did not participate in the exit interview.

The data is inconclusive in terms of supporting or not supporting this hypothesis because, although there are many generational overtones in the reasoning provided by officers surveyed and those who have left the department, the data is still incomplete. As mentioned previously, the vast majority of the data available to test this hypothesis comes from survey respondents who are still employed by the Chesterfield County Police Department. It is difficult to generalize this data to those who decided to voluntarily leave the organization because the survey respondents are employees who have been retained to a certain degree. The data from officers who have left the department was

insufficient because the sample only consisted of 10 individuals, the questions were limited, and the questions were asked by a civilian employee within the department who may not garner the trust that a fellow police officer might have. Also, exit interviews tend to lack validity as a data collection tool. Further testing would be required to definitively prove or disprove this hypothesis.

Application

Implementation: Tactics and Strategies

Developing generational competence is a decisive point for the Chesterfield County Police Department. Data obtained in this research coupled with the attitudes and opinions of the respondents support this contention. To attract and retain the best and brightest employees today and into the future, the Chesterfield County Police Department needs to overhaul many of its most basic strategies and needs to reinvent itself to incorporate the uniqueness of the different generations in their workforce. U.S. Comptroller General David Walker sums up the challenge ahead:

[We] . . . need to transform what government does and how it does business in the 21st century. Most agencies must come to grips with the fact that some of their most basic policies, processes, and procedures are years out of date. In the human capital area . . . managers need to identify their own workforce needs and do a better job of recruiting and empowering employees, and recognizing and rewarding performance . . . Modernizing the government's human capital policies and practices may be the difference between success and failure in this war for talent (Lavigna, 2005a).

Implementing generationally competent retention strategies is a first step in making these critical changes. The predominant literature on retention provides the basic roadmap for guiding this change. In light of this literature, law enforcement agencies, and specifically the Chesterfield County Police Department, need to rigorously examine their hiring practices, their compensation strategies, their culture, and their leadership to increase their retention of officers, to lower turnover costs, and to become an employer of choice.

Hire well or don't hire at all. Although this research focuses primarily on retention of police officers, hiring must still be addressed. Retention starts with the

recruitment, selection, and hiring of officers. Since 1999, 22% of the individuals who left the department did so either before their initial training was complete or before completing field training. When an individual fails to make it through training, this constitutes a bad hire. Understanding the department's needs and knowing what is already invested in these individual when they arrive at the academy, training staff do everything in their power to insure that recruits pass the academy, to include remedial training, counseling, and one-on-one instruction (personal communication, February 2007). Evident by the 22% who have failed to successfully complete training, the training staff cannot help everybody. For example, one recruit who recently failed in training had significant issues squeezing the trigger of the issued handgun (personal communication, February 2007). This individual could have been screened out of the hiring process if the physical assessment conducted in the screening process included a dry-fire component, which is an essential job function for a police officer. Several recruits who failed to successfully complete training cited being home sick or just wanting to return to their homes as reasons for resigning, which points to where the department recruits officers, often times in Northeast states. While there is a significant need to expand recruiting efforts, that need leads the department to recruit potential officers who have little to no commitments or attachments to this area.

The Police Human Resources section has failed as a strategic partner by not addressing these issues through the hiring process. Many officers and leaders in the department often romanticize over the days when there was an abundance of applicants

seeking employment with relatively few spots available. Those days are now over.

Lavigna (2005b) recognizes how times have changed:

Many public employers wistfully remember when government was an "employer of choice." An agency could post a job vacancy on a few bulletin boards and then wait for the flood of well-qualified applicants. In those days, the challenge wasn't to recruit applicants, it was to decide who among the many candidates was the best qualified. Those days are gone, at least for now. Instead, government must compete in a lightning fast labor market where job seekers have the leverage and the boring or slow employer can't compete. (p. 46)

For the Chesterfield County Police Department to compete in the talent wars, the department's human resource section needs to be more responsive to addressing the selection and hiring issues. For starters, the testing procedures conducted as part of the screening process should periodically be reviewed to insure that selection criteria are still linked to the essential job functions for a police officer. Also, there needs to be more alignment and communication in the hiring and training processes between operational units (patrol and investigations) and supporting units (training and human resources) to insure that the best people are selected, that they meet the needs of the department, and that they receive the best training.

Fair Pay and Competitive Benefits. Organizations that develop generational competence will also need to create compensation plans that align with the organization's business strategy. Currently, there is a one-size fits all approach to compensating employees that is outdated. In a tight labor market, employees from the different generations may reject uniform, one-size fits all benefits and look for options that better meet their individual needs — for money, benefits, opportunity and recognition

(*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Lavigna (2005b) recognizes the strategic importance of aligning compensation plans with organizational strategy:

Compensation must be used strategically to make the most difference. This means abandoning systems that rely on rigid across-the-board raises, or reclassifications to raise salaries. Managers should be able to use their discretion (within standard guidelines) to hire above the minimum, and give raises and bonuses for good performance and retention. Bonuses are particularly useful because they don't permanently raise salary levels. (p. 47)

For companies to differentiate themselves, they will need to develop compensation plans that address the uniqueness of the different generations while remaining strategically focused.

Money alone is not enough to engage all four generations. Commitment, loyalty, and love for an organization cannot be bought with money alone (Lee, 2006). This is especially true with the younger generations. Research on Millennials cited previously tends to support this conclusion as do some of the findings in this current research. Also, when dealing with public sector jobs, money becomes a scarce resource. The challenge for human resource personnel is to find ways to motivate and engage workers so that they are happier and more productive.

What strategies might effectively engage these employees from the different generations? Ultimately, employees of different generations want different rewards and benefits and have different requirements for work-life balance, so compensation plans need to be tailored to these needs (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). Many of the companies on the "Fortune 100 Best Companies to Work For" list recognize the

uniqueness of this workforce and already offer a variety of pay and benefits that address these needs.

Loyalty bonuses are an option that many companies use to reward employees who remain with the organization for a specified period of time. One of the many tools used by Lehigh Valley Hospital and Health Network to attract and retain employees is a retention bonus. Lehigh Valley Hospital and Health Network pays bonuses ranging from \$3,000 to \$5,000 at specified times to reward employees who stay with the hospital (Lehigh Valley Hospital & Health, 2006). These bonuses, coupled with other generous benefits, have led to low turnover rates (6%) and an abundance of applicants (36,894) applying for just under 700 new jobs annually (Fortune 100 Best Companies, 2007). The hospital's efforts of being an employer of choice have landed them on both the Fortune 100 Best Companies List and the U.S. News Best Hospitals List (Lehigh Valley Hospital & Health, 2006). The Chesterfield County Police Department could use similar bonuses at 5, 10, 15, and 20 year marks to encourage and reward employees who stay with the department.

Cafeteria-style benefits are one option that many companies are gravitating towards. Cafeteria-style benefits may provide additional advantages in that they address "differences in age-related benefits, as well as keeping costs down by eliminating undesired and ineffective rewards" (Jurkiewicz, 2000). Standard Pacific, a national homebuilder, is one company that allows employees to customize benefits by picking the options that best suit their individual needs (Standard Pacific Homes - Benefits, 2006). This benefit is one of several that Standard Pacific offers that cater to the individual

needs of their many employees and it's partially responsible for the company achieving its place on the "100 Best Companies" list. Cafeteria-style benefits are currently being used by some public sector organizations to address the needs of their workforce. These government agencies "realize that today's worker wants better, and more flexible, benefits," so benefits in these organizations may include "deferred compensation plans (with employer matching), cafeteria health plans, "unileave," flexible work arrangements, on-site child care, domestic partner benefits, and on-site fitness facilities (and even subsidized health club memberships)" (Lavigna, 2005b, p. 48). Cafeteria-style approaches to compensation demonstrate the importance that employers place on the diversity and uniqueness of their workforce.

Profit sharing and gain sharing plans offer possibilities in terms of compensating generationally diverse workforces. Profit sharing is a reward that "focuses on profitability as the standard for group incentive" (Milkovich & Newman, 1984/2005). Gain sharing plans are "incentive plans that are based on some measure of group performance rather than individual performance" (Milkovich & Newman, 1984/2005). Gain sharing plans are similar to profit sharing plans in that they are both group incentive plans, but the two differ in that profit sharing focuses on profitability and gain sharing focuses on performance. Although rewards offered through profit sharing and gain sharing are often financial, that doesn't always have to be the case, which is an obvious benefit for law enforcement employers. These rewards can vary from "giving an entire department a day off for doing a good job . . . [to] increasing a department's budget, allowing a team to use work time to develop new products, or increasing annual raises"

after reaching the predetermined standard (Lee, 2006). Lavigna (2005b) argues that gain sharing plans can be adapted to the public sector using “bonuses based on documented savings or improved productivity,” which do not involve higher costs “when bonuses are linked to documented savings” (p. 48). These rewards are only limited by ones imagination when it comes to selecting them, which allows companies to address generational differences easily. Companies could follow the lead of the S.C. Johnson Company, which added 19% to employees pay last year through profit sharing (Fortune 100 Best Companies, 2006). This approach might appeal to a Baby Boomer looking to build a nest egg for a pending retirement. Or companies could decided to go a different route and offer paid time off, which might appeal to family conscious Gen Xers.

Employee stock ownership plans are also attractive incentive options. Employee stock ownership plans (ESOP) reward employees with company stock, which gives them ownership in the company (Milkovich & Newman, 1984/2005). Starbucks used ESOPs as part of their benefit package to attract and retain Gen Xers. The company has been rewarded with significantly lower turnover rates than most of their competitors – 60% to 65% turnover at the “barista level” and 25% for managers, as compared to industry averages that range from 150% to 400% a year (Zemke et al., 2000). Starbucks saves money in terms of recruitment and training costs while they also build trust with their employees. These are qualities that are important to all generations. In the public sector, employee stock ownership plans can be adapted where the government entity makes or matches deferred compensation (457 plans) contributions. While not quite the same as

stock ownership, contributing to deferred compensation may have a similar impact in terms of engaging the employee.

There are a variety of other benefits that could be addressed. Healthcare, Work/Life Balance, and Child/Eldercare are just a few of the areas where employers could apply generational approaches in developing their compensation plans. Microsoft created benefit plans that appeal to families by paying 100% of employee's healthcare premiums through programs like Flex Appeal (a program geared towards employees with families that allows "access to flextime, compressed work schedules and telecommuting, with computers and supplies provided for those who work off-site"), on-site daycare centers, and generous amounts of paid time off for new parents (Microsoft Benefits, 2006). SAS offers on-site childcare, assistance with eldercare, employee health centers, and many other work/life programs that cater to nearly every need of the employee as part of its benefit package (Working at SAS, 2006). Ultimately, whether it's a benefit that addresses work/life balance issues of Gen Xers, the changing priorities of the Boomers, or adding value for Millennials, the goal is to develop compensation plans that address the individuality of these diverse generations. And, while these specific examples may not be feasible for cost conscious government employers, they do demonstrate the need to think outside the box when developing benefit plans. For example, Chesterfield County could exempt all police officers, or county employees, from paying property taxes, which may help address the issue of exorbitant housing costs in the county for these employees. Loan repayment programs for student loans or

developing partnerships with mortgage companies to provide home loans may help with retention.

Finally, retention research demonstrates that compensation is not a retention tool as long as it is viewed as fair and equitable by the employees. In reviewing the data from this current survey, it appears that officers within the Chesterfield County Police Department do not view their salary as being fair and equitable. Salary equity was one of the most dominant issues cited by respondents when answering the open-ended retention questions. Many of these respondents complained about pay compression which was caused by increasing starting salaries without adjusting or only moderately adjusting other salaries within the organization. Other frequent complaints dealt with the career development program, specifically testing requirements and time frame between career steps. This researcher conducted a salary comparison to determine if salaries were equitable across jurisdictional lines. Starting salaries and career development were analyzed at specific points in an officer's career (i.e. entry level, 5-years, 15-years, Sergeant, Lieutenant, and Captain) (See Table 4: Salary Comparison). In terms of starting pay and 5-year pay, the Chesterfield County Police lag behind both the Henrico County and Richmond City Police Departments. Due to average yearly merit increases, Chesterfield County does eventually surpass Richmond City by the 15-year mark, but never catches up to what Henrico County pays. When career development is factored into the comparison, nothing really changes. In terms of compression, it is hard to look at this data and see how compression is an issue in Chesterfield County because these

salaries are based on a starting salary of \$36,000. The data does not account for the majority of officers whose starting salaries were below this level at the time they were

Table 4: Salary Comparison

Salary Comparison - Richmond Police, Henrico Police, & Chesterfield Police							
(Data Collected in January 2007)							
Departments		Salary Levels					
		Entry Level	5-Yrs	15-Yrs	Sergeant*	Lieutenant*	Captain*
Chesterfield County Police Department	No Career Development	\$36,000.00	\$41,310.83	\$58,273.00	\$48,336.00	\$55,200.00	\$63,100.00
	With Career Development	N/A	\$43,376.37	\$67,458.28	N/A	N/A	N/A
Henrico County Police Department	No Career Development	\$36,716.83	\$42,953.50	\$63,581.67	\$50,980.24	\$55,992.08	\$61,496.64
	With Career Development	N/A	\$47,176.00	\$76,696.77	N/A	N/A	N/A
Richmond City Police Department	No Career Development	\$38,000.00	\$41,944.89	\$53,508.00	\$57,500.00	\$65,000.00	\$72,000.00
	With Career Development	N/A	\$45,116.33	\$64,771.00	N/A	N/A	N/A
* Supervisor Salaries are the minimum starting salaries							

hired. Although not necessarily a generational issue, fair and equitable salaries do impact retention and should be addressed.

Develop Leaders for the Future. Issues related to leadership were identified a number of times in both the open-ended and close-ended questions included in the survey. As of September 2006, Baby Boomers made up the vast majority of the department's leadership (71%) while Generation Xers made up the rest (29%). The average age of a supervisor in the department was 45.7 years-old. Considering the

generational make up of the department (Baby Boomer 33.5%, Generation X 43.9%, and Millennial 22.5), generational conflict seems inevitable if leaders don't understand generational differences of others within the department.

An additional issue facing the department involves replacing older leaders as they retire. A minimum of sixty-two officers are eligible to retire (based on age) between now and 2009. Nearly half of those that can retire (48.4%) are supervisors within the department which compounds the problem. Lavigna (2005b) summarizes the problem facing this department and many other organizations across the United States:

As the "age bubble" moves through the workforce, agencies will not only face worker shortages overall, but will also face leadership crises as our most experienced leaders retire. So, the challenge is to develop tomorrow's leaders today. Individual managers have many tactics to develop leaders, such as regularly challenging employees, giving them more responsibility in reasonable doses, rewarding and advancing good performers, and creating a mentoring culture to help developing leaders learn from the more experienced. (p. 48)

As Baby Boomers do begin to retire, Generation Xers and Millennials will be asked to step up to fill the void. While Generation Xers and Millennials are fully capable, it will take time for them to replace the knowledge that the Baby Boomers will take when they leave.

Now is the time to start working to replace these leaders. This researcher worked with Sara Gaba, Vice President of Consulting Services for Renaissance Resources, to develop a framework for developing leaders. Renaissance Resources is a Chesterfield based firm that specializes in developing customized training for leaders in the private and public sector (S. Gaba, personal communication, October 2006 to March 2007). Gaba and her staff have developed leadership programs for the Office of Emergency

Services (OEMS) Virginia Department of Health, the Virginia Association of Volunteer Rescue Squads (VAVRS), the Loudoun County Fire Advisory Council, Inc. and the Northern Virginia EMS Council (personal communication, October 2006 to March 2007). The firm provides a variety of services, to include research, assessment services, curriculum development, training, and personal coaching (personal communication, October 2006 to March 2007). Gaba suggested several approaches that complimented this current research, but conducting foundational training on retention principles seemed to be the most conducive in terms of public sector needs and financial restraints. Training on retention principles could utilize a module already developed and tested by Gaba and her staff, which could focus on four primary areas:

1. **Friends and Family** – Involves developing relationships within an organization.
2. **Belonging** – Involves engaging employees in the workplace.
3. **Life Cycles** – Involves identifying and understanding the cyclical events in an organization.
4. **Succession Planning** – Involves creating a plan to insure continuity of command due to planned and unplanned changes in leadership (personal communication, October 2006 to March 2007).

Leadership development at all stages is imperative to insure that leaders understand both their subordinates and their superiors. Each of these areas has generational implications that can benefit these leaders. For example, building relationships and communication themes that are included in the Friends and Family are themes that resonate with all generations. In terms of building relationships, it is critical for employees from different generations to be able to work together in teams. If employees from different generations cannot get along, they cannot be effective. This is not an issue for Millennials who have been collaborating with one another from birth, but it might be difficult for Baby

Boomers, especially early Boomers, to accept collaboration when they have constantly had to look over their shoulders to determine who was ready to take their job. Each generation communicates differently, but differences are best exemplified by comparing how Generation Xers and Millennials seem to crave instantaneous feedback while Baby Boomers were content with extensive feedback delivered once a year.

Other approaches that should be explored involve mentoring and coaching younger employees. Mentoring and coaching may be the most cost efficient and effective ways to prevent brain drain in an organization. Mentoring and coaching involves senior leadership taking an interest in subordinates and helping to develop the individual for the future. Mentors can be sounding boards for ideas, they can help younger employees establish valuable networks, and they can foster learning for both parties involved in the mentoring process. Mentoring and coaching have aspects that appeal to all the generations in the workforce. For instance, Zemke et al. (2000) found that mentoring and coaching appealed to Veterans because they enjoyed sharing their knowledge, to Boomers because they are life long learners who value personal growth, to Generation Xers because the mentor is someone who shows interest in them and supports them, and to Millennials who respect authority and crave knowledge. Mentoring and coaching programs, if properly designed and implemented, are a valuable retention tool.

Generational training should be considered at all levels within the organization. As mentioned previously, there are both formal and informal leaders within any organization; this is true of the Chesterfield County Police Department. Insuring that all members of the department understand the similarities and differences that exist among

one another is a key to reducing the internal strife that is often associated with generational clashes and develops the informal leaders in an organization who can often have a greater influence on morale than supervisors.

Create a Winning Culture. Organizational culture may play the greatest role in determining whether employees stay or go. Creating a winning culture involves developing teamwork and synergy within the organization, being committed to a set of shared values and goals, and communicating relentlessly. These are all measures that are reinforced by the development of generational competence in an organization.

Watching geese fly in a V-shaped formation provides a good example for organizations seeking to develop a winning culture. While flying in formation, each individual goose flaps its wings creating uplift for the birds that follow (Knight, 2005). This uplift reduces the effort for the other geese in the formation. By flying in the V-shaped formation, “the whole flock adds 72% greater flying range than if each bird flew alone,” which allows the group to go farther as a whole (Knight, 2005). The individual geese work together for the common good of the flock, which results in the flock obtaining results that no single goose could do on his own. They create synergy for the group. Synergy is an interaction between two or more individuals that adds value so the quality of the interaction is greater than the sum of the parts. Organizations go farther when collective goals are placed ahead of personal agendas, when the masses persevere through difficulties, and when there is accountability within the organization.

Another characteristic of a winning culture that is demonstrated by these geese is being committed to shared visions and goals. Many who observe migrating geese have

noticed that a goose that falls out of formation will not remain outside the formation for too long (Knight, 2005). The goose moves back into the formation because it feels the resistance of flying alone and it prefers to “take advantage of the lifting power of the bird immediately in front of it” (Knight, 2005). The lesson learned is that it makes more sense to stay in formation with those heading in the same direction because it is ultimately more efficient. The group shares a vision of where they want to go and they have the same goals, which brings commitment to the organization because there is a clear direction and there is buy-in to the decision making process.

Relentless communication is another key characteristic of a winning culture that is observed. As the geese continue their migration south, they “honk to encourage those up front to keep up their speed” (Knight, 2005). The honking pushes and motivates each goose to continue to produce for the group. Production is better in groups where there is positive reinforcement and encouragement to do what is right (Knight, 2005). The lesson learned from the geese is that “the power of encouragement, to stand by one’s heart or core values and encourage the heart and core of others, is the quality of honking we seek” (Knight, 2005). Consistent, clear communication reinforces the direction that the organization is taking. Organizations with toxic cultures send mixed messages that confuse or aggravate the workforce, which ultimately leads to low morale and higher turnover.

Organizational culture is dictated from the top of the organization. Although all leaders within the department need leadership development training, training on developing the department’s culture would only focus on upper echelon leaders to

achieve commitment and buy-in to the process (i.e. Police Chief, Lieutenant Colonels, and Majors). According to Sara Gaba, this training could be built upon the leadership development (personal communication, October 2006 to March 2007). The topics touched on above, developing teamwork and synergy within the organization, being committed to a set of shared values and goals, and communicating relentlessly, would all be components of this training. Developing the department's culture is a retention tool that has significant generational implications. Organizations with toxic cultures generally have greater problems with retention, whereas those with good cultures tend to be identified as employers of choice. Look at Fortune Magazine's 100 Best Companies List – what all of these companies have in common is that they have developed cultures that emphasize the winning spirit which has reduced turnover in all of them and has led to greater profitability. And, while the Chesterfield County Police Department is not a profit driven organization, the same winning spirit can invigorate the officers in the department to push them to achieve the metrics that this department does measure (i.e. clearance rates, arrests, turnover costs) and can help the department achieve its goal of becoming a law enforcement employer of choice. Recruitment and retention of the best and the brightest talent becomes easier for employers of choice because they become magnets for talent. Ahlrichs (2000) argues that:

Great companies attract great talent. Companies known for strong performance and growth and for being industry leaders have an advantage. The pride generated by being a part of a great company fuels workers through the tough times: proposals that flop, strategies that fail, reorganizations, and petty infighting. Second, great jobs – defined as those that offer opportunities to stretch – are equally important as magnets for top talent. (p. 29)

Employees become the greatest assets in hiring for employers of choice which does not currently appear to be the case in the department. The current research suggests that half of the respondents do not attempt to recruit others to join the department and over half were either neutral or unfavorable when asked whether they would recommend the department. In terms of retention, the Chesterfield County Police Department cannot compete financially with many private sector and federal law enforcement organizations. Where they can compete is by providing officers a job they truly love in a place where they feel valued and respected.

Dissemination

Dissemination of this research will occur in a variety of ways. As mentioned previously, this current research on developing generational competence and retention will be presented jointly with similar research conducted by Mark Banks on recruitment. Although exact dates for these presentations have not been planned, there will be several conducted in both Chesterfield County and Henrico County over the summer of 2007. In addition to presenting the findings of this research, this researcher has already been asked to develop and present training within the Chesterfield County Police Department in conjunction with training new field training officers. Similar endeavors will certainly follow.

Conclusions

Summary

Developing generational competence is a key point of differentiation for employers today. With four generations in the workplace, it is imperative for organizations to develop business strategies that account for this generational diversity and to develop compensation plans that align with these strategies. Research on generational competence demonstrates that “a better understanding of generational beliefs and preferences, differences and needs, can help build synergy among the generations and turn potential conflicts into sources of strength, with improvements in productivity, product marketing and organizational effectiveness” (*Maximizing Human Capital Assets*, 2005). While there are similarities among police officers in general, this current research does support the belief that generational differences do exist within law enforcement and that the Chesterfield County Police Department is not a generationally competent organization. Although it is inconclusive as to whether or not the lack of generational competence is a factor that drives police officers to leave the organization, this research did find that turnover is an issue for the department in terms of the sheer costs associated with voluntary turnover.

There are no quick fixes to solving the turnover problem within the department. Retention themes suggested in the predominant literature consisting of developing organizational culture, leadership, and engagement within the organization, offer the best chances of success. Each of these retention themes has specific characteristics that appeal to members of each generation while not significantly driving up costs. And

while compensation strategies are not generally thought of as primary drivers of voluntary turnover or retention, some strategies were suggested to align total compensation with the department's strategies and the topic of pay equity was touched upon.

Personal Learning

This thesis represents the culmination of nearly two years of academic instruction and independent research. The process of studying the issue, conducting actual research, and writing about these efforts has interwoven the concepts relayed throughout the course which reinforced the learning. While the process has been far from perfect, the learning that has resulted will have unquestionable effects in the years to come. And, while I understand why the cohorts in the program that follows our group will choose not to conduct thesis research, I believe that their education will be diminished as a result. In addition to the normal course work that has accompanied this program, I have read over 300 articles and between ten to fifteen books on topics related to turnover, retention, employers of choice, team building, and generational differences. Additional classes cannot make up for this learning and sense of satisfaction that one obtains after going through the thesis process.

Prior to completing this course work, I had a poor opinion of human resource management that was driven by poor examples. Understanding the strategic role that human resources plays in an organization and seeing positive examples of how real world organizations effectively use human resources as a partner provides a model for future work in the field. One doesn't have to be in the field of human resources to understand

the significant impact that people have on organizations. Organizations either succeed or fail based on whether they successfully provide direction and engagement for that talent. Maintaining the status quo within the human resource field doesn't earn human resource personnel a seat at the strategic table; proving day in and day out the value that human resources provides a company is what makes human resources a strategic partner and leads an organization to becoming an employer of choice.

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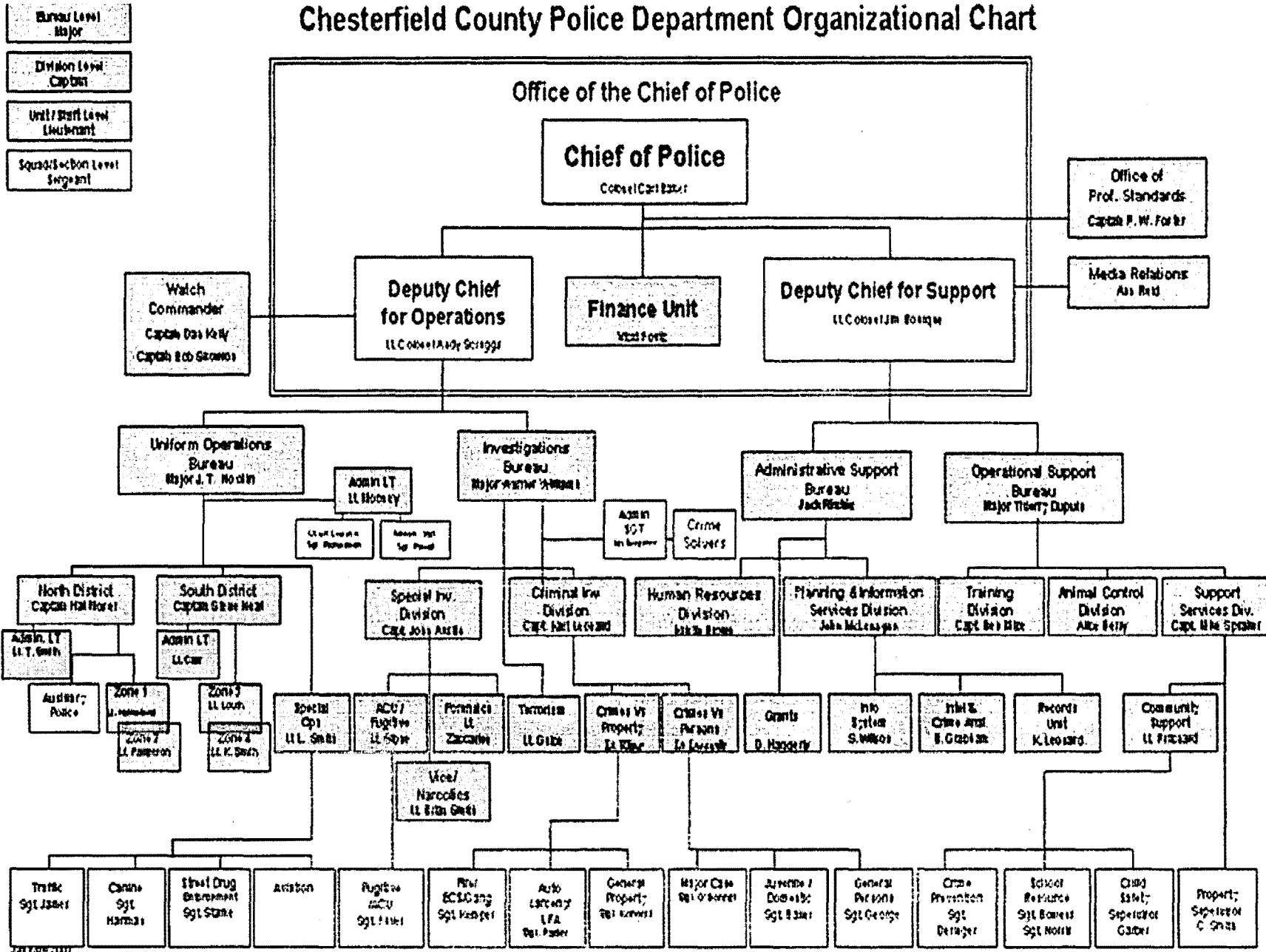
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APPENDIX A: CHESTERFIELD COUNTY POLICE ORGANIZATION CHART

Chesterfield County Police Department Organizational Chart



APPENDIX B: BIRATI AND TZINER'S AMENDED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

THE AMENDED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The cost components to be incorporated in our suggested conceptual and computational framework can be grouped into the following categories:²

- The direct outlays to the firm incurred by the replacement process: recruiting, hiring, training, and socializing new employees including the extra effort by supervisors and coworkers to integrate them;
- The indirect costs and losses that relate to interruptions in production, sales, and the delivery of goods and services to customers; and
- The financial value of the estimated effect on performance as a result of the drop in morale of the remaining work force following on dysfunctional turnover.

The Direct Cost (D)

The direct cost to the firm for replacing the departing employee may include any or all of the following components:

- The difference in the total cost of employing a new worker ($R(m)$) compared to the total sum paid to the veteran worker who left $R(o)$. This item can be estimated by the following equation

$$C = \sum_{t=1}^t \frac{R(m) - R(o)}{(1+i)^t} \quad (1)$$

where C is the present value of the cost differentials during the entire period (in years) in which the departing employee was expected to perform efficiently if he or she did not leave (t), and i is the cost of money to the employer.³⁻⁴ Thus C will be positive (loss to the firm) if $R(m) - R(o) > 0$ and negative (gain to the firm) if $R(m) - R(o) < 0$;

- The total cost related to acquiring the new employee, including advertising and the selection process (S);
- The direct expenditures required to train the new employee (T); and
- The cost generated by the process of socialization of the newcomer until he or she becomes operational, including the cost related to the extra efforts of supervisors and coworkers to integrate the new hiree (U).

To sum up, the direct cost (D) will total:

$$D = C + S + T + U \quad (2)$$

The Indirect Cost (I)

As indicated, a departing employee may cause additional indirect expenditures or losses to the company, such as:

- The excess over-time pay to employees presently working for the firm, or monetary compensation to outside substitute employees, in order to compensate temporarily for the performance downfall (*O*).
- The financial value of the loss of production and/or customers to competitors due to failure to deliver products or services on schedule which can be directly attributed to dysfunctional turnover (losing good performers [*F*]). This loss will continue until a replacement is found and becomes productive at the level of his or her predecessor.⁵
- The Turnover Effect on Morale (*MM*) Another indirect cost factor is related to the possible negative effect on the spirit of the remaining work force by the departure of a good performer. In the extreme case, it may also prompt other strong performers to quit (see Kidwell & Bennett 1993). It has already been pointed out that in order to succeed in the present economic context of increased global competition, companies must develop a highly motivated, skilled and committed work force (Pfeffer 1994). Employees will be unlikely to develop high motivation and high commitment toward an organization that does not reciprocate by fostering a climate in which good performers are retained even during economic distress. Strong performers will be reluctant to stay with an organization that allows their colleagues to leave or lays them off during economically difficult periods (Sheridan 1992). Put otherwise, it is hard to expect that employees who perceive their employer to be disloyal (may abandon them during economic distress, shows a lack of commitment to and concern for employee well-being) will display sustained efforts and commitment toward the organization.

This cost can not easily be measured, but, because of its potential magnitude, it should be estimated and included in calculations. We suggest the following cost estimation procedure: (a) periodically, management should administer a morale survey among the employees of the firm; (b) based on the survey responses, an overall morale score should be derived; (c) concurrently, the standard deviation of the dollar valued job performance (SD_y) among the employees of the firm should be assessed and finally; (d) drawing on the overall morale scores and the respective ($SD_y - s$), it should be possible to calculate the drop in SD_y which corresponds to the downfall of "one unit of morale" that is probably attributable to dysfunctional turnover. To sum up, the indirect cost (*I*) will total:

$$I = O + F + M \quad (3)$$

The Turnover Rate Multiplier (f)

Compared to veteran workers, newcomers to organizations tend, on the average, to stay in the job for less time (Wanous 1992). The reason is that only

after entering the firm and starting to work, does the employee accumulate accurate information about the position. Moreover, new employees are more likely to be tested and scrutinized by employers during this initial working period. Thus, the likelihood of quitting or layoffs in the early stage of employment may be higher than the average. The additional expense generated by this factor can and should be estimated by the accounting department.

The Amended Formulae

This being the case, the total turnover costs should be multiplied by the increased turnover factor (f). Consequently the total before-tax turnover cost (L) would equal

$$L = (D + I)(1 + f) = (C + S + T + U + O + F + M)(1 + f) \quad (4)$$

To illustrate the use of formula (4), we compute below the turnover cost of a single employee, using probable numerical figures.⁶ Some of our figures emanate from an example in Wanous (1992). The figures were increased to approximately adjust for changes in the American economy during recent years. The rest of the figures in the illustration have their source in our experience as consultants.

Let:

t	= total number of years that the departing employees was expected to work	10
i	= the interest rate paid by the employer on borrowing money (discount rate)	10%
$R(o)$	= annual total remuneration to the person leaving the organization	\$64,800
$R(m)$	= annual total remuneration to the new employee	\$60,380
S	= the cost of acquiring the new employee	\$3,150
T	= the cost of training the new employee	\$10,000
U	= socialization cost of new worker	\$48,600
O	= excess over-time payment and/or compensation to outsiders	\$1,000
F	= loss of production and/or customers resulting from the turnover of one employee	\$55,440
M	= the estimated monetary value (loss) from the turnover effect on the morale of remaining employees	\$3,000
f	= the newcomer-to-organization turnover rate factor	0.1

The total before tax outlay to the employer is:

$$L = (C + S + T + U + O + F + M)(1 + f) \quad (5)$$

when

$$C = \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{R(m) - R(a)}{(1+i)^t}$$

Thus, in our example

$$= \sum_{t=1}^{10} \frac{\$60,380 - \$64,800}{(1.1)^t} = \$27,159$$

and

$$L = [-\$27,159 + \$3,150 + \$10,000 + \$48,600 + \$1,000 + \$55,440 + \$3,000] (1+0.1) = \$103,434$$

Hence the overall before-tax cost of the dysfunctional turnover of a single employee in our example would be U.S. \$103,434.

APPENDIX C: GENERATIONAL SURVEY

Generational Survey Informed Consent

[NOTE: Since this is an online survey, it is recommended that the respondent print this page so that he/she will have the contact information after completing the survey.]

The purpose of this study is to identify characteristics of different generations within law enforcement and to determine whether generational differences play a role in recruitment and retention. This study is being completed as part of research to satisfy a thesis requirement as part of the University of Richmond Public Safety University graduate program. Your participation involves completing the following online survey. The survey should take you approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and will ask a variety of questions to assess the generational competence of your organization and to assess individual opinions and attitudes on generational issues, recruitment, and retention within your organization.

The principal investigators are Mark Banks, Henrico County Police Department (501-4835, e-mail - ban15@co.henrico.va.us), and Scott Edwards, Chesterfield County Police Department (543-3760, e-mail - gary.edwards@richmond.edu). We are being supervised by Dr. Russell Leonard, University of Richmond School of Continuing Studies. Should you have any questions or concerns, please contact him at 897-7134 or Leonard@alongside.com. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact Dr. Kathy Hoke, Chair of the University of Richmond's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Research Participants at 289-8417 or khoke@richmond.edu.

Your participation in this project is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Neither your name nor your email address is connected in anyway to your responses to this survey and the researchers will not know if you chose to participate. Please skip any questions that you do not wish to answer or if they do not pertain to you. Survey results will be made available to the respective departments involved in the study and to anybody requesting the data at the conclusion of the research.

The complete body of research will be presented to members from each department and recommendations will be made based on our findings.

In order to ensure confidentiality, we will not ask you to sign a document indicating that you agree to participate. However, by completing this survey you give consent to participate in the study. If you have questions or concerns please contact Mark Banks (501-4835, e-mail - ban15@co.henrico.va.us), Scott Edwards (543-3760 or gary.edwards@richmond.edu), or Dr. Russ Leonard (897-7134 or Leonard@alongside.com).

Screen 1

I. Demographics

What department do you work for?

Henrico County Police Chesterfield County Police

What is your year of birth?

Prior to 1945 1948 - 1955 1958 - 1964 1965 - 1976 After 1977

What is your gender?

Male Female

What is your race?

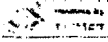
White or Caucasian Black or African American Asian Hispanic or Latino Other

What is your rank?

Police Patrol Patrol Officer/Detective Sergeant Lieutenant Captain or above

What is your current assignment?

Administration Uniform Operations Bureau Investigations Bureau Operations Support Bureau



Screen 2

How long have you been employed with your current department?

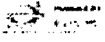
0 - 5 years 6 - 15 years 16 - 25 years over 26 years

What is your level of education?

Completed High School or equivalent Associate's Degree Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree or higher

What is your family status?

Single with no children Single with children Married with no children Married with children



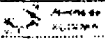
Screen 3

II. Generational Competence

Organizational Questions

	Completely False	Somewhat False	Somewhat True/Somewhat False	Somewhat True	Completely True
There is no one successful "type" in this organization. Supervisors, leaders and those in the most desirable jobs are a mix of ages, sexes, and ethnicities.					
The department's atmosphere and policies are based on the work being done.					
The department's atmosphere and policies are based on the customers being served.					
The department's atmosphere and policies are based on the preferences of the people who work here.					
There is a minimum of bureaucracy and "red tape" here.					
The work atmosphere could be described as relaxed and informal.					
There's an element of fun and playfulness about most endeavors here.					
Supervisors here are a bit more "polished" or professional than in most organizations.					

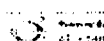
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Screen 4

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
When a project team is put together in this organization, employees with different backgrounds, experiences, skills, and viewpoints are purposely included.					
Employees within the department are treated like customers.					
Officers with differing viewpoints and perspectives are taken seriously within the department.					
The department takes time to talk openly about what you are looking for on the job.					
The department takes time to talk openly about what types of work load, schedule, and policies work best for you.					
There is behind-the-back complaining among groups of officers.					
There is open hostility among groups of employees.					


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Screen 5

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
Supervisors adjust policies and procedures to fit the needs of individuals and the team					
Supervisors here are known for being straightforward					
Supervisors give those who report to them the big picture along with specific goals and measures, then turn their people loose.					
The department assumes the best of and from its people					
The department treats everyone - from the newest recruit to the most seasoned employee - as if they have great things to offer and are motivated to do their best.					

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Screen 6

Individual Questions

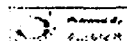
Please rank the following values, in your life and work, to which you relate the most. Enter 1 for highest, 2 for second highest, 3 for third highest, etc. until you rank your top 5 values.

<input type="checkbox"/> Dedication/Sacrifice	<input type="checkbox"/> Work Ethic	<input type="checkbox"/> Work-life Balance
<input type="checkbox"/> Optimism	<input type="checkbox"/> Comfortable with change	<input type="checkbox"/> Achievement
<input type="checkbox"/> Technologically Literate	<input type="checkbox"/> Diversity	<input type="checkbox"/> Delayed Rewards
<input type="checkbox"/> Morality	<input type="checkbox"/> Respect for Authority/Order	<input type="checkbox"/> Personal Growth
<input type="checkbox"/> Hard work	<input type="checkbox"/> Team Orientation	<input type="checkbox"/> Autonomy on the job
<input type="checkbox"/> Prosperity/Personal Gratification	<input type="checkbox"/> Flexibility/Informal Work Life	<input type="checkbox"/> Synergy
<input type="checkbox"/> Eager to learn	<input type="checkbox"/> Civic duty	<input type="checkbox"/> Integrity of Leadership
<input type="checkbox"/> Honesty & Respect	<input type="checkbox"/> Adherence to the rules/policies	
<input type="checkbox"/> Conformity	<input type="checkbox"/> Consensus	

Which are you more loyal to:

Employer Profession/Career Both Equally Neither Employer nor Profession

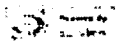
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Screen 7

	Completely False	Somewhat False	Somewhat True/Somewhat False	Somewhat True	Completely True
This department is an employer of choice					
I believe my salary is comparable to other local law enforcement organizations of similar size.					
I am satisfied with my salary.					
I believe my benefits are comparable to other local law enforcement organizations of similar size.					
I am satisfied with my benefits.					
I believe this organization promotes a good work/life balance.					
This organization allows flexible work schedules when possible					
I believe that technology (i.e. computers, internet, etc.) are important tools in fighting crime.					
I feel comfortable using computers					
I feel comfortable using the Internet					
I believe those who lead this organization are honest.					
I will not stay with organizations whose values do not align with my own					

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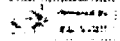


Screen 8

Rate the importance of the following factors

	Not important	Of Little Importance	Neutral	Somewhat Important	Very Important
How important is salary to you?					
How important are benefits to you?					
How important is work/life balance to you?					
How important is a flexible work schedule to you?					
It is important to me that this department possesses the best available technology					
How important is honest leadership to you?					

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Screen 9

III. Recruitment

The department is currently recruiting quality candidates

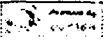
Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

I feel the primary area the department can improve to recruit good candidates is

Salary
 Equipment/Technology
 Where we recruit
 Recruiting Methods
 Other: _____

I was attracted to this specific department because of

Salary
 Equipment/Technology
 Location
 Reputation
 Other: _____



Screen 10

The hiring process was what I expected

Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True
 I do not remember my hiring process

I feel I have a responsibility to help the department recruit quality candidates

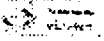
Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

I currently attempt to recruit others to join my police department

True
 False

I have personally recruited/referred approximately _____ people to join this department

None
 1 - 5
 6 - 10
 11 - 20
 20 or more



Screen 11

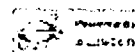
If previous Law Enforcement, I came to this agency because of (Skip this question if this is your first Law Enforcement position):

- Salary
- Equipment/Technology
- Location
- Reputation
- Other

What should this organization do to recruit more personnel?

What should this organization do to recruit more female and/or minority personnel?

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Screen 12

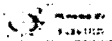
IV. Retention

The department is concerned and focused, on a daily basis, with retention:

Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
-------	--------	--------------	---------	--------

	Completely False	Somewhat False	Somewhat True/Somewhat False	Somewhat True	Completely True
The department offers enough training to keep me stimulated on the job					
Training is important to me as an officer					
The department offers training in a variety of formats (i.e. classroom lecture, computer-based, practical exercises, etc.) that appeals to me					
Having training in a variety of different formats (i.e. classroom lecture, computer-based, practical exercises, etc.) is important to me					
The department encourages regular lateral movement					
I would recommend this department to my friends as a place to work.					
I enjoy working for this department					
I am satisfied with my job					
I believe this organization is taking steps to retain me					

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Screen 13


	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Usually	Always
Work assignments here are broad, allowing each employee to develop a range of skills.					
Work assignments here provide variety and challenge, allowing each employee to develop a range of skills.					
The department markets internally, "selling" this organization to employees and continually looking for ways to be the employer of choice.					

I am currently looking for another job with a different organization or organizations.

Completely True
 Somewhat True
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat False
 Completely False

I am looking for a new job because I am eligible to retire soon.

Yes
 No




Screen 14

What is this organization doing to retain you?

What should the organization do to retain you?

Additional Comments:

Thank you very much for taking the time to fill out this survey. Survey results will be made available to the respective departments involved in the study and to anybody requesting the data at the conclusion of the research.



APPENDIX D: SURVEY INTRODUCTION LETTER

Fellow sworn police officers,

In order to conduct research on generational effects on recruiting and retention of police officers, Sergeant Mark Banks, Henrico County Police Department, and Sergeant Scott Edwards, Chesterfield County Police Department, have teamed up to develop a recruitment and retention survey to be administered in both agencies. The purpose of this study is to identify characteristics of different generations within law enforcement and to determine whether generational differences play a role in the recruitment and retention process. This study is being completed as part of research to satisfy a thesis requirement with the University of Richmond Public Safety University graduate program. Your participation involves completing the following online survey. The survey should take you approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete and will ask a variety of questions to assess the generational competence of your organization and to assess individual opinions and attitudes on generational issues, recruitment, and retention within your organization.

For this survey to be meaningful, we need as much participation as possible. The survey gives you the ability to voice your opinion on how these two departments recruit and retain police officers. Both Col. Stanley and Col. Baker have approved the research effort. The data collected will be presented to both departments when the research is completed.

Officers from both departments can take the survey from any computer with Internet access by clicking on the following link:

<http://www.chesterfield.gov/eListen/Policegenerationalsurvey/policegenerationalsurvey.html>

Chesterfield County Police Officers will also be able to take the survey from any computer that has Intranet access or from their PMDCs in a hotspot. For officers in Henrico and Chesterfield that either do not have Internet access or are uncomfortable answering the questions on a computer, a written copy of the survey has been attached to this e-mail. If you elect to fill out the written survey, as opposed to filling out the survey online, print a copy, complete the survey, and forward it through departmental mail to Sergeant Mark Banks, Henrico County Police Department, or Sergeant Scott Edwards, Chesterfield County Police Department North District Station.

The survey is completely anonymous and participation is voluntary. The survey will be available online until Friday, November 3, 2006. Periodic e-mail reminders will follow this e-mail to encourage participation.

Thanks in advance for your assistance.

Appendix E: Structured Interview

Generational Interview Informed Consent

The purpose of this study is to identify characteristics of different generations within law enforcement and to determine whether generational differences play a role in retention. This is a research study being completed to satisfy a thesis requirement as part of the University of Richmond Public Safety University graduate program. The information being gathered by in this questionnaire and interview is strictly for research purposes and will not be used for any other purpose. Your participation involves answering the following structured interview questions. The questionnaire and interview should take you approximately 45 minutes to an hour to complete and will ask a variety of questions to assess the generational competence of your organization and to assess individual opinions and attitudes on generational issues and retention within the Chesterfield County Police Department.

The principal investigator is Scott Edwards, Chesterfield County Police Department (543-3760, e-mail – gary.edwards@richmond.edu). I am being supervised by Dr. Russell Leonard, University of Richmond School of Continuing Studies. Should you have any questions or concerns, please contact him at 897-7134 or Leonard@alongside.com. If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact Dr. Kathy Hoke, Chair of the University of Richmond's Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Research Participants at 289-8417 or khoke@richmond.edu.

Your participation in this project is voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Please skip any questions that you do not wish to answer or if they do not pertain to you. Although your identity will be known by the interviewer, steps will be taken to insure confidentiality. Participants will be assigned a control number to insure that they cannot be identified. Because your anonymity cannot be guaranteed, you should not disclose any information that will place you "at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to your financial standing, employability, or reputation." Results will generally be reported in aggregate form. Individual responses will only be used if the data does not reveal the source of the information due to the specific nature of the response. Research results will be made available to the respective departments involved in the study and to anybody requesting the data at the conclusion of the research.

The complete body of research will be presented to members from the Chesterfield County Police Department and recommendations will be made based on the findings.

In order to ensure confidentiality, we will not ask you to sign a document indicating that you agree to participate. However, by completing this questionnaire and interview you give consent to participate in the study. If you have questions or concerns please contact Scott Edwards (543-3760 or edwardss@chesterfield.gov) or Dr. Russ Leonard (897-7134 or Leonard@alongside.com).

Generational Questionnaire

[NOTE: INTERVIEW/QUESTIONNAIRE NOT USED IN RESEARCH]

I. Demographics

- a. What year were you born? _____
- b. Gender: Male Female
- c. Race: Caucasian African American Asian
 Latino or Hispanic Other
- d. When did you resign from Chesterfield? _____
- e. When you resigned from Chesterfield, what was your rank?
 Patrol Officer/Detective Sergeant
 Lieutenant Captain or above
- f. When you resigned from Chesterfield, what was your assignment?
 Uniform Operations Bureau Investigations Bureau
 Administration Support Services
- g. What assignments did you have with Chesterfield prior to resigning?

- h. How long did you work for Chesterfield?
 0-5 6-15 16-25 over 26
- i. Did you work in Law Enforcement prior to coming to work for Chesterfield?

YES NO

If so, what is the total number of years you have spent in law enforcement?

0-5 6-15 16-25 over 26

j. What is the highest level of education you completed:

Completed High School or equivalent Associate's Degree

Bachelor's Degree Master's Degree or higher

k. When you left Chesterfield, what was your family status?

Single w/ no children Single w/ children

Married w/ no children Married w/ children

II. Generational Competence

Organizational Questions

Instructions: Use your experience with the Chesterfield County Police to answer the following questions. Explain any response that you feel can expound upon your response.

1. There was no one successful “type” in the police department: Supervisors, leaders and those in the most desirable jobs are a mix of ages, sexes, and ethnicities.

 Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

 Somewhat True Completely True

2. When a project team was put together in Chesterfield, employees with different backgrounds, experiences, skills, and viewpoints were consciously included.

 Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

3. Employees within the department were treated like customers.

 Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

4. Officers with differing viewpoints and perspectives were taken seriously within the department.

 Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

5. The department took the time to talk openly about what different officers were looking for on the job.

 Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

6. The department took the time to talk openly about what types of work loads, schedules, and policies worked best for you.

 Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

7. The department’s atmosphere and policies were based on the work being done.

 Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

 Somewhat True Completely True

8. The department's atmosphere and policies were based on the customers being served.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True
9. The department's atmosphere and policies were based on the preferences of the people who work here.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True
10. There was behind-the-back complaining among groups of officers.
- Always Usually Occasionally Rarely Never
11. There was open hostility among groups of employees.
- Always Usually Occasionally Rarely Never
12. There was a minimum of bureaucracy and "red tape" there.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True
13. The work atmosphere was relaxed and informal.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True
14. There was an element of fun and playfulness about most endeavors there.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True

15. Supervisors were are a bit more “polished” or professional than in most organizations.
- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
- Somewhat True Completely True
16. Supervisors adjusted policies and procedures to fit the needs of individuals and the team.
- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always
17. Supervisors were known for being straightforward.
- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always
18. Supervisors gave those who reported to them the big picture along with specific goals and measures, then turned their people loose to accomplish objectives.
- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always
19. The department assumed the best of and from its people.
- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always
20. The department treated everyone – from the newest recruit to the most seasoned employee – as if they had great things to offer and were motivated to do their best.
- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

Individual Questions

1. Of the following values, choose up to 6 which you value the most:

- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dedication/Sacrifice | <input type="checkbox"/> Respect for Authority/Order |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Optimism | <input type="checkbox"/> Team Orientation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Technologically Literate | <input type="checkbox"/> Flexibility/Informal Work Life |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Morality | <input type="checkbox"/> Civic duty |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard work | <input type="checkbox"/> Adherence to the rules/policies |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Prosperity/Personal Gratification | <input type="checkbox"/> Consensus |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Eager to learn | <input type="checkbox"/> Work-life Balance |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Honesty & Respect | <input type="checkbox"/> Achievement |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Conformity | <input type="checkbox"/> Delayed Rewards |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard Work Ethic | <input type="checkbox"/> Personal Growth |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Comfortable with change | <input type="checkbox"/> Autonomy on the job |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Diversity | <input type="checkbox"/> Synergy |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Integrity of Leadership |

2. Which are you more loyal to your:

- Employer Profession Both Equally
 Neither Employer nor Profession

3. Do you consider the Chesterfield County Police Department to be an employer of choice?

- YES NO

Why or Why not:

I. What characteristics do you attribute to an employer of choice?

II. Does your current employer, or your first employer after Chesterfield, embody these characteristics?

III. Can you list examples of Law Enforcement agencies that you believe are, or try to be, employers of choice?

4. Did salary or benefits play a role in you leaving the Chesterfield County Police Department?

YES NO

Explain your answer:

I. Were you satisfied with your salary?

II. Were you satisfied with your benefits?

III. Do you think that Chesterfield's pay and/or benefits were comparable with:

i. Other local law enforcement jobs?

ii. Similar public sector jobs?

iii. Similar private sector jobs?

iv. Are you better off today in terms of salary & benefits than when you left Chesterfield?

5. I believe that the Chesterfield County Police Department promoted a good work/life balance.

- Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

6. How important is work/life balance to you?

- Not important
 Of little importance
 Neutral
 Somewhat important
 Very important

7. The Chesterfield County Police Department allowed for flexible work schedules when possible.

- Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

8. How important is a flexible work schedule to you?

- Not important
 Of little importance
 Neutral

Somewhat important Very important

- I. In terms of work/life balance & flexibility, can law enforcement agencies realistically rate well in these areas? Explain your answer.

- II. To what extent was looking for better work/life balance or flexibility a factor when you decided to leave Chesterfield?

9. I believe that technology (i.e. computers, Internet, etc.) is an important tools in fighting crime.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True Completely True

10. I feel comfortable using computers.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True Completely True

11. I feel comfortable using the Internet.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True Completely True

- I. Were you satisfied with the technology available to you when you worked for the department? Explain your answer.

II. To what extent did technology play in your decision to leave Chesterfield?
Explain your answer.

12. I believed those who led the department were honest?

- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True Completely True

Explain your answer:

13. How important was honest leadership to you?

- Not important Of little importance Neutral
 Somewhat important Very important

14. Would you work for or stay with an organizations whose values did not align with your own.

- YES NO

Explain your answer:

15. The department offers enough training to keep me stimulated on the job.

- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

Somewhat True Completely True

16. Training is important to me as an officer.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

Somewhat True Completely True

17. The department offers training in a variety of formats (i.e. classroom lecture, computer-based, practical exercises, etc.) that appeals to me.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

Somewhat True Completely True

18. Having training in a variety of different formats (i.e. classroom lecture, computer-based, practical exercises, etc.) is important to me.

Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False

Somewhat True Completely True

I. What training formats engage you the most as an individual?

II. What types of training did you receive the most benefit?

III. To what extent was training an issue that you considered when you left the department?

19. The department encouraged regular lateral movement.

- Completely False Somewhat False Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True Completely True

20. Work assignments were broad, providing variety and challenge, and allowing each employee to develop a range of skills.

- Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

I. Where you challenged by your job as a police officer in Chesterfield County?

II. Was having a job that challenged you an important factor for you?

III. Since leaving Chesterfield, in what ways have you found other jobs more or less challenging than you job as a police officer?

IV. To what extent was being challenged in your job a factor for you leaving the department?

V. To what extent mobility within the department an issue that you considered when you decided to leave Chesterfield?

21. The department marketed internally, "selling" themselves to employees and continually looking for ways to be the employer of choice.

Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

22. My immediate supervisor cared about me.

Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

I. What role did supervision play in your decision to leave?

II. How did your immediate supervisor engage and develop you as an employee?

III. What should your immediate supervisor have done to engage and develop you as an employee?

23. The department was concerned and focused with retention.

Never Rarely Occasionally Usually Always

I. Why did you leave Chesterfield?

II. What did Chesterfield do to retain you?

III. What did your immediate supervisor do to retain you?

IV. What could Chesterfield have done to retain you?

24. I would recommend the Chesterfield County Police Department to my friends looking for jobs in Law Enforcement.

- Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

25. I enjoyed working for the department.

- Completely False
 Somewhat False
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat True
 Completely True

26. I am currently looking for another job with a different organization.

- Completely True
 Somewhat True
 Somewhat True/Somewhat False
 Somewhat False
 Completely False

27. Where do you work now?

28. What do you do for them?

29. Are you more satisfied with this employer?

YES

NO

Explain your answer:

30. Do you ever regret leaving Chesterfield?

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Usually

Always

Additional Comments:

	Direct Costs				Indirect Costs			Total Costs
	C	S	T	U	O	F	M	
Option 1	\$40,047.23	\$305,977.62	\$1,146,394.27	\$464,157.42	\$246,625.00	\$651,249.37	N/A	\$2,852,449.90
Option 2	\$40,047.23	\$354,291.87	\$1,210,422.52	\$464,157.42	\$491,250.00	\$651,249.37	N/A	\$3,211,417.40
Option 3	\$40,047.23	\$402,606.12	\$1,275,450.77	\$464,157.42	\$736,875.00	\$651,249.37	N/A	\$3,570,384.90

APPENDIX F: TURNOVER COSTS

Appendix G: Table 3 Question Key

- Q1 – There is no one successful “type” in this organization: Supervisors, leaders and those in the most desirable jobs are a mix of ages, sexes, and ethnicities.
- Q2 – When a project team is put together in this organization, employees with different backgrounds, experiences, skills, and viewpoints are purposely included.
- Q3 – Employees within the department are treated like customers.
- Q4 – Officers with differing viewpoints and perspectives are taken seriously within the department.
- Q5 A – The department takes time to talk openly about what you are looking for on the job.
B – The department takes time to talk openly about what types of work load, schedule, and policies work best for you.
- Q6 A – The department’s atmosphere and policies are based on the work being done.
B – The department’s atmosphere and policies are based on the customers being served.
C – The department’s atmosphere and policies are based on the preferences of the people who work here.
- Q7 A – There is behind-the-back complaining among groups of officers.
B – There is open hostility among groups of employees.
- Q8 – There is a minimum of bureaucracy and “red tape” here.
- Q9 – The work atmosphere could be described as relaxed and informal.
- Q10 – There’s an element of fun and playfulness about most endeavors here.
- Q11 – Supervisors here are a bit more “polished” or professional than in most organizations.
- Q12 – Supervisors adjust policies and procedures to fit the needs of individuals and the team.
- Q13 – Supervisors here are known for being straightforward.
- Q14 – Supervisors give those who report to them the big picture along with specific goals and measures, then turn their people loose.

Q15 A – The department assumes the best of and from its people.

B – The department treats everyone – from the newest recruit to the most seasoned employee – as if they have great things to offer and are motivated to do their best.

Q16 – The department is concerned and focused, on a daily basis, with retention.

Q17 – The department offers training in a variety of formats (i.e. classroom lecture, computer-based, practical exercises, etc.) that appeals to me.

Q18 – The department encourages regular lateral movement.

Q19 A – Work assignments here are broad, allowing each employee to develop a range of skills.

B – Work assignments here provide variety and challenge, allowing each employee to develop a range of skills.

Q20 – The department markets internally, “selling” this organization to employees and continually looking for ways to be the employer of choice.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY

From 1993 to 1996, I attended James Madison University, Harrisonburg, Virginia, where I earned a Bachelor of Science in Sociology, with a concentration in criminal deviance.

In 1997, I was hired by the Chesterfield County Police Department. After completing the basic recruit school, I was assigned to work in the Uniform Operations Bureau on the North Evening Shift. In September 2000, I was reassigned to work in the Investigations Bureau as a polygraph examiner. When I completed polygraph school, I was assigned as a detective in the Crimes Against Persons Section. After returning from an overseas active duty deployment, I was temporarily assigned to work in the Larceny From Auto Section before being permanently assigned in February 2004 to work in Economic Crime Section as a detective. In July 2005 I was promoted to Sergeant and was reassigned to the Uniform Operations Bureau. My current assignment is the lead Sergeant on Zone 2 Evening Shift.

My greatest accomplishments include being happily married for nearly nine years and having two wonderful children, ages two and four. Without their love and support, I would be half the person that I am today.

Pledge

On my honor, I hereby affirm that this work was created by me, the writings and conclusions are entirely my own, I actually completed the research (surveys, interviews, etc.) noted in this thesis, and all ideas from others are properly cited and referenced.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of several loops and a long horizontal stroke at the end, positioned above a solid horizontal line.

Scott Edwards