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PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF THE FERGUSON EFFECT ON LAW
ENFORCEMENT OFFICER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

by

William Peter Markopoulos, Jr.

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate School,
the College of Science and Technology,
and the Department of Human Capital Development
at The University of Southern Mississippi
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2017

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ABSTRACT

PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF THE FERGUSON EFFECT ON LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

by William Peter Markopoulos, Jr.

Law enforcement officer turnover lacks the support of empirical research (Monk-Turner, O’Leary, & Sumter, 2010; Wareham, Smith, & Lambert, 2013), despite being costly in terms of both human and monetary capital (Peña, 2013; Reaves, 2012; Wilson & Sheer, 2013). What literature is available describes factors such as job dissatisfaction and monetary issues as reasons to leave an agency (Cyprian, 2009; Hubbard, 2008; McIntyre, 1990). A new phenomenon, known as the “Ferguson Effect” has been examined in terms of community involvement (Nix & Wolfe, 2016; Wolfe & Nix, 2016) and violent crime rates (Rosenfeld, 2015), but there is no research that looks at the Ferguson Effect’s relationship to law enforcement officer turnover.

This non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive design study adds to the body of knowledge for law enforcement turnover and includes four research objectives. Findings of the study include five Ferguson Effect variables that were directly related to law enforcement officer motivation and proactive work efforts were significant. Turnover intentions among respondents did not rise to a level that would indicate an overall desire to leave their agency. There was a weak relationship between the Ferguson Effect and turnover intentions with the population studied. Additional research should be conducted using a population

of less senior law enforcement officers, particularly line officers, to determine if different turnover intentions exist.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people made this journey possible, with my committee chair Dr. Cyndi Gaudet leading the way. Without Dr. Gaudet's patience and gentle prodding (along with occasional grouching over LSU or Saints games), I would not be finishing a goal I originally set for myself in 1995. My other committee members are no less appreciated. Dr. Heather Annulis was always smiling and always encouraging. Dr. Dale Lunsford's easy going approach to statistics calmed my fears and made it fun to do analysis in SPSS. While I never had a class with Dr. Quincy Brown, his advice on APA style and paper formatting was enlightening and timely. Dr. Patti Phillips was a wealth of information, from mixed methods research, to the mechanics of ROI, survey design, and beyond.

I would also like to thank Suzy Robinson and Robin Johnson who kept the in-persons flowing and helped me get back on track when I made a procedural error or panicked about something I should or should not have done. Suzy and Robin are true professionals who steadfastly assure the job gets done.

The assistance of the FBI National Academy Association in facilitating the distribution of the survey cannot be overstated. Thanks to Executive Director Steve Tidwell and Laura Masterton, the ability to cast a wide net for participants gave the study nationwide exposure.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family, without whose support I would have never finished. My wife Liz has put up with the “eternal student” for all the years we spent together. My beautiful children, Sharon and Stephanie, have heard my rants about homework and papers more times than they care to recount. And my parents, Bill, Sr. and Phyllis, who can’t be here to see this day, but I am sure are smiling down on their only child.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<i>ATS</i>	Anticipated Turnover Scale
<i>FBI</i>	Federal Bureau of Investigation
<i>FBINA</i>	FBI National Academy
<i>FBINAA</i>	FBI National Academy Associates
<i>FES</i>	Ferguson Effect Scale
<i>UCR</i>	Uniform Crime Reports

CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

Police administrators are rightly concerned with the cost of employing personnel, but understanding the problem with turnover is anecdotal at best because of a lack of empirical data on turnover in law enforcement agencies (Wareham et al., 2013). The area of job turnover generally is explored quite extensively (Dychtwald, Erickson, & Morison, 2006; Kennedy & Berger 1994; Krackhardt, McKenna, Porter, & Steers, 1981; Phillips & Phillips 2010; Wanous, Stumpf, & Bedrosian, 1979), but not much empirical literature describes law enforcement turnover (Monk-Turner et al. 2010). There is literature that suggests turnover with law enforcement officers can be linked to demographic characteristics, as some demographic cohorts have an increased likelihood of early voluntary termination (Kennedy & Berger, 1994; Number of jobs held, 2012, Wanous, Stumpf, & Bedrosian, 1979).

Recent national events brought into focus many of the struggles law enforcement officers face in carrying out their jobs, and the public reaction when an officer must use force, especially deadly force (Geranios, 2015; Lieb & Salter, 2014; Linderman, 2015; Silverstein, 2015; Warren, 2015). During a news conference to discuss ongoing civil unrest in the wake of an officer-involved shooting (OIS) in Ferguson, MO, St. Louis Police Chief Sam Dotson coined the term Ferguson Effect to describe increases in violent crimes and fewer arrests (Byers, 2014). Wolfe and Nix (2016) further defined the Ferguson Effect by saying

the hypothesis suggests that officers are conscious of the negative publicity surrounding their profession, understand that their actions could be recorded by the public at any given time, and become less willing to do their job as a way to avoid being accused of racial profiling or excessive force (p.1).

Byers (2014) also notes the explanation offered by Chief Dotson includes a feeling of empowerment by the criminal element, emboldening them to commit crimes as a lack of confidence in police legitimacy took hold.

Negative news coverage on officer involved use of force incidents has been almost non-stop since the Ferguson incident, and social media presents a point of view that challenges the very legitimacy of law enforcement (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Wolfe and Nix (2016) believe this atmosphere of distrust makes it more difficult for police officers to be motivated in their chosen profession, and this may manifest itself in de-policing, leading to increases in crime. This expression of discontent would certainly have “important public safety consequences” (p. 2).

The act of de-policing runs counter to decades of proactive police work, first touted by Wilson and Kelling (1982) in their landmark article on the Broken Windows theory. Wilson and Kelling viewed increased police-citizen contacts as crucial to maintain order and provide law enforcement in high crime areas. In a later examination on the efficacy of using such proactive police tactics, Kelling & Sousa (2001) found that, “Broken windows policing is significantly and consistently linked to declines in violent crime” (p. 1).

Compounding the difficulties of just doing the job is the threat of directed, unprovoked attacks, including ambushes and sniping (Griffith, 2014; Merchant, 2015; Rubinkam, 2014). The officer who killed Michael Brown in Ferguson, MO (Darren Wilson), sparking vast civil unrest, was forced to resign following credible threats of bodily harm ("Darren Wilson Resigned," 2014). Wilson was ultimately cleared of any wrongdoing or civil rights violations, including an extensive criminal investigation by the U.S. Department of Justice (U.S. Department of Justice [DOJ], 2015). The confidence held in police officers is at its lowest point since 1993 (the year of the Rodney King incident in Los Angeles), according to a recent Gallup poll (Jones, 2015). Jones notes the actions of police officers in certain cities, including Ferguson, MO, came under scrutiny by the media and the public. Jones believes these events contributed to the decline in confidence of police officers, but that overall trust has not been fundamentally shaken. What effect, if any, the aforementioned factors have on turnover and retention of law enforcement officers is unknown; the intent of this research paper is to examine turnover intentions through the lens of current negative publicity toward police.

In a November 2016 opinion piece, Chief Kenneth Berkowitz of the Canton, OH Police Department makes two salient points: targeted assassinations of uniformed police officers is fairly common in places like the Middle East, but almost unheard of in the United States (until now; Berkowitz, 2016). According to Berkowitz (2016), for the first time ever, police officers are being killed by gunfire more often than in automobile crashes. Berkowitz goes on to say It also appears the attackers come from many different ideologies,

including sovereign citizens, Black activists, anti-abortion activists, and international terrorists.

Statement of the Problem

Increased turnover increases costs, and organizations need to understand the reasons for turnover in order to find solutions. Turnover with law enforcement officers is costly and results in a loss of experience and institutional knowledge (McIntyre, 1990; McKeever & Kranda, 2004; Mobley, 1982). As Wilson and Scheer (2013) note, “it is far more costly and time-consuming to recruit an officer than to retain one” (p. 1). Peña (2013) says the loss of employees in highly technical fields is especially harmful to organizations, as these employees are not easily replaced. Wareham et al. (2013) agree that hiring or replacing officers is costly and time consuming. There is a paucity of data with regard to turnover in law enforcement agencies, and scholars recognize additional research can advance criminal justice theory and practice (Clear & Frost, 2007; Maguire & King, 2004; Walker, 2006).

Unwanted turnover costs law enforcement agencies approximately \$1.9 billion in 2008 (Reaves, 2012). Turnover in one mid-size law enforcement agency with an \$18 million annual budget costs the agency approximately \$1 million annually (L. Papania, personal communication, August 13, 2013). Turnover is costly, not just in monetary terms, but in a loss of institutional knowledge and acquired skills and abilities. What is known is that turnover in the public sector is approximately one-third the rate of turnover in private industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2014). A lack of job satisfaction is consistently

shown as a primary reason for voluntary turnover, (Carlan, 2007; Friedrich, 2001; Monk-Turner et al., 2010; Nolan & Harper, 2007), but no rigorous studies have shown that turnover experienced by law enforcement agencies is abnormal compared to that of other employees in the public sector. Bright (2008) compared motivation in public service organizations to turnover and found when personal values and organizational values are aligned, lower turnover rates emerge. To date, no studies have determined if the Ferguson Effect influences perceived turnover intentions of law enforcement officers. Without understanding if there is a relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement officer turnover, agencies risk a less efficient and costlier workforce. An understanding of the Ferguson Effect will provide additional tools to address turnover concerns.

The effectiveness of an organization is related to how supervisors and managers organize staff and manage human capital, but this is not always recognized by law enforcement executives (Lawler, 2014). Detrimental effects of a lack of personnel planning are exacerbated today in the midst of a fluctuating economy, increasing attrition, a decreasing pool of qualified candidates, falling resources, and expanding officer responsibilities (Wilson, Dalton, Scheer, & Grammich, 2010; Wilson & Grammich, 2009; Wilson, Rostker, & Fan, 2010). However, as Wilson and Heinonen (2011) point out, police administrators seldom have the time, resources, or expertise to assess their personnel situation and develop evidence-based staffing lessons. Likewise, research on relevant practices is scant. Therefore, the need today for data and analysis to help police agencies understand and respond to staffing challenges may be greater than

ever (p. 278). This lack of empirical information underscores the need to examine factors that lead to turnover in order to mitigate the loss of skilled law enforcement officers.

Many reasons for turnover are explored in the extant literature, but the literature is silent when it comes to a recent phenomenon involving negative publicity and the dialogue over police use of force (Ferguson Effect). It is unknown if contemporary publicity critical to law enforcement use of force influences turnover intentions, but a lack of social support has been shown to be a predictor of employee turnover (Barak, Nissly, & Levin, 2001). Wolfe and Nix (2016) sought to determine if the Ferguson effect was associated with de-policing and an officer's willingness to engage in community partnerships. According to Wolfe and Nix (2016), "The Ferguson Effect proposes a testable research hypothesis – negative publicity surrounding law enforcement is associated with officers being less willing to perform their everyday duties (p. 3). Wolfe and Nix (2016) identify a need to operationalize the Ferguson Effect through survey research that determines the degree to which officers feel recent negative publicity has harmed their motivation" (p.3).

While the Ferguson Effect has thus far been suggested in the examination of crime rates, there is no empirical evidence to support a cause and effect (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Pyrooz, Decker, Wolfe, & Shjarback (2016) note discussions on the Ferguson Effect are "long on anecdotes and short on data" (p. 2). According to Wolfe and Nix (2016), there is dialogue with citizens on the Ferguson event, but little discussion of the effect the phenomenon has on police

officers. It is unknown if there is a relationship between this phenomenon and law enforcement turnover. Without a clear understanding of the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and turnover, law enforcement agencies risk increased costs and talent shortage to be able to provide adequate public safety.

Purpose of the Study

This study explores the relationship between anti-police publicity and turnover intent as perceived by law enforcement officers. The research will assist law enforcement organizations with understanding if publicity critical to law enforcement activities can lead to a loss of employees through unintended turnover. An exploration of this aspect of policing will give law enforcement administrators another tool to understand why officers leave and assist in mitigating unwanted turnover.

Significance of the Study

The results of this study add to the body of knowledge on law enforcement officer turnover by examining the effect negative publicity and perceived or real threats of bodily harm have on continued employment. The paucity of turnover research in the law enforcement community presents a challenge to law enforcement executives who must find ways to spend tax dollars wisely while maintaining a skilled workforce. An increased understanding of turnover can help administrators retain needed employees and reduce turnover costs.

Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study include the following:

RO1 – Identify the demographics of the participants by age, gender, race/ethnicity, rank, education level, years on active duty, type of current agency (city/municipal, county/parish, state, federal), and number of sworn officers in current agency.

RO2 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime.

RO3 – Determine turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

RO4 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study illustrates four research objectives: demographics of the respondents; perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer proactive policing; perceived turnover intentions among respondents; and perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. Four theories support the conceptual framework of the study: Becker's Human Capital Theory, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, Maslow's Human Motivation Theory, and Vroom's Expectancy Theory. All four theories combine to support the conceptual framework.

Human capital adds value to an organization, with each individual bringing their own unique experiences and knowledge to the workplace (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002). In the criminal justice system, human capital relates directly to service delivery (*Ready, Willing, and Able*, 2008). According to Becker's human

capital theory (1962, 1993; Becker & Murphy, 1992) human labor (capital) is necessary to carry out specific job-related tasks; these tasks are best performed by individuals who have the necessary education, skills, and training to meet an organization's needs, resulting in the individual's "improvement in earnings and occupation" (Becker, 1993, p. 392). In preparing law enforcement officers for the workplace, agencies invest significant amounts of money for initial and in-service training. Losing significant numbers of trained individuals not only is costly, but also negatively impacts an organization's ability to carry out its mission (Becker, 1962). When trained employees leave an organization, the organization's return on investment (R.O.I.) in those employees is eliminated. In discussing the loss of R.O.I., Becker (1962), says, "Included in cost are a value placed on the time and effort of trainees, the teaching provided by others, and equipment and material used. These are costs in the sense that they could have been used in producing current output" (p. 11).

Bae and Patterson (2014) support Becker's theory, and note that, when employees are equipped with even basic skills, it is easy for workers to leave one job and find another. Turnover becomes a factor when the monies spent to replace an employee might be better spent by providing additional training. Bae and Patterson believe that an understanding of human capital theory helps human resource professionals understand how a skilled work force is related to turnover and retention and how employers stand to gain by investing in their employees.

Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly, and Maltarich, (2014) broaden the description of human capital by separating knowledge skills into two sets, one set that encompasses general knowledge, and one set that is used for economic gain. Ployhart et al. (2014) believe that human capital theory was never intended to reflect innate knowledge and skills, but rather those skills attained through additional education. While different combinations of skills may be present, managers should be aware of combined skills sets to identify the human capital assets they have and which assets their competitors have.

Even though salary has often been cited as a reason for job change among police officers (Cyprian, 2009; Hubbard, 2008), people seldom enter the law enforcement profession for the money. Bright (2008) found that some individuals are drawn to the public service so they may contribute to the greater public good. A survey of New York City Police Recruits found that salary as a motivating factor for becoming a police officer was tied for last among all factors examined (Raganella & White, 2004). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) see job satisfaction as dichotomous, falling into categories of either satisfiers or dissatisfiers. As Monk-Turner et al. (2010) found, people who become law enforcement officers do so out of a desire to help others, and their job motivation falls heavily on the side of Herzberg's satisfier values. Udechukwu (2009) notes that managers almost always believe pay increases will reduce turnover, to the exclusion of less expensive satisfiers that promote individual achievement.

Maslow's (1943) human motivation theory postulates that safety and security needs are among the most basic needs, with only physiological needs coming before safety. More recent research that identifies five levels of workforce needs ranks safety and security as first on the levels of needs (Stum, 2001). Taormina and Gao (2013) say the satisfaction of lower-level needs makes it possible to move on to higher level needs. With respect to safety and security, Taormina and Gao describe what Maslow says are threats to safety, including "both concrete and abstract things, such as wild animals, criminal assault, disease, war, anarchy, social chaos, natural catastrophes, and, in more peaceful times, the lack of such things as job security, financial security, medical insurance, and retirement security" (p.157).

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory indicates employees expect something in return for their efforts, and that motivation consists of four main concepts: force, valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. Force drives an individual to perform in a certain way; valence is a reward for behavior; expectancy is the belief the intended outcome leads to a particular outcome; and instrumentality is the belief the intended outcome leads to a particular reward (Smith, 2009). In applying expectancy theory to police behavior, Mastrofski, Ritti, and Snipes (1994), examined police officer DUI arrest productivity. Their research shows that the greatest number of arrests occurred when all four concepts were present. Johnson's 2010 research supports this finding when examining domestic violence arrests; all four constructs result in a greater number of

arrests. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework depicting the research objectives of this study.

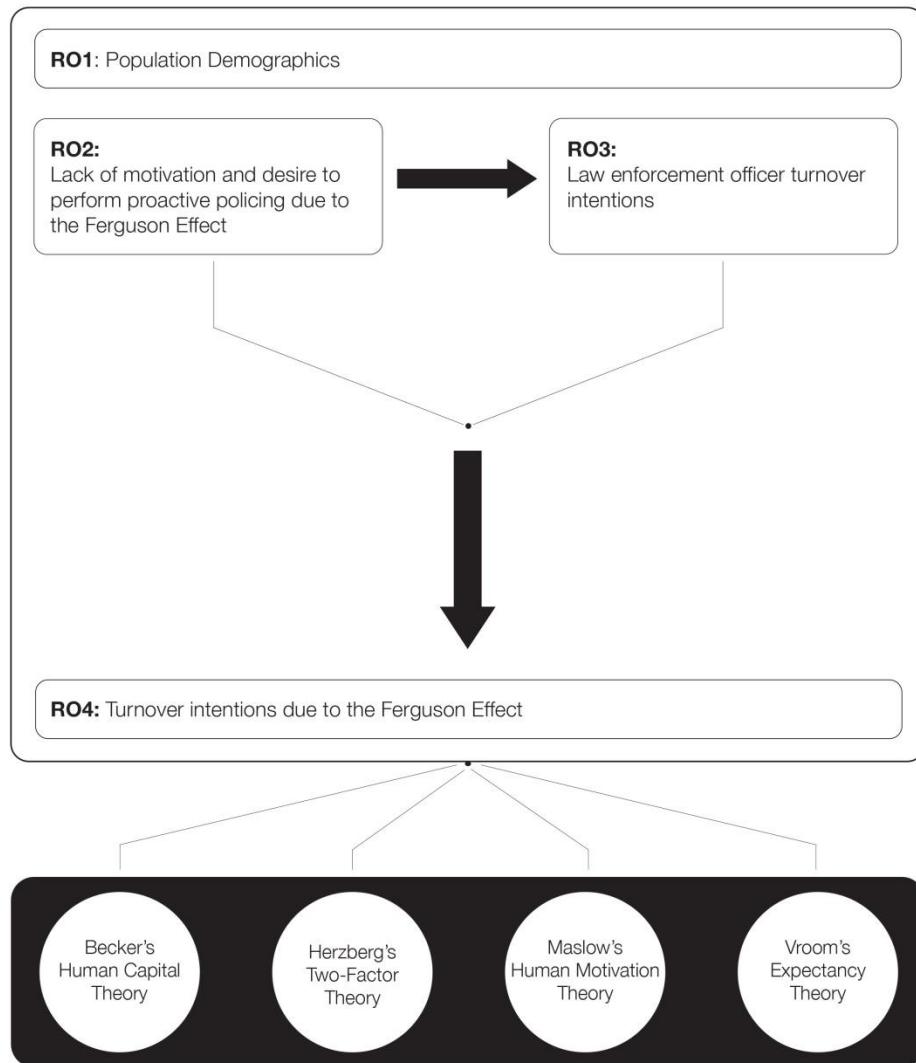


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Definition of Terms

The following definitions provide uniformity and understanding of terms throughout the study:

1. *Law Enforcement Officer* – “any person appointed or employed full time by the state or any political subdivision thereof, or by the state military

department as provided in [§33-1-33](#), who is duly sworn and vested with authority to bear arms and make arrests, and whose primary responsibility is the prevention and detection of crime, the apprehension of criminals and the enforcement of the criminal and traffic laws of this state and/or the ordinances of any political subdivision thereof. The term law enforcement officer also includes employees of the Department of Corrections who are designated as law enforcement officers by the Commissioner of Corrections pursuant to [§47-5-54](#). However, the term law enforcement officer shall not mean or include any elected official or any person employed as an assistant to or investigator for a district attorney in this state, compliance agents of the State Board of Pharmacy, or any person or elected official who, subject to approval by the board, provides some criminal justice related services for a law enforcement agency” (Law Enforcement Officers Training Program, 2017, p. 1).

2. *Employee Turnover* – “the rate at which employees enter and leave a company in a given fiscal year” (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2011, p. 1).
3. *Voluntary Turnover* – the employee chooses to leave the job, not at the behest of the employer (Lambert & Hogan, 2009).
4. *Turnover Intent* – thinking of leaving a job, planning on leaving a job, or expressing a desire to leave the job (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979).

5. *Ferguson Effect* – a term coined by St. Louis Police Chief Sam Dotson to describe falling criminal arrests in the face of rising crime rates. Chief Dotson attributed this phenomenon to civil disobedience coupled with direct threats to police officers following an officer involved shooting in Ferguson, MO (Byers, 2014).
6. *De-policing* – police officers, being conscious of the negative publicity surrounding their profession, understand that their actions could be recorded by the public at any time, and become less willing to do their job as a way to avoid being accused of racial profiling or excessive force (Wolfe & Nix, 2015).

Delimitations of the Study

Delimitations are the boundaries of a study and are under the control of the researcher (Roberts, 2010). This study uses graduates of the FBI National Academy, who are all law enforcement supervisors at varying levels of experience and rank. Participation is limited to those respondents who have Internet access, are current members of the FBI National Academy Associates (FBINAA), and are actively working in law enforcement in the United States. Membership in the FBINAA is limited to officers who have successfully completed the FBI National Academy course of study.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of a study are things that are outside the researcher's control. According to Roberts (2010,), "Limitations in research are items that may negatively affect the results of a study or the ability to generalize" (p. 162). The

population for this study is sworn law enforcement officers who agree to participate and the cooperation of the FBINAA in facilitating the distribution of the survey instrument. The results may or may not be representative of law enforcement officers in agencies other than those surveyed. As the population consists of veteran law enforcement officers, respondents may be nearing retirement age, which could be reflected in survey choices regarding turnover intent. Self-report bias is a known limitation in survey research as respondents may not respond truthfully (Hagan, 2010a). The study is also limited because it presents information on a subject that has not been given much attention from the scientific community; there are likely knowledge gaps that present opportunities for follow-up research.

Summary

Chapter I includes a background on the issue of turnover in law enforcement organizations, with a description of the deleterious monetary effects of employee turnover as well as the loss of institutional knowledge. A lack of empirical research with regard to law enforcement turnover is discussed, along with the need to increase knowledge in this field to provide law enforcement executives with information needed to address the turnover issue in their organizations. The phenomenon known as the Ferguson Effect is discussed, and how this phenomenon needs examination to determine if its presence contributes to turnover with law enforcement officers.

CHAPTER II – REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Chapter I includes discussion of the turnover problem with law enforcement agencies, identifying the detrimental effects turnover has on organizations from both a monetary standpoint and a human capital standpoint. Noted in the chapter is a lack of turnover research focusing on law enforcement agencies, and the need for additional research in this field. The chapter also provides a discussion on the phenomenon known as the Ferguson Effect, and its possible role in law enforcement officer turnover.

The literature review includes an overview of national staffing figures for public sector agencies generally, followed by law enforcement agencies specifically. A theoretical framework of turnover motivation and a discussion of the human capital theories that support this research are discussed. Additionally, the review includes a description of the monetary and human capital costs of turnover. Finally, a review of available literature explains the Ferguson Effect and its implications for law enforcement employment.

National Public Employee Staffing

Public sector employees are those who work for some sort of government agency, at the local, state, or federal level (Lewis, 2014). Within the vast expanse of the public sector are law enforcement officers, whose role in the protection of life and property speaks to safety, one of the most basic of human needs (Maslow, 1943). This service comes at a high cost; the majority of any city or county budget is devoted to public safety, making proper selection and

retention of personnel critical steps in the functioning of public safety organizations. Nationwide, paid or career law enforcement officers outnumber paid or career firefighters two to one (670,439 to 302,847), (<http://tinyurl.com/peh7shc>, <http://apps.usfa.fema.gov/census/summary.cfm>), making law enforcement the single costliest item in a local government's budget. The most recent U.S. Census data shows there are 21,897,000 people employed at some level of a local, state, or federal government agency (www.census.gov, 2014). While data indicates public employee turnover is significantly less than that of the private sector (SHRM, 2011), turnover is responsible for declining productivity and sagging morale across all sectors of employment (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000).

National Law Enforcement Staffing

According to the latest census data from the U.S. Department of Justice, the United States has approximately 17,985 state and local law enforcement agencies (Reaves, 2011). Within these agencies are approximately 1,133,000 employees, 765,000 of which are sworn officers (persons who are usually armed and have powers of arrest). Hiring practices, structure, management, and salaries and benefits vary widely among agencies. In 2008, almost half the law enforcement agencies in the United States employed fewer than 10 sworn officers, but 64% of all sworn officers work for agencies that employ 100 officers or more (Reaves, 2011).

During the last Department of Justice survey period that examined hiring and retention of state and local law enforcement officers for 2008, Reaves (2012) found that 7% of all state and local officers left their agency during the year. Additionally, small agencies, those with 10 or fewer officers, saw a greater loss of officers (20%), than agencies that employ 500 or more officers (5%). Of all officers who left agencies in 2008, (approximately 55,500), 54% resigned, 23% retired, 10% were dismissed, 5% were terminated while in probationary status, and 5% left due to medical or disability retirements. Agencies with fewer than 10 officers had the most losses from resignations (71%), compared to agencies with 500 or more officers (37%; Reaves, 2012).

The issues of retention and turnover in public safety organizations are especially difficult to cope with due to the complexities of hiring new employees. The organizational and job-specific knowledge that public safety employees must have means that turnover creates the potential to impair organizational functions (Lynch & Tuckey, 2008). This fact is also borne out in other industries, including nursing and teaching (Allen, 2008; Meier & Hicklin, 2008).

Private industry and even general public service employees are not subjected to the long and tedious hiring processes of public safety organizations that often consist of written examinations, physical examinations, physical agility tests, psychological evaluations, oral review boards, polygraph examinations, drug screenings, extensive background investigations, and sometimes credit checks ("The Hiring Process," n.d.). A Bureau of Justice statistics report lists 15

different screening methods agencies use to evaluate candidates, but not all agencies use each method (Reaves & Hickman, 2004). In June 2013, the Gulfport, Mississippi Police Department selected 60 applicants for screening that included a written examination, physical fitness test, physical agility test, psychological evaluation, polygraph, and oral interview. The first step that a candidate must take is to sit for the written examination, otherwise they are no longer considered. In the instance related by Officer Podlin, not all 60 selectees reported for the written examination. Of the 60 who did take the written examination, three successfully completed all phases of the screening process and were approved for hiring (P. Podlin, personal communication, July 17, 2013). According to Podlin, his agency usually hires only about 10% of all applicants. Despite the low number of successful completers, the police department spent several thousands of dollars in staff salaries, examination supplies, and medical and psychological screening. Post-hire expenses include a training period, up to a year, that involves the successful completion of a basic law enforcement training academy, and a period of training known as field training, in which a new officer is paired with a certified field training officer who serves as a mentor and facilitates on-the-job training (Pitts & Glensor, 2007).

Similar numbers are seen with other agencies, such as in a 2015 analysis by the New Orleans Police Department that found of 674 applicants who took the multiple-choice screening exam to become police officers during the year, only 82 made it through all screening processes and were admitted to the police

academy ("Hiring Process Reforms New Orleans Police Department," 2015). In Phoenix, Arizona, 775 applicants took the written police department entry exam during July, August, and September 2015, then progressed through the physical agility, background, polygraph, medical, psychological and drug test; only 69 individuals made it through all processes and were admitted to the police academy (Rossi, 2015).

Frequent turnover and an inability to retain good workers can adversely impact a law enforcement organization in many ways. Liability insurance, which is critical to the operation of a law enforcement organization, can become quite expensive if the insurance carriers see a high turnover to retention ratio. (S. Blackwell, personal communication, June 13, 2013). While exact figures are proprietary information, the insurance industry's general belief is if there is a high turnover number, the agency has issues with management, morale, training, salary scales, and several other areas that cause employees to seek employment elsewhere (S. Blackwell, personal communication, June 13, 2013).

Furthermore, "Community safety can be compromised when substantial experience and training is lost through staff turnover and vacancy" (McKeever & Kranda, 2004, p. 289). There are also hidden costs that must be factored into turnover, such as higher citizen complaints with inexperienced officers, overtime that must be paid when sufficient numbers of experienced officers are not available to work regular shifts, and the number of automobile crashes that seem to plague new officers (McKeever & Kranda, 2004). The loss of experience has

a direct impact on an agency's organizational goals. With a loss of experienced officers and their collective knowledge, organizational effectiveness is diminished (McIntyre, 1990). In Figure 2, Mobley (1982) illustrates possible negative and positive outcomes of employee turnover that occur within organizations, and with individuals, both those who stay and those who leave (p. 113):

<i>Organization</i>	<i>Individual (Leavers)</i>	<i>Individual (Stayers)</i>
<p>Possible Negative Consequences</p> <p>Costs (recruiting, hiring, assimilation, training) Replacement costs Out-processing costs Disruption of social and communication structures Productivity loss (during replacement search and retraining) Loss of high performers Decreased satisfaction among stayers Stimulate "undifferentiated" turnover control strategies Negative PR from leavers</p> <p>Possible Positive Consequences</p> <p>Displacement of poor performers Infusion of new knowledge/technology via replacements Stimulate changes in policy and practice Increased internal mobility opportunities Increased structural</p>	<p>Possible Negative Consequences</p> <p>Loss of seniority and related prerequisites Loss of nonvested benefits Disruption of family and social support systems "Grass is greener" phenomenon and subsequent disillusionment Inflation related costs (e.g., mortgage cost) Transition related stress Disruption of spouse's career path Career path regression</p> <p>Possible Positive Consequences</p> <p>Increased earnings Career advancement Better "person-organization fit," thus (for example) less stress, better use of skills, interests Renewed stimulation in new environment Attainment of nonwork</p>	<p>Possible Negative Consequences</p> <p>Disruption of social and communication patterns Loss of functionally valued coworkers Decreased satisfaction Increased work load during and immediately after search for replacement Decreased cohesion Decreased commitment</p> <p>Possible Positive Consequences</p> <p>Increased internal mobility opportunity Stimulation, cross-fertilization from new co-workers Increased satisfaction Increased cohesion Increased commitment</p>

flexibility Increased satisfaction among stayers Decrease in other "withdrawal" behaviors Opportunities for cost reduction, consolidation	values Enhanced self-efficacy perceptions Self-development	
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Figure 2. Possible positive and negative outcomes of employee turnover

(Mobley, 1982, p. 113).

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Human Capital Theory

Organizations that invest in people (or human capital) look to influence their future successes (Becker, 1962). These investments include the various costs involved with hiring and training employees, along with employee benefits offered by individual organizations. In this early work, Becker (1962) raised a red flag by saying turnover “is almost always ignored in traditional theory” (p. 19). Becker’s warning is borne out in examples cited later in this chapter.

In the criminal justice system, human capital is important because it relates directly to service delivery (*Ready, Willing, & Able*, 2008). Human capital adds value to an organization as individuals are unique, with each bringing collective knowledge and experiences to the workplace; an individual who works for an organization deprives a competitor of these assets (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002). A loss of this knowledgeable human capital creates a knowledge deficit with the first employer, giving competitors access to intellectual capital from an internal perspective (Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002). Becker (1962) recognizes this

loss of human capital can negate whatever investment an organization expended, including education and training. In addition, competitors gain useful, skilled talent without an additional investment.

Organizations that exist in highly competitive markets are faced with the ongoing issue of job hopping due to inequities in working conditions and benefits (Becker, 1962). Becker purports firms could do even better, however, by recognizing that the likelihood of a quit is not fixed but depends on wages. Instead of merely recouping on successes what is lost on failures, they might reduce the likelihood of failure itself by offering higher wages after training than could be received elsewhere (p. 20). When Becker's belief is examined in the context of Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), wages would appear to be a sufficient dissatisfier to leave one job for another that offers more.

Hertzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg and his associates Mausner and Synderman interviewed a number of accountants and engineers, concluding that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are dichotomous, with job satisfaction being concerned with intrinsic variables and job dissatisfaction being concerned with extrinsic variables (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg's (1959) dichotomous theory of hygiene and motivation factors describes hygiene factors as what makes people happy in their work, and are not motivators in and of themselves, but without them, people are not happy. The motivation factors are needed to move employees to perform better (Hertzberg, 1959).

Hertzberg's theory seems to be very much aligned with the motivations for why people seek employment as police officers. Generally speaking, people who become police officers do so out of a sense of altruism, or wanting to help others (Monk-Turner et al., 2010). The work itself can be seen as challenging, or interesting, and there is some ability to make independent decisions on matters of great importance (Monk-Turner et al., 2010).

In contrast, Herzberg's hygiene factors are sometimes taken for motivators, particularly with respect to salaries. Becker (1962) theorizes increasing salaries would lead to increased retention, and Cyprian (2009) found low salaries to be the primary reason for officers to leave one agency to join another with higher wages. In their examination of Herzberg's theory in relation to police turnover, Monk-Turner et al. (2010) identify only one factor as a major source of job dissatisfaction, "readiness and infrastructure concerns" (p. 176).

Maslow's Human Motivation Theory

Maslow (1943) put forth a hierarchal model of human motivation that says people are motivated to achieve certain needs, and once a need is met, people seek to achieve the next need in the hierarchy. Maslow identifies five levels of needs in his hierarchy of human needs, with safety being at the second level. Maslow's theory describes safety as one of the most basic of human needs, and can even be seen in infants who exhibit a reaction to perceived threats. Maslow (1943) believes human beings have the capability and desire to move up the

hierarchy, reaching to the top level in what he terms self-actualization, the desire for self-fulfillment.

Maslow's theory is also supported by recent research, including that of Aon Consulting's Performance Pyramid, which presents five levels of workforce needs, ranking safety/security first (Stum, 2001). In explaining the levels of the Performance Pyramid, Stum (2001) notes, "The employee first and foremost must feel physically and psychologically safe in the work environment for commitment to be possible" (p. 6). In his master's thesis, Tierney (1985) notes the need for safety has been identified since at least the time of Freud. Tierney says Freud put the need for a safe environment into the context of generating anxiety when an individual is faced with an unmanageable attack. In the context of law enforcement employment, safety is a top concern, given the myriad threats to safety found in the job (Stephens & Matarese, 2013).

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory is based on four assumptions: people join organizations with certain expectations and motivations; this decision is a conscious choice; individuals may want different things from the organization; and individuals seek opportunities that are best for them personally (Vroom, 1964). Employees will perform tasks "if they are expected to do so, have the ability to do so, the opportunity to do so, and believe that their efforts will be rewarded" (Johnson, 2009, p. 274). Lunenburg (2011) identifies three key elements of expectancy theory:

- *Valence* – refers to emotional orientations which people hold with respect to outcomes (rewards) – the value the person attaches to first and second order outcomes
- *Expectancy* – refers to employees' different expectations and levels of confidence about what they are capable of doing – the belief that effort will lead to first order outcomes
- *Instrumentality* – refers to the perception of employees whether they will actually receive what they desire, even if it has been promised by a manager – the perceived link between first order and second order outcomes

These three factors interact together to create a motivational force for an employee to work toward pleasure and avoid pain. The formula for this force is as follows: Valence of outcome x Expectancy act will be result in outcome (Instrumentality) = Motivation Force (Lunenburg, 2011).

The motivation factors are reflected in a recent study by Cox (2011), who found that people seek out jobs in law enforcement out of a sense of duty to contribute to the greater good and help people. Cox found job satisfaction high among his sample subjects, and most did not become police officers for economic reasons. What did concern Cox's respondents was the issue of job security, as officers serve under conditions that can be construed as hostile or threatening to job security.

The Monetary Cost of Turnover

Cost is often cited as a reason to examine retention and turnover of employees (Allen, 2008; Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Barnes, Crowe, & Schaefer, 2007; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Hunt, 2009). Orrick (2002) identifies specific steps and associated costs that impact law enforcement agencies, using his own agency of Cordele, Georgia as an example. Orrick describes the steps and associated costs involved when an officer separates from his agency and a new officer has to be hired in their place:

1. Separation Costs – salary, benefits, administrative costs, selection, training invested
2. Recruitment Costs – advertising, costs and expenses of recruiters, bonuses for attracting recruits
3. Selection Costs – selection tests, review board salaries, background investigations, and various screen procedures such as medical and psychological examinations
4. New Employee Costs – salaries and expenditures to complete employment process, cost of uniforms and equipment
5. Training Costs – orientation and field training, supervision salaries, recruits' salary, in-service training beyond basic training, travel and per diem for advanced or specialized training classes
6. Other "Soft" Costs – overtime to cover vacancies, loss of productivity from departing employee, loss of job knowledge and experience

Monetizing the steps involved in losing and then replacing an officer, Orrick (2002) estimates the first five constructs would cost his agency \$58,900. Extrapolated to 2015 dollars, the amount would be \$77,704.78 (<http://www.usinflationcalculator.com/>). Orrick's costs are not unlike those found by Elkeles & Phillips (2007), who say the cost of turnover is often underestimated. Additionally, officer hiring and processing costs are not routinely disseminated throughout an organization, often leaving management without sufficient information about the true cost of turnover, along with a lack of understanding of the types of costs involved, both direct and indirect. Elkeles and Phillips (2007), describe their costs as:

- Attraction/Recruitment Costs
- Selection Costs
- Pre-employment Training
- Employment Costs
- Orientation/Socialization
- Initial Training Costs
- On-the-Job Learning Costs
- Production Loss
- Quality Problems
- Operation Problems
- Customer Dissatisfaction
- Loss of Knowledge

- Management Time

Not knowing how much turnover costs an organization can have a deleterious effect on an organization as a whole. Turnover leads to increased costs and a loss of intellectual capital. Phillips' (2005) discussion on a store chain that sold household products, personal items, and gifts, gives a stark example of what happens when an organization fails to invest sufficiently in human capital and fails to recognize what employee turnover is costing an organization; in his study, turnover exceeded "100% for full-time, permanent employees" (p. 31).

The company lost money for several years, leading to a change in executive leadership, along with a concomitant change in the business model, focusing more on customer service. Acknowledging an issue with turnover, the company also attempted to identify the annual cost of turnover, believing the cost of turnover to be between \$10 - \$12 million annually. Unfortunately, a study commissioned by the company found turnover was actually costing \$180 million, contributing heavily to the company's demise, as the company went bankrupt before it could change its business model (Phillips, 2005). Phillips reiterates:

Organizations investing only the minimum amount in human capital usually do not understand the true cost of turnover. They see the direct cost of recruiting, selection, and initial training, but do not take the time to understand the other impacts. Both the direct and indirect cost of turnover must be taken into consideration (pp. 33-34).

Turnover to the extent seen in this study with a law enforcement agency would have a tremendous negative impact on an agency's ability to provide public safety and steps must be taken to prevent such scenarios.

Turnover's Effect on Human Capital

Compounding the issues of turnover and retention with police agencies is the changing face of what law enforcement is becoming; officers are no longer expected to produce results through the use of brawn, but must use their brains as well. Police work is evolving into a knowledge-based profession, with officers being tasked with solving a host of social-service issues requiring a broad base of knowledge (Dupont, 2003). Officers today are expected to manage a wide variety of circumstances that developed over time, as law enforcement agencies are usually the only social service open 24 hours a day, seven days a week, and 365 days a year, and they provide curb service. Today's officers must be "counselors, referees, teachers, problem-solvers; they need to know the ever-changing laws and must possess the foresight to see the consequences of their decisions" (Nolan & Harper, 2007, p. 5).

Along with the need for officers who are more problem-solvers than law enforcers is the realization the applicant pool of qualified candidates is shrinking. Raymond, Hickman, Miller, & Wong (2005) note that the general population has issues with regard to illegal drug use, criminal records, and unstable credit, all of which are heavily scrutinized for police applicants. Raymond et al. (2005) use specific statistics to support their claims, including research by Johnston,

O'Malley, Bachman, and Schulenberg (2008) that indicate that almost half of 12th- graders had smoked marijuana, and 25% had used an illicit drug other than marijuana. Additional research from Sturm, Ringel, et al. (2007) that shows that the obesity rate for adolescents has more than doubled over the past three decades.

The increasing need for knowledgeable workers in law enforcement sees another challenge with a decrease in college completion rates, coupled with an increase in the time it takes to earn a college degree (Bound, Lovenheim, & Turner, 2007). While college-educated officers at the local level are still relatively rare, (Reaves, 2010), research shows that a college education for officers has a positive impact on job performance (Truxillo, Bennett, & Collins, 1998). In a 1997 study, Smith and Aamodt (1997) found

significant correlations between education and most measures of performance. Importantly, results show a significant correlation of .24 between overall performance and education. The only variables not proving to be significantly related to education were objective measures of the volume of arrests, number of times the officer required discipline, and number of accidents (p. 11).

Additionally, Manis, Archbold, and Hassell (2008) found a statistically significant difference in officers without four-year college degrees who generated more formal complaints when compared to officers with degrees. In looking at college education and use of force specifically, Rydberg & Terrill (2010) found

that officers with some college or four-year college degrees were “significantly less likely to use force relative to non-college-educated officers” (p. 110).

Given that hiring qualified candidates for police service is a difficult and tedious process, the money invested in recruiting, hiring, training, and retaining officers can be lost due to any number of factors. Nolan & Harper (2007) cite a litany of reasons why officers leave a particular agency, based on their experiences and observations:

Low -- noncompetitive salaries; family circumstances; poor quality of life; lack of advancement opportunities and/or not meeting the requirements for advancement; extremely high work load, stress, burnout, and poor job satisfaction; lack of support from city, public, department and/or rank; residency requirements; reality shock leading to early attrition -- policing is not what I thought it would be; the frustration factor includes the criminal justice system as a whole -- lack of tools needed to do the job efficiently and effectively, as well as the district attorney’s failure to prosecute cases and/or slap on the hand punishments given by the judges (p. 1).

Yearwood and Freeman (2004) surveyed 205 law enforcement agencies in North Carolina in an effort to examine recruitment and retention strategies among the agencies. The return rate was 60%, with 124 agencies responding. Agencies were asked to identify from a series of factors the extent to which each factor contributed to their attrition. Budget restrictions accounted for 71-100% of the total attrition rate, with inter-agency transfers close behind, according to 44%

of the respondents. What is not explained is the reason the inter-agency transfers occurred, leading to the possibility budgets or by extension, salary issues, were to blame.

Yearwood & Freeman's study (2004) indicates that the average officer's employment tenure was 34 months; 84% of the agencies reporting had an average stay of less than three years. After the three-year mark was reached, attrition fell off significantly. What this finding should mean to agencies is that there is a window of opportunity to retain the officers they want to retain, reduce attrition, and reduce the costs associated with continuously hiring and training new officers if they act within this three-year window. In a report on hiring and retention issues in agencies who received federal grant funds through the Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS) grants of the 1990s, Koper, Maguire, Moore, & Huffer (2001) found that "two-thirds of departing officers in small agencies and about a third of those in large agencies leave after five or less years of service" (p. iv).

Kennedy and Berger (1994) note that the "highest turnover rates are found among newcomers to an organization" (p. 58). This premise is further bolstered by a study of 1,736 employees from a variety of organizations indicating that over a third of the employees left within the first month of employment (Wanous, Stumpf, & Bedrosian, 1979). Even in relatively good economic times, the nation's largest single private employer (Wal-Mart) experienced a 67% turnover

rate among first-year entry-level employees in the first 90 days of employment (Peterson, 2005).

Early turnover in law enforcement tracks with employment turnover generally. Dychtwald et al. (2006) note the 3-year hump is “that point in an employee’s tenure where newness is gone, routines become stale, wanderlust increases, and defection becomes likely” (p. 99). This is just about the point at which employers are beginning to see a return on their investment in hiring individuals, but lose employees before they can begin making positive contributions or have a deep understanding of the organization (Dychtwald et al., 2006). Krackhardt et al. (1981) say much the same, noting tenure has an effect on turnover; “the longer employees have been with an organization, the less likely they are to leave” (p. 249). Research on pharmacist job turnover was consistent with research of other occupations in that most pharmacists who left the occupation did so within three years (Mott, 2000).

In a case study on Southeast Corridor Bank (pseudonym), Phillips and Phillips (2010) sought to identify the root causes of significant turnover in a branch bank (as high as 57%) and take action to reverse the trend. In determining the cause of turnover, Phillips and Phillips (2010) found that “Much of the turnover occurred in the first six to 18 months of employment” (p. 163). Even though these employees did not stay with the organization as long as other studies found, the attrition of non-tenured employees is a consistent theme with the literature on retention and turnover.

Friedman (2006) suggests that retention begins at the job interview step, as the interview is the first impression the candidate will have of the organization's functions. The adage, first impressions are lasting ones, holds true in job interviews as well as social settings, and the proper handling of first impressions can lead to increases in employee production and satisfaction (Hacker, 2004). This is especially true with police interview boards, and a quick Google search will turn up thousands of sites that purport to offer information and tips on how to pass a police applicant interview. New hires should be brought into an organization with enthusiasm and excitement; Friedman notes organizations frequently celebrate pending retirements while basically relegating the onboarding of new employees to routine personnel processing.

Job Satisfaction

In a descriptive study prepared for the Florida Criminal Justice Executive Institute's Senior Leadership Program, Cyprian (2009) surveyed 73 officers with Florida police agencies in Ocala and Palm Bay, who left their respective agencies between 2006 and 2008. Twenty-one of these officers were identified as having left their agency to work for another, and Cyprian focused on the reasons why these officers went to work for different agencies.

The primary reason given for leaving their respective agencies to work for another was the salary difference between former agencies and current agencies (Cyprian, 2009). The second-most frequent reason given was a perceived lack of upward mobility, followed by poor morale (Cyprian, 2009). According to

Cyprian (2009), the list of reasons given for leaving one agency to work for another included lesser reasons as follows:

- Additional training;
- Better benefits, take-home car program;
- Fairness in promotion;
- Females reported being treated poorly;
- Lack of specialized units;
- Lack of strong leadership;
- Less stress;
- More testing prior to hiring;
- Personal reasons.

One response that deserves further investigation was a question that asked if anything could have been done to entice officers to remain with their first agency; the unanimous response was *no* (Cyprian, 2009, p. 7). McIntyre (1990) found the same result in his study of why Vermont police officers resign. Of the officers surveyed, 67% said they “would not have stayed in their old jobs even if the salary and benefits and retirement had been comparable to those in their next position” (p. 36). This finding was not the case with a 2006 study of local and state law enforcement officers who resigned to become FBI agents.

Bowman, Carlson, Colvin, and Green (2006) surveyed 46 Special Agent trainees at the FBI Academy in Quantico, Virginia. Of the 46 surveyed trainees, 38

reported they always wanted to be FBI agents, but 19 of the 38 reported their former agencies could have done something to retain them as employees.

Cyprian (2009) concludes her study by recommending that new officers be given an explanation of the costs involved in their hiring and that employers disclose how a premature departure could have a detrimental effect on their organizations. Cyprian (2009) also recommends new officer understand that stability in employment is important, and that constantly moving from one agency to another may have a negative impact on their careers. This recommendation should be viewed in the context of a 2012 Bureau of Labor Statistics report, the National Longitudinal Study of Youth that interviewed individuals born between 1957 and 1964 (*Number of jobs held*, 2012). This survey shows that “Individuals held an average of 11.3 jobs from ages 18 to 46, with nearly half of these jobs being held before age 25” (p. 2). As the minimum entry age for law enforcement officers throughout the country is 21 (some are less, such as Florida, which has a minimum age of 19, Officers’ minimum qualifications for employment or appointment, 1974), the BLS survey shows young officers who move from agency to agency may not be that unusual when compared to the population as a whole.

Cyprian’s study (2009) supports Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory, in which Herzberg separates job motivators into things that are satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Herzberg et al., 1959). Cyprian’s descriptions of the reasons officers left their agencies fall on the hygiene side of the motivation dichotomy,

showing that powerful dissatisfiers are enough to lose employees. Soliman (1970) says that “these dissatisfiers provide for the animal side of a person’s nature, which strive to protect one from an unpleasant environment” (p. 452).

Monetary reward is often said to be a poor motivator, but money is necessary to pay bills and provide a certain standard of living. In a study on job satisfaction with police officers, Carlan (2007) found through regression analysis that “25% of job satisfaction variance can be explained from six variables (in order of importance): social contribution, pay, adventure/excitement, autonomy, peer respect, and job security” (p.74). In its 2012 Employee Job Satisfaction and Engagement Survey, the Society for Human Resource Management found that “Six out of ten employees indicated that compensation was very important to their overall job satisfaction” (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2012, p. 24). Overall, 55% of the respondents said that being paid competitively in the local market was very important (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2012).

Phillips (2005) notes that research conducted by Mercer Consulting found that pay levels had the weakest effect on turnover, contrary to what many exit interviews report. A study by one company, Fleet Financial Service, found that a 10% across-the-board increase in pay would reduce turnover by less than one percent (Phillips, 2005). The real drivers of retention, according to Phillips, are “factors related to careers, such as promotions, pay *growth*, number of jobs, and breadth of experience” (p. 66).

Hubbard (2008) conducted a limited study of small police agencies in an attempt to identify major reasons why officers leave one agency to go to another. The target population consisted of 49 agencies that reported having between 35 and 65 sworn officers. Of the 49 agencies, 31 were chosen, as these agencies had a web site or E-mail address that would be used for communicating a survey. The sample size from the 31 agencies was estimated at 1477 officers. Hubbard neglects to identify the number of respondents, but states there was a return rate of 15.5%. If the sample was indeed 1477 officers, 229 officers responded, which is sufficient for research purposes.

Of the officers surveyed, 52% reported they had applied at another law enforcement agency (Hubbard, 2008). The average tenure of these officers was approximately five years, which is a finding similar to that of Yearwood and Freeman (2004), and Koper, Maguire, Moore, and Huffer (2001). Hubbard asked officers to respond to an open-ended question about their motivation for leaving their respective agencies, and four reasons stood out above the rest: lower salary, lack of lateral transfer opportunities, lack of promotional opportunities, and poor morale. Of the officers seeking to leave their agency, 31% were applying to other agencies by the time they had two years on the job, and 74% were seeking employment elsewhere by five years on the job (Hubbard, 2008, p. 5).

Another significant finding in Hubbard's (2008) study was that 32.26% of the officers surveyed cited administration issues (lieutenants and higher rank) and 14.52% of the officers surveyed said "line supervision issues (sergeants

other first-line supervisors)” were the reasons they wanted to leave the agency. Combining the totals of these two reasons reveals that almost half the officers surveyed had issues with the leadership of their organization (Hubbard, 2008, p. 6).

This sentiment is heard often, with Orrick saying, “people don’t quit jobs, they quit bosses” (Wilson & Grammich, 2009, p. 19). In fact, studies and surveys show that employees leave their jobs because of their bosses than for any other reason (Joyce, 2006). Ribelin (2003), in a study on retention of nurses and leadership styles, said, “Nurses don’t leave hospitals, they leave managers” (p. 18). The responses from 1,436 nurses “found a statistically significant relationship between the manager’s leadership style and the staff nurse’s intent to stay. The better the manager’s leadership style was perceived, the greater the nurse’s intent to stay” (Ribelin, 2003, p. 19). Friedrich (2001) reported “five major reasons for turnover: dissatisfaction with work environment; job-related stress and anxiety; lack of recognition or professional status; lack of expanded career opportunities; and personal commitments and responsibilities” (p. 27). Friedrich notes a Gallup analysis of 28 integrated studies showing that an employee’s relationship with his or her immediate manager was the sole determinant of productivity levels and tenure. As before, “people join companies, but they leave managers and supervisors” (Friedrich, 2001, p. 28).

Extant literature on employee turnover is mostly correlational (Krackhardt et al., 1981). While this type of research may be useful to identify possible

determinants of turnover, there is a need to better understand “the extent to which variables can be manipulated by the supervisor to provide a change in turnover rates” (Krackhardt et al., 1981, p. 249). Even so, private industry has a considerable body of knowledge to draw on in examining retention and turnover issues; there is not much turnover research that focuses on law enforcement organizations. In fact, there is a lack of research that examines factors that lead to the retention of police officers (Monk-Turner et al., 2010). What limited literature is available focuses primarily on four areas of inquiry: job satisfaction, burnout, confluence theory, and cognitive dissonance theory (Haarr, 2005). Because of the unique nature of the law enforcement profession, research from the private sector is of limited value (Bowman et al., 2006). According to Bowman (2009), “The least common type of research on policing is theoretically grounded research conducted by academics” (p. 28). The relationship between supervisor and subordinate has a significant effect on the subordinate’s relationship with the organization as a whole. How an employee performs within an organization is largely a result of the relationship the employee has with his/her supervisor (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2012). The Gallup organization found that “managers who focus on their employees’ strengths can practically eliminate active disengagement and double the average of U.S. workers who are engaged nationwide” (Gallup, Inc., 2013, p. 9).

Johnson (2012) determined that police officer job satisfaction is multidimensional; job task characteristics and organizational attributes both

contribute to officer variation in job satisfaction. Johnson's study also indicates that a police officer's job satisfaction comes not so much from individual officer characteristics, but from the officer's task(s) and organizational environment. The findings also show that officers enjoy a working environment that allows them a considerable amount of discretion in handling various situations (Johnson, 2012).

Johnson's (2012) findings are not unlike those of De Cooman, Stynen, Van den Broeck, Sels, and De Witte (2013), who determined job satisfaction could be improved by aligning employees with jobs that provide autonomy, relatedness, and competence. In addition, jobs that provide employees with work motivation can be associated with the organization's goals and mission, resulting in overall organizational effectiveness.

Proactive Policing

Michael Patterson describes the proactive approach to police work as: "attempts to deal with problems before they come into being" (Patterson, 2004, p. 144). Patterson (2004) contrasts this approach to reactive policing, where officers respond to calls for service after a crime or incident has occurred. The proactive approach is not a new initiative, but has been incorporated (albeit informally) in police work for many years (Famega, 2009). In the traditional sense, time officers spent between responding to calls for service and attending to other duties is spent on random patrol, scouting for criminal activity (Famega, 2009).

Some studies call into question the efficacy of such patrol activities, the most famous of which is the Kansas City Preventive Patrol Experiment (Kelling, Pate, Dieckman, & Brown, 1974). This experiment separated 15 police beats in Kansas City into three main patrol groups for research purposes: control, proactive, and reactive. Data were collected from several sources: a victimization survey, departmental reported crime, departmental arrest data, and a survey of businesses. Statistical examination of arrests in the three patrol groups showed no statistical difference among them. However, Kelling et al. (1974) also note there are limitations on what police can and cannot do, due to the nature of crime itself, how a democratic society regulates its police, and available resources for various crime prevention initiatives.

Other studies found that proactive police activities have a positive effect on reducing crime. Braga, (2001) conducted a meta-analysis of 10 criminal justice databases to search for reviews of literature that spoke to effectiveness of police interventions in traditional crime laden areas. Braga's (2001) results "support the assertion that focusing police efforts at high-activity crime places can be used to good effect in preventing crime" (p. 121). Another study that looked just at gun-related crimes found that proactive police initiatives "made meaningful contributions to existing levels of illegal possession arrests" (Wells, Zhang, & Zhao, 2012, p. 253). Wells et al. (2012) go on to note their research "supports existing evidence that shows police can affect serious crimes by targeting firearms that are illegally possessed and carried" (p. 253).

Officer Safety, Public Policy, and Adverse Publicity

A 1970 incident that became known as the Newhall Incident highlights the unintended deadly consequences of public policy decisions that are directed at softening the image of a police officer doing his/her duties (Wood, 2016). Four California Highway Patrol officers were killed in the parking lot of a gas station when they answered a call from motorists about two men brandishing weapons. Wood (2016) explains the California Highway Patrol “conditioned officers to avoid offending the public and second guess their every action, lest they be accused of unwarranted aggression” (para. 8). While not drawing a clear connection between policy and the officers’ deaths, Wood intimates the culture of the organization and public’s view of law enforcement actions were a contributing factor. Wood draws a parallel between the Newhall Incident and policies evolving in police departments due to public pressure regarding police use of force.

Wood (2016) uses two examples of how police policy is being shaped by public negativity toward police: The Los Angeles Police Department has created a Preservation of Life award that replaces the Medal of Valor as the department’s top honor. The new award was created to “celebrate and award officers who potentially place themselves, their fellow officers, and the public at risk by refraining from using force when it was otherwise justified” (Wood, 2016, para. 12). As Wood notes, aside from the risk this poses to officers who already must

weigh every use of force, this good behavior award can also become the basis for punishment should actions be deemed contrary to the intent of the award.

Woods' (2016) other example comes from the San Francisco Police Department. The police chief has promulgated new rules and policies designed to reduce officer-involved shootings by 80%. The new rules include prohibitions against shooting at moving vehicles, handling assailants armed with knives or other edged weapons with gloves or batons, and any officer who points a firearm at an individual is considered to have used force, and must file a report as well as have a supervisor intervene. The point Wood makes is that these policies mirror the atmosphere present at the time of the Newhall Incident.

What is known about nationwide violent crime rates is that, from 1995 until 2014, the rate of violent crime, including homicides, fell by about half (Federal Bureau of Investigation [FBI], 2015). This changed in 2015, as preliminary numbers reflect a 1.7% increase in violent crime, including a 6.2% increase in homicides (Federal Bureau of Investigation [FBI], 2016). Preliminary numbers for the first half of 2016 show a 15% increase in homicides for 29 large cities submitting crime data (Elinson, 2016). MacDonald (2015) notes violent crimes skyrocketed in 2015 in major cities, and concludes, "The most plausible explanation of the current surge in lawlessness is the intense agitation against American police departments over the past nine months" (para. 7). Sutton (2015) questions whether "de-policing" will lead to officers simply standing down. In an address to the University of Chicago School of Law, FBI Director James

Comey notes that communities and the law enforcement officers who serve them are on divergent paths, and the result is an increase in crime (Federal Bureau of Investigation [FBI], 2015).

St. Louis, MO Police Chief Sam Dotson attributes the rise in violent crime to the Ferguson Effect, after an officer-involved shooting incident in Ferguson, MO (Byers, 2014). In an attempt to validate Chief Dotson's claim about a Ferguson Effect, Rosenfeld (2015) prepared a policy brief using crime data directly from the St. Louis Police Department. Rosenfeld correctly points out that there is no way to use Bureau of Justice statistics for analyses such as these, because the two tools used by the Bureau do not identify city-level crime data (in the case of the National Crime Victimization Survey), or provide data in a timely manner (as in the Uniform Crime Reports). It is also impossible to determine a cause-and-effect with the Ferguson shooting and a rise in crime rates, but could be inferred due to the timing of increases.

Rosenfeld (2015) examined homicides in St. Louis over 2013 and 2014, and concluded the data do not reflect an increase in homicides following the Ferguson shooting. In examining violent crimes overall, Rosenfeld finds there was an increase for 2014, but the increase began before the Ferguson shooting, and continued to rise throughout the year. Only when property crimes were examined does a rise seem to coincide with the Ferguson shooting.

Even if crime rates are not suggestive of a Ferguson Effect, as Rosenfeld (2015) concludes, other aspects of policing may reveal an unexpected

consequence, such as turnover. Wolfe and Nix (2016) note the “unremitting media drumbeat surrounding law enforcement may diminish officers’ motivation to do the job” (p. 3). Recently the New York Times began devoting an entire section to “Police Misconduct, Brutality and Shootings,” publishing 22 articles in March 2017 alone (<https://www.nytimes.com/topic/subject/police-brutality-misconduct-and-shootings>). As Wolfe and Nix conclude, “The only way to determine whether such a Ferguson Effect exists is to ask officers themselves” (p. 3).

Wolfe and Nix (2016) have one of the very few empirical studies on the Ferguson Effect, examining whether or not the phenomenon has a bearing on police officers’ willingness to engage in community partnerships. This study used data from a survey of sheriff’s deputies in a southeastern U.S. metropolitan area who were asked if negative publicity in the wake of the Ferguson incident negatively impacted their jobs. This data was analyzed in the context of whether or not the Ferguson Effect makes officers less willing to partner with the communities they serve. Wolfe and Nix found officers who reported being less motivated as a result of the Ferguson Effect are less willing to engage in community partnerships.

An October 2016 incident in Chicago highlights the impact the Ferguson Effect has on police officer decision making. While on duty, an officer with 17 years’ experience on the force stopped at a motor vehicle crash and encountered an individual high on PCP. The individual assaulted the officer by repeatedly

smashing her face into the pavement until she lost consciousness. Even though the assailant was not armed with a weapon other than his hands and feet, the officer was justified in using deadly force but chose not to, telling Police Chief Eddie Johnson she knew she was going to die, but “chose not to because she didn’t want her family or the department to go through the scrutiny the next day on national news” (Gorner & Dardick, 2016, para. 5). In the same article, the head of Chicago’s Fraternal Order of Police union said, “police don’t want to become the next YouTube video,” (Gorner & Dardick, 2016, para. 8) and “If you participate in a deadly force situation you can save your life, but in 2016, you can lose your job” (Gorner & Dardick, 2016, para. 8).

Other research points out a perceived divide between members of the community and law enforcement organizations. The Ferguson incident, along with other officer involved shootings, have especially strained relations with members of minority communities (Morin, Parker, Stepler, & Mercer, 2017). Morin et al. (2017) note this disconnect extends to minority police officers who view relations differently from white officers.

Summary

Chapter II is an examination of existing literature on employee turnover generally, and law enforcement officer turnover specifically. The discussion of national law enforcement staffing and turnover data is followed by the theoretical framework for the study. Data reported from a wide variety of sources indicates how costly unwanted turnover is to organizations both in monetary terms and

human capital terms. Finally, Chapter II examines negative influences of community outrage regarding police actions, and what this means for law enforcement staffing.

CHAPTER III – RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In Chapter II, literature that discusses turnover in the workplace and turnover with law enforcement officers specifically was presented. Turnover among employees generally is recognized and there is a great deal of data available on turnover among employees overall (Dychtwald et al., 2006; Kennedy & Berger, 1994; Krackhardt et al., 1981; Phillips & Phillips, 2010; Wanous, Stumpf, & Bedrosian, 1979), but limited empirical literature describes law enforcement turnover (Monk-Turner et al., 2010). In addition, no research shows a perceived relationship between turnover intentions and the recent phenomenon of the Ferguson Effect. This study determines if perceived turnover intentions among law enforcement officers are influenced by the Ferguson Effect. Chapter III presents details of the study, including research design, population, and instrumentation.

Research Objectives

RO1 – Identify the demographics of the participants by age, gender, race/ethnicity, rank, education level, years on active duty, type of current agency (city/municipal, county/parish, state, federal), and number of sworn officers in current agency.

RO2 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime.

RO3 – Determine turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

RO4 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

Research Design

This study uses a non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive design. Non-experimental research designs do not have a random assignment, do not manipulate variables, and do not have comparison groups (Sousa, Driessnack, & Mendes, 2007). This study does not use random assignment, does not manipulate variables, and does not have comparison groups. The study is cross-sectional because it will only look at one group at one point in time (Hagan, 2010a). The study is descriptive because it intends to summarize or describe data and show relationships between variables (Hagan, 2010a). No data exists that shows a relationship between perceived turnover intentions of law enforcement officers and the Ferguson Effect.

Data were collected by means of a self-administered, web-based, electronic survey in order to determine if a relationship exists between the variables of perceived turnover intentions, and the Ferguson Effect. Fink (2003) identifies a survey as, “a system for collecting information from or about people to describe, compare, or explain their knowledge, attitudes, and behavior” (p.1). Surveys can provide a quantitative measurement of attitudes and opinions of a population by examining a sample of the population, with the intent of generalizing the results to the population (Babbie, 1990). Surveys are well suited for studies like this as they are economical and provide quick data collection

(Creswell, 2009). Electronic data collection is preferred over paper surveys, as electronic data collection is not as costly and provides a means for preliminary notification or follow-up communication with participants (Shannon, Johnson, Searcy, & Lott, 2002). The instrument used in this study is discussed later in this chapter.

This non-experimental correlational study compares the relationships among the dependent variable “turnover intention” and the independent variable of the Ferguson Effect. The study used a self-administered, web-based survey instrument that consists of three sections: a demographic section that captures essential descriptive data about the participants, a section that asks about turnover intentions, and a section on the Ferguson Effect. Data were collected from law enforcement officers who were FBINA graduates. Approval from The University of Southern Mississippi’s Institutional Review Board (IRB) was obtained (Appendix B) in order to conduct this study using human subjects. Participation in the survey was completely voluntary and results were anonymous; an informed consent acknowledgement was required to participate in the study. No known risks to participation in the study for either the individual respondent or the agency were identified. Data were collected anonymously through password protected web-based Qualtrics survey software, and no IP addresses were collected. Data were analyzed using the computer application “*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*,” (SPSS), version 24, along with

Microsoft Excel. At the conclusion of data analysis, no computerized respondent data were retained, and files were overwritten by a disk cleaning application.

Research Population

A research population is “the complete set of people or things being studied” (Bennett, Briggs, & Triola, 2009, p. 3). The web site for the FBINA describes the Academy as, “The FBI National Academy is a professional course of study for U.S. and international law enforcement leaders that serves to improve the administration of justice in police departments and agencies at home and abroad and to raise law enforcement standards, knowledge, and cooperation worldwide” (The Federal Bureau of Investigation, n.d., para. 1). Participants are limited to “Leaders and managers of state and local police, sheriffs’ departments, military police organizations, and federal law enforcement agencies. Participation in the FBINA is by invitation only, through a nomination process. Participants are drawn from every state in the union, from U.S. territories, and from over 160 international partner nations” (The Federal Bureau of Investigation, n.d., para. 2).

The study used purposive and convenience sampling (Huck, 2012) as the population consists of active duty FBINA graduates who belong to the FBINAA and reside in the United States (N = 9,584). All usable responses are used as the sample. This population was chosen for the study as participants from this group meet the requirements for the research, in that they are active duty, sworn law

enforcement officers. Furthermore, the FBINAA has previously participated in scholarly research and has given permission to cooperate in this study.

Internal and External Validity

Validity, as explained by Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002), refers “to the approximate truth of an inference” (p. 34). There must be evidence to support the inference, which allows for an informed judgment about the veracity of that inference. Internal validity is whether or not “the relationship between two variables is causal” (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 508). In correlational, nonexperimental design, “a presumed cause and effect are identified and measured, but in which other structural features of experiments are missing” (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 18). This is a correlational, nonexperimental study that “simply observes the size and direction of a relationship among variables” (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 12). The relationship under examination is to determine a relationship between perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement officer turnover intentions.

A threat to validity is a reason “why an inference might be incorrect” (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 512). For this study, history and selection are considered threats to internal validity. Hagan (2010c), defines history as “specific events that may have taken place during the course of the study and may have produced the results” (p. 68). Public outcry is ongoing whenever police officers use force, especially when African-Americans are involved (Morin et al., 2017). A recent incident in Baton Rouge, LA is one such example where officers shot

and killed an African-American male who was believed to be armed, which resulted in demonstrations and protests (Shoichet, Alsup, & Berlinger, 2016).

President Barack Obama, in speaking about the Baton Rouge shooting, followed by another shooting in Minnesota, said the U.S. “has a serious problem,” and went on to say he “shares feelings of frustration, anger, and grief” with respect to officer-involved shootings (Lederman, 2016, para. 1). Incidents like the public reaction to the shooting of Alton Sterling by Baton Rouge police officers could influence study respondents to indicate they perceive the Ferguson Effect has an impact on their jobs. This study will determine if officers are considering leaving the job because of the public scrutiny of officer involved shootings; study results might be different if there were not ongoing protests and media coverage.

The selection process could also be a threat to internal validity, as selection, defined by Shadish et al. (2002), is “Systematic difference over conditions in respondent characteristics that could also cause the observed effect” (p. 55). Law enforcement officers who are graduates of the FBINA from all over the United States were surveyed, with the possibility that officers in jurisdictions not surveyed could have experiences that are unlike those of the officers surveyed.

External validity focuses on the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized to external populations not participating in the study (Sprinthall, 2012). In this study, threats to external validity could result from “Interaction of

Causal Relationship with Settings” or “Context-Dependent Mediation” (Shadish et al., 2002, p. 89). These threats mean study results might not be generalizable to agencies in other jurisdictions. If this study determines a relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement officers’ perceived intention to leave, a similar study of other agencies may not produce the same results.

The city of Baltimore, which experienced severe unrest following the death of a prisoner in a transport van, has seen a significant loss of sworn officers in 2015 and through the first half of 2016. In a Reuter’s news report, Malone (2016) found Baltimore lost 6.1% of its sworn force in 2015, and a further 6.8% through the first six months of 2016. By contrast, Denver and Las Vegas, which have not had similar unrest, saw a sworn officer increase of 5% each. Malone (2016) also quotes John DeCarlo, an associate professor of criminal justice at the University of New Haven, who said, "They're having trouble recruiting because since Ferguson there has been a lot of negative press about policing" (para. 8).

Human Subjects Research

To protect human subjects, researchers are required to comply with standards and guidelines established by the United States Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR 46.116(a); Roberts, 2010). These guidelines include the need for informed consent of individuals, meaning participants must know and understand the purpose of the research, along with any risks involved with participation. Roberts (2010) also notes the need for confidentiality, making participants aware of what will happen with the data once the study has

concluded, and a guarantee that all information gathered about any participant will not be disclosed.

The University of Southern Mississippi adheres to the standards and guidelines of the DHHS through the use of an Institutional Review Board (IRB), whose role is to screen all research and investigation proposals involving human subjects prior to any data collection being done. All faculty, students, and staff are required to comply with IRB guidelines and submit an application for human subject research before data collection begins. The IRB must grant approval for the research in order for data collection to proceed. This study adhered to IRB guidelines and no data was collected prior to IRB approval. Informed consent approval was acquired from the University of Southern Mississippi's Institutional Review Board (Appendix B) and noted in the opening page of the online survey.

Data Collection

Following IRB approval, data collection was done with the survey found in Appendix C. This survey was uploaded to the Qualtrics Research Suite for dissemination and data retrieval. The survey was published online through the Qualtrics Research Suite, with links to the survey shared with study participants. Data from the survey could only be accessed with the researcher's user name and password. Data were entered directly into SPSS, and no paper renditions of the data were used. Final data analysis is included in Chapter IV.

In an effort to increase survey participation, a small incentive was offered to respondents. Fink, (2003) says incentives can be used to promote responses.

However, Dillman et al. (2014) say, “the research on the effectiveness of lotteries in web-based surveys has generally shown that lotteries and prize drawings do not increase response rates significantly” (p. 331). Nulty (2008) found that responses to online surveys are an average of 23% lower than responses of paper-based surveys, despite various efforts to raise rates. Even so, survey participants in this study could elect to participate in a random drawing for one of three \$25 Amazon.com gift cards by including their email address in their response. Participants could also request a report of survey results by including their email address in their response. Gift card winners were selected by means of a random number generator.

Dillman et al. (2014) say sending multiple messages to Internet survey participants will increase participation. Limited empirical research explains an optimal number for messages, and how many messages to send depends on responses received during the survey period (Dillman et al. 2014). Because of the compressed timeline for this study, only one email reminder was sent, one week after the survey link email. The plan for collecting data is found in Table 1 below:

Table 1

Data Collection Plan

Week	Task
Week One	Notify participants via email survey will be sent soon

Table 1 (continued)

Week	Task
Week Two	Distribute link to survey electronically via email, reminding participants of survey deadline
Week Three	Send participants email reminders of the availability of the survey and deadline for participation
Week Four	Gather survey results; Identify gift card recipients by random selection in the presence of dissertation chair; Mail gift cards
Week Five	Analyze data using Excel and SPSS
Week Six	Create report of results

Instrumentation

The survey instrument used in this study measured law enforcement officer perception of the Ferguson Effect, and perception of influence the Ferguson Effect may have on officer intent to leave the organization by combining two reliable and validated studies: the Anticipated Turnover Scale (ATS), (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984), and the Ferguson Effect Scale (FES), (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Permission to use these instruments is found in Appendix D (Anticipated Turnover Scale) and Appendix E (Ferguson Effect Scale). Demographic characteristics of respondent age, gender, race, ethnicity, rank, education, years on active duty, type of agency (county level, municipal/city, state, or federal) number of sworn officers in agency, and whether or not the respondent is currently employed in a law enforcement organization were also captured. Participants were assured all responses will be treated as confidential.

The survey instrument questions on Ferguson Effect and turnover intention variables contain Likert Scale (Likert, 1932) items, with five response choices ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Responses from Likert Scale items were summed, with summed scores from variables analyzed for correlation using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson *r*). Pearson's *r* is the most frequently used bivariate correlation tool (Hill & Lewicki, 2006; Huck, 2012) and assumes the variables "are measured on at least interval scales" (Hill & Lewicki, 2006, p. 684). The use of Pearson's *r* in this study is based on literature that says Likert scale items, though ordinal when taken individually, are treated as interval data when respondent selections are summed and averaged (Harpe, 2015; Carifio & Perla, 2007; Carifio & Perla, 2008).

Turnover Intentions

Turnover intentions were measured with survey questions originating from the Anticipated Turnover Scale, (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). The purpose of the Anticipated Turnover Scale (ATS) is to index the employee's perception or opinion of the possibility of voluntarily terminating his or her present job. The self-report ATS instrument contains 12 items in Likert-format. This study has five response options ranging between *agree strongly* to *disagree strongly*. Questions are related to one's anticipated length of time to leaving and certainty of leaving the job. Strong internal consistency among items was shown ($\alpha = .84$).

In Hinshaw and Atwood's (1984) study, a sample of 1,597 nursing staff, with 63% being Registered Nurses, were surveyed from 15 urban and rural hospitals. The variables were measured with instruments having moderate to strong reliability and validity, e.g., total scale alphas and thetas ranged from .73 to .88. Moderate construct validity was demonstrated with predictive modeling. Correlational and multivariate regression plus discriminant techniques were used for analysis. The ordinary least square regression strategies were validated by logistic regression ($p < .05$). Construct validity was estimated using principal components factor analysis and predictive modeling techniques. The Hinshaw and Atwood (1984) scale was chosen for this study because it has been used to examine turnover intentions in a number of previous studies (Armstrong, 2004; Beecroft, Kunzman, & Krozek, 2001; Chaaban, 2006; Cox, 2001; Miller, 2008; Warner, 2001).

Ferguson Effect

In order to examine the perceived influence the Ferguson Effect has on law enforcement officer work engagement, the Ferguson Effect Scale developed by (Nix & Wolfe, 2016) was used. This 9-item survey determines perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officers' motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime. The items are arranged in Likert-format with five response options, ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Nix and Wolfe (2016) used principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation to assess the degree to which the items loaded together. The results

provided evidence that the five items loaded on a single component ($\lambda = 3.27$; loadings $>.70$). The items also demonstrated strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .87$) and, as such, were summed into an index. Higher scores on the scale reflect officers' sentiment that recent negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has had an adverse impact on their jobs (Wolfe & Nix, 2016, p. 5). The Ferguson Effect Scale is the only instrument found that identifies a perceived Ferguson Effect with law enforcement officers. Both tables are statistically analyzed by means of Pearson's r to determine if a correlation exists between turnover intentions and the Ferguson Effect. Table 2 illustrates how research objectives are mapped to individual survey questions.

Table 2

Survey Map

Research Objectives	Survey Questions	Source
RO1 – Identify the demographics of the participants by age, gender, race/ethnicity, rank, education level, years on active duty, type of current agency (city/municipal, county/parish, state, federal), number of sworn officers in current agency, and if the respondent is currently employed in a law enforcement organization.	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q9, Q10	Demographic Information

Table 2 (continued)

Research Objectives	Survey Questions	Source
RO2 – Determine perceptions of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime.	Q14, Q15, Q16, Q18, Q19	Ferguson Effect Scale
RO3 - Determine turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.	Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26, Q27, Q28, Q29, Q30, Q31	Anticipated Turnover Scale
RO4 - Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.	Q14, Q15, Q16, Q18, Q19 Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26, Q27, Q28, Q29, Q30, Q31	Ferguson Effect Scale Anticipated Turnover Scale

Data Analysis Plan

RO1 – Identify the demographics of the participants by age, gender, race/ethnicity, rank, education level, years on active duty, type of current agency (city/municipal, county/parish, state, federal), and number of sworn officers in current agency. This research objective collected data on demographic characteristics of the respondents, and reports frequencies of responses and descriptive data.

RO2 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime. To examine this research objective, survey questions Q14, Q15, Q16, Q18, and Q19 were used as they are identified by Nix and Wolfe (2016) as related

variables for a law enforcement officer's work motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime. The data were summed, producing a total possible point value of 25. A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the variables in Q14, Q15, Q16, Q18, and Q19 to the hypothesized test value of 15. A one sample *t* Test is an appropriate test to determine if the population mean is statistically different from the test value, with a higher score indicating the Ferguson Effect is perceived as affecting law enforcement officer motivation and proactivity (Green & Salkind, 2011).

RO3 - Determine turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. Using the Hinshaw and Atwood Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984), data were summed, producing a total possible point value of 60. A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the variables in Q20 through Q31 to the hypothesized test value of 36. An averaged response value of less than the test value of 36 implies respondents do not perceive an intent to leave while an averaged response value above the test value of 36 implies respondents do perceive an intent to leave (Green & Salkind, 2011).

RO4 - Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables of the Ferguson Effect Scale and the Anticipated Turnover Scale. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is used to determine correlations between two variables, expressed as a single value (Sprinthall, 2012).

Descriptive statistics were used to examine the variables in the study. According to Hagan (2010b), “Descriptive statistics are intended to summarize or describe data or show relationships between variables” (p. 333). The study determined the relationship between the perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

Research Objectives

The study uses four research objectives. Data in the objectives are classified as interval or nominal. Each research objective was analyzed in the following manner:

RO1: Identify the demographics of the participants by age, gender, race/ethnicity, rank, education level, years on active duty, type of current agency (city/municipal, county/parish, state/federal), and number of sworn officers in current agency. This research objective uses nominal and ordinal data to determine specific respondent demographics.

RO2 – Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime.

This research objective is examined with the use of questions from the Ferguson Effect Scale (Wolfe & Nix, 2016) that relate to law enforcement officer motivation. The survey is designed to determine if participants’ perceptions regarding how recent negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has affected their work motivation. The survey uses a five-point Likert scale to record respondent’s perceptions about the Ferguson Effect and their job motivation and

proactive policing. Responses range from SA (*Strongly Agree*) to SD (*Strongly Disagree*). All items are framed as positive statements, meaning the elements present a relationship between events subsequent to the incidents in Ferguson, MO, and law enforcement officers work engagement. Total scores were summed and averaged, and a *t* test was used to determine if the population mean is statistically different from the hypothesized mean of 15. A *t* statistic below the hypothesized mean would indicate the lack of a relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement motivation, and a *t* statistic above the hypothesized mean would indicate a positive relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement officer motivation.

The survey items from the Ferguson Effect Scale that measure law enforcement officer motivation and proactive policing are (Nix & Wolfe, 2016, p. 19): *Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has*

1. *made it more difficult to be motivated at work;*
2. *caused me to be less proactive on the job than I was in the past;*
3. *caused me to be more apprehensive about using force even though it may be necessary;*
4. *negatively impacted the way I do my job;*
5. *made it less enjoyable to have a career in law enforcement.*

RO3 - Determine perceived turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. This research objective seeks to determine law enforcement officer turnover intentions. This research objective is examined through the use of the

Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). The 12-item survey measures respondent's perceptions regarding the possibility of their leaving their current position. The survey items range from *Agree Strongly (AS)* to *Disagree Strongly (DS)* on a 5-point Likert scale. Items are identified as positive or negative, and scored according to whether the item is positive or negative. For example, on a 5-point scale, for + items, SA is scored 5 and SD is scored 1. Conversely, for a negative item on the same 5-point scale, an item response of SA is scored 1 and SD is scored 5. Respondent scores were summed and averaged, with mean scores examined by use of a *t* test to determine if reported scores were significantly different from the hypothesized mean of 36. A *t* statistic below the hypothesized mean would suggest a lessened intent to leave, while a *t* statistic above the hypothesized mean would suggest a greater intent to leave. As the data in both the Ferguson Effect Scale and the Anticipated Turnover Scale are summed, Pearson's *r* is an appropriate test for relationships between interval data sets (Sprinthall, 2012).

Questions in the Anticipated Turnover Scale are:

1. *I plan to stay in my position a while;*
2. *I am quite sure I will leave my position in the foreseeable future;*
3. *Deciding to stay or leave my position is not a critical issue for me at this point in time;*
4. *I know whether or not I'll be leaving this agency within a short time;*
5. *If I got another job offer tomorrow, I would give it serious consideration;*

6. *I have no intentions of leaving my present position;*
7. *I have been in my position about as long as I want to;*
8. *I am certain I will be staying here a while;*
9. *I don't have any specific idea how much longer I will stay;*
10. *I plan to hang on to this job a while;*
11. *There are big doubts in my mind as to whether or not I will really stay in this agency;*
12. *I plan to leave this position shortly.*

RO4 - Determine perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions among law enforcement officers. This research objective uses Pearson's Product Moment Correlation to determine if a correlation exists between law enforcement officer perception of the Ferguson Effect and officer turnover intent. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation is an appropriate test for this research objective, because Pearson's r is used to measure linear relationships between two variables in interval form (Sprinthall, 2012). Results from the Ferguson Effect Scale described in RO2 are compared to results from the Anticipated Turnover Scale described in RO3 to determine if a correlation exists.

Summary

This non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive study determined the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement perceived turnover intentions because of the Ferguson Effect. The researcher used

purposive, convenience sampling based on the availability of accessible potential participants. Purposive sampling requires the use of specific criteria for inclusion (Huck, 2012); in this study, only graduates of the FBI National Academy are included. Convenience sampling as described by Huck (2012), collects data from available participants. For this study, available participants are those FBI National Academy graduates who are active United States members of the FBINAA and have email addresses on file with the Association are included. After obtaining IRB approval, the researcher secured the assistance of the FBINAA to distribute the survey to its United States active duty members via a web link (Appendix F). Qualtrics Survey Software was used to create and distribute the survey. The researcher used the computer application SPSS, Windows version 24, along with Microsoft Excel to analyze the data, and determine if the Ferguson Effect has a perceived influence on law enforcement officer turnover intention.

CHAPTER IV – ANALYSIS OF DATA

This quantitative research study investigated law enforcement officer perceptions regarding the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement officer turnover intentions. The study used a non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive design. The population for the study was the active membership of the FBI National Academy Associates who are currently active duty United States law enforcement officers (N = 9,584). The population was limited to members with active email addresses on file with the FBINAA. Of the 9,584 survey invitations sent to the FBINAA email list, 2,468 members responded. Respondents not identified as active duty law enforcement officers ($n = 750$) were deleted from the population, leaving a research sample of 1,718. The sample was further reduced by the number of respondents who did not respond to all elements in both constructs ($n = 273$) for a total research sample of 1,445.

This chapter presents a review of the data collected from survey respondents. Data for each research objective are analyzed and a summary of results provided. Data collection methods are presented prior to an analysis of the results.

Research Objectives

Research Objective One (RO1)

Results from Research Objective One describe the respondents in terms of demographic characteristics. To ensure confidentiality, no personally

identifying information was asked for or captured electronically. A majority of respondents ($n = 794$, 54.9%) were between the ages of 45 to 65 years of age. The second most frequently occurring age group was 55 to 64 years of age ($n = 384$, 26.6%), and the least frequently occurring age group was 18 to 24 years old ($n = 0.1\%$). Table 3 displays the ages of the respondents, the first set of demographic characteristics.

Table 3

Number of Respondents by Age Group

Age	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
18 to 24 years	1	0.1	0.1
25 to 34 years	17	1.2	1.2
35 to 44 years	208	14.4	15.6
45 to 54 years	794	54.9	70.6
55 to 64 years	384	26.6	97.2
Age 65 or older	41	2.8	100.0
Total	1445	100.0	

Respondents who identified as White represented the majority of the sample ($n = 1,334$, 92.3%), with Black or African American respondents as the next most frequently reported demographic ($n = 55$, 3.8%). Table 4 presents results for the race of respondents.

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics by Race

Race	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
American Indian or Alaskan Native	16	1.1	1.1
Asian	11	0.8	1.9
Black/African American	55	3.8	5.7
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	3	0.2	5.9
White	1334	92.3	98.5
Other	22	1.5	100.0
Total	1441	99.7	
No Response	4	0.3	
Total	1445	100.0	

Non-Hispanic respondents represented a majority for the study ($n = 1,334$ 92.3%). Only 4% ($n = 58$) of the respondents identified as Hispanic, while 3.7% ($n = 53$) of the respondents did not identify as either Hispanic or Non-Hispanic. Reported ethnicity of respondents is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Number of Respondents by Ethnicity

Ethnicity	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
Hispanic	58	4.0	4.2

Table 5 (continued)

Ethnicity	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
Non-Hispanic	1334	92.3	100.0
Total	1392	96.3	
No Response	53	3.7	
Total	1445	100.0	

When asked to indicate law enforcement rank, the most frequently reported rank was Chief or Sheriff ($n = 415$, 28.7%), with Lieutenant as the second most reported rank ($n = 276$, 19.1%). The least frequently reported rank was Patrol Officer or Deputy ($n = 6$, 0.4%), which could be an artifact of rank identification among various agencies. The population for this study was graduates of the FBI National Academy, which is a leadership development program. The large number of senior level officers in this study is reflective of academy selectees. Table 6 shows reported law enforcement rank of respondents.

Table 6

Number of Respondents by Rank

Rank	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
Patrol Officer/Deputy	30	2.1	2.1
Corporal	6	0.4	2.5
Sergeant	61	4.2	6.7

Table 6 (continued)

Rank	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
Lieutenant	276	19.1	25.9
Captain	267	18.5	44.4
Major	80	5.5	49.9
Lt. Colonel	12	0.8	50.8
Colonel/Inspector/Commander	58	4	54.8
Assistant/Deputy Chief/Chief Deputy	199	13.8	68.6
Chief/Sheriff	415	28.7	97.4
Other	38	2.6	100
Total	1442	99.8	
No Response	3	0.2	
Total	1445	100	

Respondents were asked to report level of education obtained. For the 1,714 participants responding to this question, over on-third indicated a Bachelor's degree ($n = 564$, 39%). Master's degrees are the second most frequently reported level of education ($n = 525$, 36.3%), with 23 respondents holding degrees beyond a Master's (1.6%). The large number of college graduates exceeds the education requirement of most departments, given that only 1% of local law enforcement agencies require a Bachelor's degree for employment (Reaves, 2015). Table 7 reports the highest level of education obtained by respondents.

Table 7

Number of Responses by Level of Education Obtained

Education	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
High School Diploma/G.E.D.*	12	0.8	0.8
Some College	182	12.6	13.5
Associate's Degree	135	9.3	22.8
Bachelor's Degree	564	39	62
Master's Degree	525	36.3	98.4
Specialist's Degree	4	0.3	98.7
Doctorate	6	0.4	99.1
Juris Doctorate	13	0.9	100
Total	1441	99.7	
No Response	4	0.3	
Total	1445	100	

* General Education Development

In response to a question about the number of years served on active duty, a majority of the 1,718 FBINAA respondents ($n = 1,473$, 85.7%), with four out of five reporting at least 20 years of law enforcement service. Only nine respondents (.5%) reported between one and five years on active duty. Results for how many years the respondents spent on active duty are given in Table 8.

Table 8

Respondents Number of Years on Active Duty

Years on Active Duty	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
1 – 5	8	0.6	0.6
6 – 10	12	0.8	1.4
11 – 15	38	2.6	4
16 – 20	151	10.4	14.5
20 – 25	375	26	40.4
25 – 30	418	28.9	69.3
More than 30 years	443	30.7	100
Total	1445	100	

Participating FBINAA active duty law enforcement officers identified the type of law enforcement agency where they work. Two-thirds of respondents ($n = 981$, 67.9%) represented officers from Municipal (City) agencies followed by County or Parish deputies ($n = 279$, 19.3%). The remainder of the respondents identified State ($n = 151$, 10.4%) or Federal ($n = 25$, 1.7%) agencies as their agency type. Table 9 describes the types of respondent agencies.

Table 9

Respondents Agency Type

Agency Type	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
Municipal	981	67.9	68.3

Table 9 (continued)

Agency Type	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
County/Parish	279	19.3	87.7
State	151	10.4	98.3
Federal	25	1.7	100
Total	1436	99.4	
No Response	9	0.6	
Total	1445	100	

Almost one out of four ($n = 348$, 24.1%) of the 1,718 FBINAA respondents represented agencies with 21 – 50 sworn officers. Agencies with 101 to 250 sworn officers ($n = 274$, 19%) were the next most reported agency size. Very few agencies ($n = 27$, 1.9%) had 10 or fewer officers; this finding does not reflect the census of law enforcement agencies, which reports almost one-half (49%) of state and local law enforcement agencies have 10 or fewer officers (Reaves, 2011). The agency size of respondents by number of sworn personnel in the agency is described in Table 10.

Table 10

Size of Respondents Agency

Agency Size	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
1 - 10	27	1.9	1.9
11 – 20	125	8.7	10.5

Table 10 (*continued*)

Agency Size	<i>n</i>	%	Cumulative Percent
21 – 50	348	24.1	34.6
51- 75	174	12	46.7
76 – 100	124	8.6	55.3
101 – 250	274	19	74.2
250 – 500	119	8.2	82.5
Greater than 500	253	17.5	100
Total	1444	99.9	
No Response	1	0.1	
Total	1445	100	

Research Objective Two (RO2)

Research Objective Two determined the perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer motivation and their proactive approach to deterring crime. Responding to a nine-item survey, the Ferguson Effect Scale (Wolfe & Nix, 2016), participants answered questions regarding recent negative publicity surrounding law enforcement and their engagement at work. The FBINAA active duty law enforcement officers utilized a five-item Likert scale with responses ranging from 5 (*Strongly Agree*) to 1 (*Strongly Disagree*), to report the perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer job motivation and proactivity.

Five survey questions identified by Nix and Wolfe (2016) directly relate to perceptions of law enforcement officer motivation and a proactive approach to deterring crime. To determine if responses to Ferguson Effect motivation and proactivity questions were statistically different from the hypothesized mean of the Ferguson Effect Scale (15), a one-sample *t* test was calculated. Assumptions of a one-sample *t* test are that the data are continuous, independent, have no significant outliers, and are normally distributed (Laerd,2015).

An alpha level of .05 was selected for statistical significance (Huck, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). The alpha level describes the probability of committing a Type I error (where the null hypothesis is erroneously rejected). An alpha set at .05 indicates a confidence level of .95, or only five chances out of 100 the results are outside the mean of the population parameter in the long run (Huck, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012).

Responses for the Ferguson Effect Scale were statistically significantly higher ($M = 16.104$, $SD = 4.714$) than the hypothesized test value of 15 ($t(1,445) = 8.905$, $p < .001$). The responses for this question suggest FBINAA active duty law enforcement officers perceive the Ferguson Effect influences their work motivation and proactive approach to deterring crime. Table 11 presents statistics for the one-sample *t* Test.

Table 11

One-Sample Statistics

	<i>n</i>	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sum FES	1445	16.104	4.714

Table 12 reports results for the one-sample *t* Test.

Table 12

One-Sample t-Test

Test Value = 15			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Sum FES	8.905	1444	<.001

Research Objective Three (RO3)

Research Objective Three determined turnover intentions of FBINAA active duty law enforcement officers. A frequency distribution was used to examine questions from the Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). Each question regarding turnover intent was scored as a positive or negative for a perceived turnover intention, and a scoring key was provided. On a 5-point scale, for positive items, Strongly Agree is scored 5 and Strongly Disagree is scored 1. Conversely, for a negative item on that same 5-point scale, an item response of Strongly Agree is scored 1 and Strongly Disagree is scored 5. Scores for negative items were recoded in SPSS so all items were in the same direction in order to compute the mean.

For anticipated turnover intentions, a one-sample t-test was calculated to determine if responses were statistically different from the hypothesized mean of the Anticipated Turnover Scale (36). Assumptions of a one-sample *t* test are that the data are continuous, independent, have no significant outliers, and are normally distributed (Laerd,2015).

An alpha level of .05 was selected for statistical significance (Huck, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012). The alpha level describes the probability of committing a Type I error (where the null hypothesis is erroneously rejected). An alpha set at .05 indicates a confidence level of .95, or only five chances out of 100 the results are outside the mean of the population parameter in the long run (Huck, 2012; Sprinthall, 2012).

Results of the *t* Test showed the mean of the ATS scale was statistically significantly lower ($M = 34.755$, $SD = 3.238$) than the test value of 36 ($t(1,445) = -14.606$, $p < .001$). Table 13 presents statistics for the one-sample *t* test.

Table 13

One-Sample Statistics

	<i>n</i>	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sum ATS	1445	34.755	3.238

Table 14 reports the results of the one-sample *t*-test.

Table 14

One-Sample t-Test

Test Value = 36			
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Sum ATS	-14.606	1444	<.001

Research Objective Four (RO4)

Research Objective Four determined the relationship between the Ferguson Effect Scale and the Anticipated Turnover Scale. In order to assess this relationship, a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed. Assumptions for a Pearson correlation are there are two continuous paired variables, there is a linear relationship between the variables, and there are no significant outliers (Laerd, 2015). There was a small negative correlation between the Ferguson Effect Scale and the Anticipated Turnover Scale, $r(1443) = -.110, p < .001$. Table 15 shows the results of the correlation analysis.

Table 15

Correlations

		Sum FES
Sum ATS	Pearson Correlation	-.110*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	<i>n</i>	1445

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

Summary

Chapter IV presented the results of a quantitative study to determine the perceived influence of the Ferguson Effect on active duty law enforcement officers, and if those perceptions are correlated to intentions to leave their jobs. The study used two established, reliable, and valid instruments, the Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984, and the Ferguson Effect Scale (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Population for the study was active duty law enforcement officers of the FBI National Academy Associates ($n = 1,445$). The study survey was administered electronically through the email list of the FBINAA. Results were analyzed using SPSS, version 24, and Microsoft Excel, version 14.

Results of the study indicate the Ferguson Effect Scale items were perceived as affecting motivation and proactive work habits of officers in the study population. In analyzing the data from the Anticipated Turnover Scale variables, respondents in the population did not anticipate leaving their jobs. Correlation analysis found a “weak” (Huck, 2012, p. 49) negative correlation between the Ferguson Effect and anticipated turnover with the population. A discussion of the findings and conclusions from Chapter IV are found in Chapter V, along with implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER V – SUMMARY

The preceding chapters discussed the phenomenon known as the Ferguson Effect and the perceptions of law enforcement officers regarding the Ferguson Effect influence on turnover intentions. This chapter discusses the findings and conclusions of this study as well as study limitations. The researcher proposes additional areas for study and confirms the need for future research.

Introduction

A police officer involved shooting in Ferguson, MO in 2014 brought forth a wave of negative news publicity and social media outrage that challenged the very legitimacy of law enforcement (Wolfe & Nix, 2016). Despite grand jury investigations and a U.S. Department of Justice (2015) report on the federal government's investigation into the shooting of Michael Brown by Officer Darren Wilson of the Ferguson, MO Police Department, a steady flow of negative reporting and social media hyperbole continues to this day. The New York Times has an entire section devoted to "Police Misconduct, Brutality and Shootings," publishing 22 articles in March 2017 alone (<https://www.nytimes.com/topic/subject/police-brutality-misconduct-and-shootings>). Wolfe & Nix (2016) posit the volume of negative news reporting and social media comments challenge the very legitimacy of law enforcement. Barak, Nissly, and Levin (2001) found a lack of social support has been shown to be a predictor of employee turnover. The possibility of a Ferguson Effect on turnover intentions formed the basis of this study.

Wolfe & Nix (2016) identified specific variables to illustrate a Ferguson Effect and its relationship to police willingness to engage in community partnerships. Wolfe and Nix note some authors believe the Ferguson Effect leads to “de-policing” and higher crime rates (Mac Donald, 2015; Sutton, 2015). Rosenfeld (2015) studied violent crime rates in St. Louis, MO before and after the Ferguson incident and concluded no Ferguson Effect influence on crime rates. Determining if public exposure to police actions influences law enforcement officer motivation and a proactive approach to their duties was one of the goals of this study.

This study had three main objectives: determine the Ferguson Effect influence on law enforcement officer motivation and proactive approach to their duties; determine law enforcement officer intent to leave their current job; and determine the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and turnover intentions. The Ferguson Effect Scale (Wolfe & Nix, 2016) was used to measure Ferguson Effect influences. Responses were reported using a 5-item Likert type scale with responses ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Turnover intentions were measured using the 12-item Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984). As with the Ferguson Effect Scale, responses were reported using a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. In order to determine the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and turnover intentions, Pearson’s product moment correlation coefficient was calculated. The

population was active United States members of the FBI National Academy Associates, an organization of graduates of the FBI National Academy.

The Ferguson Effect

This study uses the definition of the Ferguson Effect as first coined by St. Louis Police Chief Sam Dotson (Byers, 2014) to describe an increase in violent crime and decreased arrests. Wolfe and Nix (2016) expanded this definition by saying the phenomenon includes an awareness of negative publicity by police officers, leading to their decreased motivation and lessened desire to carry out proactive policing tasks. For this study, perceptions of Ferguson Effect influence on law enforcement officer motivation and proactivity was examined through the use of the Ferguson Effect Scale developed by Wolfe and Nix.

Findings

The Ferguson Effect used five of the nine items from the Ferguson Effect Scale (Wolfe & Nix, 2016) to measure law enforcement officer motivation and proactive approach to police work. The responses were based on a five-point Likert type scale, ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* and were summed to produce a mean score. A one-sample *t* test was conducted on responses to evaluate whether their mean was statistically different from the hypothesized test value of 15. A *t* statistic below the hypothesized mean would indicate the lack of a relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement motivation, and a *t* statistic above the hypothesized mean would indicate a positive relationship between the Ferguson Effect and law enforcement

officer motivation. The *t* test found the five Ferguson Effect scale questions for motivation and proactive policing were above the hypothesized mean of 15, which suggests the Ferguson Effect is perceived as affecting the motivation and proactivity of law enforcement officers. These results are similar to the findings of Wolfe and Nix (2016) and Nix and Wolfe (2016) who found officers are less willing to engage in community partnerships due to the Ferguson Effect.

Conclusion

The results of the study indicate that law enforcement officers are aware of negative publicity surrounding their activities. This awareness has a negative impact on their job motivation and approach to proactive policing efforts. The results also indicate officers perceive the Ferguson Effect as influencing their use of force, even though that force may be within departmental and legal guidelines.

Recommendation

As an extrinsic dissatisfier (Herzberg, 1959), working conditions affect the motivation of employees to do their job. This study concluded the Ferguson Effect can serve to demotivate law enforcement officers. Law enforcement administrators can help shield officers from the negative aspects of the Ferguson Effect by being fair, honest, and objective with their officers (Nix & Wolfe, 2016). According to Wolfe and Nix (2016), it is important that officers know that their administration supports their (lawful) actions even when the public does not. Rewarding good behavior through public recognition of proper procedure or giving awards for a job well done can boost morale and demonstrate

administration support for officers who follow the rules regardless of public opinion.

Anticipated Turnover

Unwanted turnover is expensive and robs an organization of talent (Moblely, 1982; Wilson, Dalton, Scheer, & Grammich, 2010; Wilson & Grammich, 2009; Wilson, Rostker, & Fan, 2010). Organizations may not know they have a turnover problem, or do not understand what the loss of talent means to the success of the organization. This section identifies turnover intentions of respondents in an effort to identify anticipated turnover intentions among law enforcement officers.

Findings

Anticipated turnover intentions were measured utilizing the Anticipated Turnover Scale (Hinshaw & Atwood, 1984), 12 items scored on a 5-point Likert type scale with responses ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Responses were summed and averaged for a hypothesized mean of 36. Using a one-sample *t* test in SPSS, it was found the mean of the Anticipated Turnover Scale was less than the hypothesized test value of 36, suggesting a lessened intent to leave the job.

Conclusion

The results of the anticipated turnover questions found this cohort was less likely to leave the job. Several respondents communicated with the researcher during the study of their plans to retire, and the potential for the

survey to be skewed if many other respondents were similarly situated. This concern was not supported by the results.

Recommendation

Given that turnover intentions are most prevalent with lesser tenured employees (Dychtwald et al., 2006; Koper et al., 2001; Yearwood & Freeman, 2004), administrators should be aware that their officers may have different responses. It would behoove staff officers to analyze their individual turnover trends in an effort to mitigate the effects of external factors on officer turnover.

Ferguson Effect Influence on Turnover Intentions

This study examined the Ferguson Effect perceived influence on law enforcement officer turnover intentions. There is a paucity of literature that discusses law enforcement officer turnover (Monk-Turner, O'Leary, & Sumter, 2010; Wareham, Smith, & Lambert, 2013), and current literature is limited to turnover factors such as job dissatisfaction and monetary issues as reasons to leave an agency (Cyprian, 2009; Hubbard, 2008; McIntyre, 1990). Given the overall lack of empirical data on law enforcement officer turnover coupled with the newly established phenomenon (the Ferguson Effect), this study presents unexplored information for consideration of turnover intentions by law enforcement officers.

Findings

To determine the relationship between the Ferguson Effect and turnover intentions, a Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed.

Results of the Pearson product moment correlation determined a statistically significant relationship between each of the FES variables and the ATS variable, but demonstrated a “weak” (Huck, 2012, p. 49) negative correlation between the two. These findings suggest that turnover with this cohort was not influenced by the presence of the Ferguson Effect.

Conclusion

The relationship between the Ferguson Effect is shown to be “weakly” correlated (Huck, 2012, p. 49) with anticipated turnover for this population. Results indicated that as responses for the Ferguson Effect increased, turnover intentions decreased.

Recommendation

There is a lessened intent to leave with this cohort, which consists primarily of tenured, senior officers. These officers hold a tremendous amount of institutional knowledge and operational experience that bring value to the organization. Administrators should recognize this value and employ succession planning to prepare subordinates for assuming command.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of a study are things outside the researcher’s control. According to Roberts (2010, p. 162), “Limitations in research are items that may negatively affect the results of a study or the ability to generalize.” The population for this study is sworn law enforcement officers who agree to participate and the cooperation of the FBINAA in facilitating the distribution of the survey instrument.

The results may or may not be representative of law enforcement officers in agencies other than those surveyed. As the population consists of veteran law enforcement officers, respondents may be nearing retirement age, which may be reflected in the survey section that examines turnover intent. Self-report bias is a known limitation in survey research as respondents may not respond truthfully (Hagan, 2010a). The study is also limited because it presents information on a new phenomenon, the Ferguson Effect, which is just beginning to be explored.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this study shed additional light on a contemporary phenomenon, it also raised additional questions. Additional research in a variety of areas where the Ferguson Effect may show influence on law enforcement officer motivation is recommended:

- Replicate the study with less senior officers. The cohort in this study is senior, tenured officers who represent a demographic dissimilar to the majority population of most police agencies.
- Examine the family influence on law enforcement officer turnover intentions. This study used the perceptions of officers, but the researcher believes the family plays a role in an officer's decision to leave a job or stay.
- Examine minority perceptions of the influence the Ferguson Effect has on turnover intentions. As recent research by the Pew Center shows, minority officers have views on police-community interaction that differ from the views held by white officers (Morin, et al., 2017).

- Investigate the relationship between the cost of turnover and the Ferguson Effect.
- Examine the perception of officer safety as it relates to the Ferguson Effect. While not a direct objective of the research objectives, officer safety is a concern with proactive police work. Officers may feel by reducing proactive patrols they lessen the threat of violent confrontation. As safety is one of the most basic human needs identified by Maslow (1943), a more detailed investigation may yield additional information.

Summary

Unwanted employee turnover is costly, not only in terms of financial loss, but human capital knowledge and talent loss as well. An investment in people is critical for an organization's success (Becker, 1962). Understanding reasons behind turnover helps organizations develop procedures that can mitigate losses. When a new phenomenon appears, such as the Ferguson Effect, organizations need information that exposes variables previously unknown. The purpose of this study was to examine the Ferguson Effect and its relationship to law enforcement officer motivation and proactive policing efforts.

The Ferguson Effect can lead to dissatisfaction with a career in law enforcement as evidenced by the results of this study. Several hygiene components of Herzberg et al.'s (1959) two-factor theory are confirmed, including working conditions and safety. Law enforcement agency administrators have an opportunity to provide a balance to the effect's negative aspects. If law

enforcement productivity lags because of demotivation, administrators can develop rewards for jobs well done or provide a more welcoming workplace for demoralized officers. Employees seek out opportunities that are best for them personally, and will respond positively to administration outreach (Varoom, 1964).

This study investigates just one aspect of a contemporary phenomenon. The body of literature on the Ferguson Effect is very shallow, with much to be learned about changes our society is undergoing. Probative scientific investigation is critical if law enforcement organizations and the public are to understand the ramifications of an avalanche of often negative publicity, coupled with freely posted anecdotal stories on social media. Bad cops are unwanted in every police organization, but not every officer involved shooting or perceived excessive use of force rises to the level of criminal activity. More scientific research into officer use of force incidents is necessary to provide objective information for a highly emotional environment.

Until 2014, violent crime rates in the United States were on a 20-year decline (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016). Law enforcement buzz-words such as “community policing” and “problem-solving” were codified in policies and mission statements, largely due to a single article in *The Atlantic Monthly*, titled “Broken Windows” (Wilson & Kelling, 1982). The Broken Windows article presented theories that said traditional law enforcement techniques which relied solely on enforcement and maintenance of “law and order” were not working.

Wilson and Kelling looked at “quality of life” issues and said law enforcement officers have a role in not only enforcing the law, but making sure quality of life issues are addressed. Law enforcement agencies began assigning officers to community policing beats or designating specific community policing who worked closely with community leaders to solve not only crime problems, but activities that detracted from a community’s peace and tranquility. Perhaps the most emblematic embodiment of the problem-solving role of police was the Quality of Life Unit of the New York Police Department, established by Police Commissioner Ray Kelly (Kilgannon, 2010). One of this unit’s assignments was to disband the many “squeegee men” who accosted drivers by cleaning their windshields and demanding money. This quality of life issue was solved by arresting offenders, and overall crime decreased, despite no direct link to the arrest of the squeegee men and dropping crime rates.

Community policing placed police officers in non-traditional roles in the community and made them less of a threat to arrest or harass citizens. This changed on August 9, 2014 when a Ferguson, MO police officer shot and killed Michael Brown. It is too early to determine if violent crime rates are on a long-term rise, as data from the FBI is always a year behind. But, 2015 UCR totals reflect a 3.1% increase in violent crime rates over the 2014 figures (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2016). This and other studies (Wolfe & Nix, 2016; Nix and Wolfe, 2016) demonstrate that police officers perceive the Ferguson Effect as a legitimate phenomenon and it affects the way they do their jobs. The United

States needs good, dedicated officers who feel they can partner with the community to solve problems, and not officers who develop a bunker mentality because they feel constantly under attack by both the media and the public. Solutions to the problem of a divisive and toxic atmosphere of police and community relations must be found to make communities safer for all.

APPENDIX A – AOM Permission for Figure 2



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Title: Some Unanswered Questions in Turnover and Withdrawal Research

Author: William H. Mobley

Publication: The Academy of Management Review

Publisher: Academy of Management

Date: Jan 1, 1982

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APPENDIX B – IRB Approval Letter



THE UNIVERSITY OF
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NOTICE OF COMMITTEE ACTION

The project has been reviewed by The University of Southern Mississippi Institutional Review Board in accordance with Federal Drug Administration regulations (21 CFR 26, 111), Department of Health and Human Services (45 CFR Part 46), and university guidelines to ensure adherence to the following criteria:

- The risks to subjects are minimized.
- The risks to subjects are reasonable in relation to the anticipated benefits.
- The selection of subjects is equitable.
- Informed consent is adequate and appropriately documented.
- Where appropriate, the research plan makes adequate provisions for monitoring the data collected to ensure the safety of the subjects.
- Where appropriate, there are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of all data.
- Appropriate additional safeguards have been included to protect vulnerable subjects.
- Any unanticipated, serious, or continuing problems encountered regarding risks to subjects must be reported immediately, but not later than 10 days following the event. This should be reported to the IRB Office via the "Adverse Effect Report Form".
- If approved, the maximum period of approval is limited to twelve months.
Projects that exceed this period must submit an application for renewal or continuation.

PROTOCOL NUMBER: 17011903

PROJECT TITLE: Perceived Influence on the Ferguson Effect on Law Enforcement Officer Turnover Intentions

PROJECT TYPE: New Project

RESEARCHER(S): William P. Markopoulos

COLLEGE/DIVISION: College of Science and Technology

DEPARTMENT: Human Capital Development

FUNDING AGENCY/SPONSOR: N/A

IRB COMMITTEE ACTION: Expedited Review Approval

PERIOD OF APPROVAL: 01/31/2017 to 01/30/2018

Lawrence A. Hosman, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX C – Study Survey

LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER TURNOVER INTENTIONS BASED ON PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF FERGUSON EFFECT

Anticipated Turnover Among Law Enforcement Officers
William P. Markopoulos
University of Southern Mississippi
Department of Human Capital Development
228-239-8082 william.markopoulos@usm.edu

PERCEIVED INFLUENCE OF THE FERGUSON EFFECT ON LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICER TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Online Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research survey about perceived influences of the Ferguson Effect on law enforcement officer turnover intentions. Your participation will require approximately 10 minutes and is completed online at your computer. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this survey. Benefits to taking this survey include sharing opinions with law enforcement colleagues about a very important, contemporary topic. Also, by participating in this survey, the body of knowledge on law enforcement officer turnover is enhanced, as is a greater understanding of the Ferguson Effect. An anonymous drawing for one of three \$25 amazon.com gift cards will be available for entry at the end of the survey.

Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to be in the study, you can withdraw at any time. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential, and digital data will be collected anonymously. Data in any report of this research that is made available to the public will be aggregated and will not include your name or any other individual information by which you could be identified. If you have questions or want a copy or summary of this study's results, you can contact the researcher at the email address above. Questions concerning the research, at any time during or after the project, should be directed to the researcher at the email address or phone number above. This project and this consent form have been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal regulations. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research participant should be directed to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, The University of Southern Mississippi, 118 College Drive #5147, Hattiesburg, MS 39406-0001, (601) 266-5997.

CLICKING THE "NEXT" BUTTON BELOW INDICATES YOUR CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS SURVEY.

Section 1 Directions: These questions describe the participant completing this survey.
For each item below, select the appropriate response.

Q1 Age

- 18 to 24 years
- 25 to 34 years
- 35 to 44 years
- 45 to 54 years
- 55 to 64 years
- Age 65 or older

Q2 Gender

- Male
- Female

Q3 Race

- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian
- Black/African American
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- White
- Other

Q4 Ethnicity

- Hispanic
- Non-Hispanic

Q5 Rank

- Patrol Officer/Deputy
- Corporal
- Sergeant
- Lieutenant
- Captain
- Major
- Lt. Colonel
- Colonel/Inspector/Commander
- Assistant/Deputy Chief/Chief Deputy
- Chief/Sheriff
- Other

Q6 Highest Level of Education Obtained

- High School Diploma/G.E.D.
- Some College
- Associate's Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Specialist's Degree
- Doctorate
- Juris Doctorate

Q7 Years on Active Duty

- 1 – 5
- 6 – 10
- 11 – 15
- 16 – 20
- 20 – 25
- 25 – 30
- More than 30 years

Q8 Agency Type

- Municipal
- County/Parish
- State
- Federal

Q9 Agency size by number of sworn officers

- 1-10
- 11 – 20
- 21 – 50
- 51- 75
- 76 – 100
- 101 – 250
- 250 – 500
- Greater than 500

Q10 I am currently employed as a sworn law enforcement officer by a United States law enforcement agency.

- Yes
- No

Section 2 Directions: These questions seek to determine the participants' perceptions regarding how recent negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has affected them. Please select the level of agreement or disagreement for each item (Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

Q11 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has made it more difficult to do my job.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q12 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has made it more dangerous to be a law enforcement officer.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q13 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has forced some U.S. law enforcement agencies to make policy changes that ultimately threaten officer safety.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q14 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has made it more difficult to be motivated at work.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q15 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has caused me to be less proactive on the job than I was in the past.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q16 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has caused me to be more apprehensive about using force even though it may be necessary.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q17 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has caused me to be less likely to want to work with community members to solve local problems.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q18 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has negatively impacted the way I do my job.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q19 Over the past year, negative publicity surrounding law enforcement has made it less enjoyable to have a career in law enforcement.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Section 3 Directions: These questions seek to determine the participants' intentions to leave their law enforcement agency. Please select the level of agreement or disagreement for each item (Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

Q20 I plan to stay in my position a while.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q21 I am quite sure I will leave my position in the foreseeable future.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q22 Deciding to stay or leave my position is not a critical issue for me at this point in time.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q23 I know whether or not I'll be leaving this agency within a short time.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q24 If I got another job offer tomorrow, I would give it serious consideration.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q25 I have no intentions of leaving my present position.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q26 I have been in my position about as long as I want to.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q27 I am certain I will be staying here a while.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q28 I don't have any specific idea how much longer I will stay.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q29 I plan to hang on to this job a while.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q30 There are big doubts in my mind as to whether or not I will really stay in this agency.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Q31 I plan to leave this position shortly.

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Once you click the "NEXT" button your responses will be recorded. To be considered for one of three \$25 Amazon.com gift certificates, and/or to obtain results of the research study, please click on link below before you click "NEXT" to record your responses (a new window opens):

https://usmuw.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_cCH3fYsa0ejbywB

Thank you for your participation.

This project has been reviewed by the Human Subjects Protection Review Committee, which ensures that research projects involving human subjects follow federal guidelines. Any questions or concerns about rights as a research subject should be directed to the Director of Research and Sponsored Programs, The University of Southern Mississippi, Box 5157, Hattiesburg MS 39406, (601) 266-4119. Once the research project has been completed, this survey and corresponding data will be destroyed. If you have any questions about this research, you may call Bill Markopoulos at (228) 239-8082.

APPENDIX D – Permission to use the Anticipated Turnover Scale

Outlook.com Print Message

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Re: Anticipated Turnover Scale

From: atwoodj@comcast.net
Sent: Wed 7/13/16 10:30 PM
To: william.markopoulos@eagles.usm.edu

Dear Doctoral Candidate Marcopoulos,

Dr. Hinshaw and I would be most happy for you to use the ATS scale. If you do not already have them, we will send you gratis the ATS Scale with its validity and reliability information in our samples, scoring key, references and copyright information. Other scales turnover researchers have found interesting include work satisfaction, nursing job satisfaction, job stress, control over practice and others related to variables predictive of turnover. The same mechanism is used for all: gratis email. Please advise.

Sincerely,
JRAtwood, PhD,RN, FAAN

Sent from XFINITY Connect Mobile App

-----Original Message-----

From: william.markopoulos@eagles.usm.edu
To: atwoodj@comcast.net
Cc:
Sent: 2016-07-13 5:00:46 PM
Subject: Anticipated Turnover Scale

Good evening, Dr. Atwood. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Southern Mississippi, researching turnover among law enforcement officers as my dissertation. In conducting my research I discovered the Anticipated Turnover Scale used by you and Dr. Hinshaw, and I would like to use this instrument in my dissertation. All proper attribution will of course be given, and if you desire, a copy of my finished paper. Please let me know if you have any questions, or need further information.

Thank you,
Bill Markopoulos

<https://col127.mail.live.com/ol/mail.mvc/PrintMessages?mkt=en-us>

8/22/2016

APPENDIX E – Permission to use the Ferguson Effect Scale

Outlook.com Print Message

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RE: Ferguson Effect Research

From: **WOLFE, SCOTT** (SWOLFE@mailbox.sc.edu)

Sent: Wed 7/20/16 10:30 AM

To: 'Bill Markopoulos' (william.markopoulos@eagles.usm.edu)

5 attachments

2016_Nix_Wolfe_Sensitivity to Ferguson_JCJ.pdf (347.6 KB) , 2016_Pyrooz et al_Ferguson effect crime_JCJ.pdf (984.7 KB) , 2016_Nix_Wolfe_Negative publicity self-legitimacy_JQ.pdf (393.9 KB) , 2016_Rosenfeld_Ferguson_effect_NCJRS.pdf (7.9 MB) , 2016_Morgan_Pally_Ferguson_Gray_Davis_JHU_report.pdf (2041.8 KB)

Hello Bill,

Thanks for reaching out. You are welcome to use our survey instruments from the paper. Thank you for asking.

Also, I attached a few articles (by myself and others) that deal with the Ferguson Effect in case you haven't come across them yet.

Good luck with your research. Glad to see others are trying to address the debate with science!

Best,

Scott

Scott Wolfe, PhD

Assistant Professor

Director South Carolina Law Enforcement Census

University of South Carolina

Department of Criminology and Criminal Justice

<https://col127.mail.live.com/ol/mail.mvc/PrintMessages?mkt=en-us>

8/22/2016

APPENDIX F – Agreement from FBINAA to Distribute Survey



FBINAA
FBI National Academy Associates, Inc.

Academy Office:

FBINAA
FBI Academy, Bldg 8 Room 102
Quantico, VA 22135
PH: 703-632-1990 • FAX: 703-632-1993

January 24, 2017

Jo Ann Johnson
Institutional Review Board and Integrity Assurance Program Manager
The University of Southern Mississippi
VIA E-mail

Dear Ms. Johnson:

This letter will confirm that the FBINAA will support Mr. William Markopoulos in the distribution of a survey for "Perceived Influence on the Ferguson Effect on Law Enforcement Officer Turnover Intentions."

The survey will be advertised to our US members, soliciting their participation.

Regards,

Steve Tidwell
Executive Director
FBI National Academy Associates, Inc.

CC: Mr. William Markopoulos

The World's Strongest Law Enforcement Network
www.fbinaa.org

The FBI National Academy Associates is a private non-profit organization and is not part of the Federal Bureau of Investigation or acting on its behalf.

APPENDIX G – Introduction to Survey



FBINAA

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc.

Dear FBINAA Member:

Next week you will receive a request to fill out a brief survey in support of an important research project being conducted by a fellow NA graduate and doctoral candidate at the University of Southern Mississippi in partial fulfillment for the requirement of obtaining a PhD. The survey is being sent to all NA graduates who have an email address on file with the FBINAA and will ask questions regarding the Ferguson Effect and any perceived intentions you may have to leave your agency. The survey is completely anonymous and should take no more than 10 minutes of your time. Entry into a drawing for a small incentive will be offered if you choose to enter.

Thank you in advance for your time. Your contribution to the body of research regarding the important and timely topic of the Ferguson Effect is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Bill Markopoulos
FBINA 170
University of Southern Mississippi
Department of Human Capital Development
william.markopoulos@usm.edu
228-239-8082

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc., FBI Academy, Quantico, VA 22135

APPENDIX H – Survey Link



FBINAA

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc.

Dear FBINAA Member:

As mentioned in my E-mail to you last week, this is my request for you to complete the Ferguson Effect turnover intention survey. The survey may be accessed by either clicking on this link (you may have to press cntrl and then click) or copying and pasting the entire link address into your browser address bar: https://usmuw.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_9oZSNnFkLlig8PH

As a reminder, participation is voluntary, and all responses are completely anonymous. The link is uniquely tied to this survey; please do not forward this message or share with anyone. The deadline for submission is February 20, 2017. Again, thank you for your participation!

Sincerely,

Bill Markopoulos
FBINA 170
University of Southern Mississippi
Department of Human Capital Development
william.markopoulos@usm.edu
[228-239-8082](tel:228-239-8082)

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc., FBI Academy, Quantico, VA 22135

APPENDIX I – Reminder for Survey



FBINAA

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc.

Dear FBINAA Member:

Last week I sent you an E-mail link to a questionnaire that asked you about the Ferguson Effect and any intentions to leave your agency. If you already responded, thank you for your participation. If you have not yet responded, I ask that you do so because the opinion of every officer is important, and only by obtaining a sufficient number of responses can I ensure that the results of the survey are accurate.

In case the original E-mail containing the link was inadvertently discarded, please follow this link: https://usmuw.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_9oZSNnFkLlJg8PH and complete the questionnaire by February 20, 2017. Be assured that all responses are completely confidential and no identifying information is captured. This survey is completely voluntary, but highly encouraged. Thank you for taking the time to participate in this important study.

Sincerely,
Bill Markopoulos
FBINA 170
University of Southern Mississippi
Department of Human Capital Development
william.markopoulos@usm.edu
[228-239-8082](tel:228-239-8082)

FBI National Academy Associates, Inc., FBI Academy, Quantico, VA 22135

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