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The IPSA Journal includes manuscripts from current and retired public safety professionals.

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Editor's Note

By Heather R. Cotter, IPSA Executive Director, Founder and Editor-in-Chief



Thank you for your interest in the **Second Edition** of the *IPSA Journal*. This scholarly resource is available to all public safety professionals. The IPSA was fortunate to have several public safety authors and peer reviewers contribute to this executive-level, peer-reviewed publication.

The *IPSA Journal* is an opportunity for individuals interested in scholarly research and writing about public safety for public safety. It's an opportunity to publish manuscripts about leadership issues and best practices applicable to all facets of public safety. Our readers represent the entire public safety community: law enforcement, fire service, EMS, telecommunications, public works (water, sanitation, and transportation), public health, hospitals, security, private sector, and emergency management. In this Second Edition, readers will see the following peer-reviewed manuscripts:

1. ***Victim Services Best Practices: The Aftermath of a Mass Violence Incident* by Kathryn H. Floyd, Ph.D., John Montes, Jamie Pianka and J. Scott Quirarte**
2. ***Deliberate Gender Selection to Overcome Unconscious Bias* by Keith Toomey**
3. ***Benefits of Higher Education for Public Safety* by Gregory L. Walterhouse**
4. ***Examination of Factors for Workplace Satisfaction of Millennial-Aged Police Officers* by Jim DeLung, Ph.D. (Reprinted with permission).**

Each manuscript was fully researched by the authors, includes a detailed literature review, offers key discussion points and they were all peer-reviewed. The IPSA has a systematic process in place for approval, rejection and resubmissions of manuscripts. The IPSA enlists peer reviewers

made up of public safety practitioners and academicians with experience in scholarly writing to review all manuscripts.

It is the IPSA's vision to continually accept manuscripts and to release future editions of the *IPSA Journal*. We seek quality manuscripts from all public safety professionals, and I encourage you to download and review the IPSA Manuscript Guidelines, use the *IPSA Journal* Template and submit a manuscript to us for publication consideration. There is so much knowledge to share within and between each public safety discipline.

Stay safe,

Heather R. Cotter

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Victim Services Best Practices: The Aftermath of a Mass Violence Incident

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Victim Services Best Practices: The Aftermath of a Mass Violence Incident

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Abstract

This paper addresses the best practices in the victim services field to prepare for and respond to a mass violence or active shooter incident. While these attacks typically only last a few minutes, the road to recovery for victims, to include first responders and those vicariously traumatized, will take much longer. Two resources, based on best practices and related studies, provide a blueprint for communities and may become part of a national standard for mass violence victim services. In August 2015, the Office for Victims of Crime (OVC), U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), released the Mass Violence Toolkit (MVT). Now facing public comment, NFPA 3000 is the forthcoming “Standard for an Active Shooter/Hostile Event Response (ASHER)” Program. Both the MVT and NFPA 3000 emphasize the need to engage in emergency planning, anticipate traumatized victims, and cultivate resiliency. This article is devoted to a discussion on several best practices as identified by the MVT and adopted by NFPA 3000. In particular, we examine victim protocols, the victim assistance timeline, victim reunification and notification, communications, family assistance and community resiliency centers, volunteer and donation management, and criminal justice system support.

Keywords: active shooter, mass violence, NFPA 3000, recovery, resilience, terrorism, vicarious trauma, victim

Introduction

In the span of approximately ten years, the American homeland has witnessed deadly mass violence incidents with steadily increasing casualties. The top five shootings, at the time of publication, are shocking. The 2017 Las Vegas shooter targeted concertgoers at the Route 91 Harvest music festival, killing 58 and wounding more than 800. The 2016 Orlando shooter attacked Pulse nightclub, killing 49 and injuring more than 50. In 2007, a student killed two in a residence hall and then chained shut the doors of Norris Hall at Virginia Tech, killing a further 30 and wounding more than 20. Twenty-seven children, teachers, and the perpetrator's mother lost their lives in the 2012 Sandy Hook shooting, while 26 individuals died and 20 more were injured in the 2017 Sutherland Springs church attack.¹ In each of these examples, a male with at least one weapon, to include a semi-automatic weapon, was the perpetrator. Going back further, the victims of 1995 Oklahoma City Bombing and 9/11 attacks were mourned as the nation grappled with two very different types of terrorism. There is no evidence to suggest these attacks will cease, or that the number of victims will significantly decrease. This article addresses the best practices in the victim services field to prepare for and respond to a mass violence or an active shooter incident.²

While there are many definitions of mass violence perpetrators and active shooters, the scope here within includes one or more individuals actively engaged in harming, killing, or attempting to kill people in a populated area, which is derived from the *Investigative Assistance for Violent Crimes Act of 2012*. In the case of an active shooter, a firearm would be present. While the perpetrator may choose a variety of locations, several rank higher than others.

¹ These numbers do not include the death of the shooter.

² This article does not cover deaths or injuries resulting from gang or drug violence, or other gun-related shootings that do not appear to be connected to mass violence.

According to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (Blair, 2014), businesses and schools are the primary targets and account for 7 out of 10 active shootings, though government properties, open spaces, residents, houses of worship, and health care facilities are also targets. As stated by the *Crime Victims Right Act* (2004), a victim is someone directly or proximately harmed in the incident/crime as the result of a criminal offense. The victims vary widely in age and come from diverse races, religions, and socioeconomic backgrounds, according to *The Washington Post* (2017). In addition to the deceased, victims include those with physical, psychological, and emotional injuries, as well as their families and close friends.

Through the help of programs like the Advance Law Enforcement Rapid Response Training (ALERRT) and Run, Hide, Fight, first responders and those on the scene are better able to quickly respond, possibly minimizing loss of life.³ In some instances, unarmed or armed individuals who were not law enforcement restrained or killed the perpetrator (Blair, 2014). Further, civilians and bystanders are becoming better trained to assist victims thanks to campaigns like “Stop the Bleed,” which was launched by the White House in October 2015. On average, the incident is five minutes or less, with many lasting two minutes or less, though some perpetrators will take their own lives prior to being restrained, shot, or captured by law enforcement or others (Blair, 2014). The road to recovery for the victims, to include the first responders and those vicariously traumatized, will take decades longer.

Literature Review

From the moment the incident begins to long after the media cameras have turned away, victim recovery is paramount. This requires advance planning founded upon best practices. While there are a great number of studies on trauma, mass violence, and/or terrorism more

³ This is not an endorsement of either program, but rather two examples. Many other programs exist.

generally, there are far fewer that directly look at the victims, to include the long-term effects of such incidents. That said, several do merit mention in the areas of emergency planning, trauma, and resiliency.

Whether it is an earthquake or weapon of mass destruction, careful planning likely saves lives and—insofar as it is possible—minimizes damage. In some instances, the disbursement of federal disaster funds is tied to mitigation planning, as in the case of the Robert T. Stafford Disaster Relief and Emergency Assistance Act (Stafford Act, 1988). Yet, emergency planning with respect to mass violence often is incomplete and riddled with inefficiencies, gaps, and duplication of efforts. A national preparedness survey examined mass casualty incident preparedness in schools, finding that important deficiencies exist especially in rural districts (Graham, 2006). These deficits are not unique to more remote areas and vulnerabilities exist across the country in many disparate environments. Very promising, however, are the great strides in planning that have been made in other areas, especially all-hazard and mitigation emergency planning, by integrating disaster management and community planning with public participation (Pearce, 2003). This is especially true in cities, where hazard mitigation requires increased collaboration by many parties specific to the area (Godschalk, 2003). Emergency planning committees who have resources, community support, and a good team climate are likely to be more effective (Lindell, 1995). In addition, improvisation, adaptability, and creativity may be critical to coordination, collaboration, communication, and problem-solving in a disaster situation (Harrald, 2006).

Relevant to trauma and victimization, there are a number of theoretical and empirical findings about various types of trauma, to include crime and disasters. Looking at emotional, cognitive, biological, behavioral, and interpersonal responses, complex relationships exist among

traumatic experiences that impact the person's ability to feel safe, trust, have power, maintain esteem, achieve intimacy, and psychologically adapt (McCann, 1988). Other studies also point to long-term, intricate effects of trauma on the individual. In "The Body Keeps the Score," different types of trauma, including a war environment, are studied as to the impact on the body and brain, which can affect the person's ability to recover and experience pleasure, engage, exhibit self-control, and trust (van der Kolk, 2015). The "Impact of Mass Shootings on Survivors, Families, and Communities" found that anywhere from 10% to 36% of victims would receive a serious postdisaster diagnosis (predominantly PTSD), while many more would exhibit sub-threshold PTSD. Those not directly affected may exhibit similar signs of trauma and stress to people who survived other types of disasters (Norris, 2007).

First responders may also experience negative memories and psychological responses that change over time (Karlsson, 2006). These studies are consistent with findings by the National Crime Victims Research and Treatment Center's (NCVRTC) examination of the 1992 Los Angeles Civil Disturbances, the 1988 Pam Am Flight 103 terrorist bombing, and the 9/11 World Trade Center terrorist attack (Brazzell, 2017). However, psychological interventions can help. Following the 2007 Virginia Tech shooting, the provision of safe havens, prompt and accurate information, strong partnerships, services for caretakers, and the importance of resolution all aided in trauma recovery, though there were initial obstacles (Heil, 2008). The challenge, therefore, is to plan for the likely physical and emotional effects of trauma on many victims, including those who were not on scene, and thus facilitate recovery.

Recovery goes hand in hand with resiliency. "Conceptualizing and Measuring Organizational and Community Resilience: Lessons From the Emergency Response Following The September 11, 2001 Attack on the World Trade Center" found that resiliency consists of

technical, organizational, social, and economic elements (Tierney, 2013). The ability to be resourceful after an incident not only allows an entity to respond appropriately but enables a timelier recovery. Resiliency does not need to be innate, however. “Community Resilience: An Indicator of Social Sustainability” identifies how communities can actively build capacity and create or engage social sustainability through relationships and practice (Magis, 2010). These points are echoed in “Community Resilience as a Metaphor, Theory, Set of Capacities, and Strategy for Disaster Readiness” (Norris, 2007). Building resiliency is key to recovery.

Complementing this research, two resources, based on best practices and related studies, provide a blueprint for communities and may become part of a national standard for mass violence victim services. In August 2015, the Office for Victims of Crime (OVC), U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), released the Mass Violence Toolkit (MVT) in coordination with the FBI’s Office for Victim Assistance and the DOJ’s Office of Justice for Victims of Overseas Terrorism (OVC, 2015).⁴ More than four dozen organizations gave input, including American Red Cross, Federal Emergency Management Association, International Association of Chiefs of Police, National Governor’s Association, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, and—perhaps most importantly—the communities and responders from those areas who had been affected by a mass violence incident.

The combined knowledge and lessons learned resulted in robust checklists, samples, a glossary, and compendium of resources that all combine to cover planning through response and recovery. This toolkit helps communities to develop a comprehensive victim assistance plan, bring key partners together to review existing emergency plans and to initiate or continue the development of a victim assistance plan, establish victim assistance protocols, and follow the

⁴ The FBI Office for Victim Assistance is now the Victim Services Division.

agreed-upon victim assistance protocols when an incident occurs. While this customizable tool comes with free training and technical assistance to public and non-profit entities, there is no requirement that states, counties, and others must plan. That could change.

For only the second time in the 121-year history of the NFPA, a provisional standard has been expeditiously developed to address the emergent needs of communities as they prepare, for, respond to, and recover from active shooter/hostile events (NFPA, 2018). NFPA 3000™ (PS): Standard for an Active Shooter/Hostile Event Response (ASHER) Program identifies the minimum program elements needed to organize, manage, and sustain an active shooter and/or hostile event response program that helps mitigate the risks, effect, and impact on an organization or community affected by these events.⁵ NFPA 3000 brought experts and practitioners from local, state, and federal law enforcement, fire, EMS, private security, healthcare, facility management, direct responders, and/or ASHER victims, and others to the table in a whole of community approach. Now facing public comment, NFPA covers three primary areas: planning (assessing risks and developing community-wide programs); responding (establishing competencies and communicating to all stakeholders); and recovering (planning recovery efforts with an emphasis on victim needs). Concern for victims is a vital theme throughout the standard and NFPA 3000 includes an entire chapter devoted to recovery. While there are many great guiding documents, this standard is the first accredited and defensible standard that gives all aspects of the community the tools to plan, respond, and recover together.

Both the MVT and NFPA emphasize the need to engage in emergency planning, anticipate traumatized victims, and cultivate resiliency. Together, these move our societies toward a victim-centric mindset that does not require the wheel to be reinvented every time there

⁵ Specific policies, tactics, and protocols are the responsibility of the local organization or community and not included in the standard.

is an incident or scare. The remainder of this article is devoted to a discussion on several best practices as identified by the MVT and adopted by NFPA 3000.

Discussion

In advance of an incident, having victim assistance protocols in place with known and engaged participating parties will greatly minimize the initial confusion over who is responding to what and possibly avoid delays in the provision of key services. One of the first protocols that is useful to have is the “Contact List Protocol,” which identifies current contact information, resources, and roles and responsibility for victim assistance providers, as well as identifies these players to the incident command center or Unified Command. Related to this is the “Committee Meeting Protocol” that helps ensure committee meetings are strategic and inclusive, preparing the responders to act in a timely and efficient manner.

To be good responders, organizations should also implement “Practice Drills and Exercise Protocols” that integrate victim services throughout and do not conclude once the triage phase is complete. While the threat may be no longer active, the impact of the incident will continue for hours, weeks, and even years, affecting a great number of people who are directly and tangentially involved. Victim service protocols must be part of the “Incident Command System Protocol” and emergency plans more broadly. This will better guarantee that victim services are fully integrated into both response and recovery protocols when these are planned, exercised, or executed. Additional plans related to communications, victim reunification and notification, family assistance and community resiliency, volunteer and donation management, and criminal justice system support will be addressed in later sections.

Timeline of victim assistance. In a complement to the “National Disaster Recovery Framework,” we find that recovery is organized roughly sequentially—to include overlap—into

three major subcategories loosely defined as: short-term (incident through several days); intermediate (days to months); and long-term (months to years).⁶

Short-term recovery. As part of the planning process and with corresponding protocols, short-term recovery operations should consider a myriad of victim needs and services. Short-term recovery loosely covers the period from the moment the incident begins and first responders enter an active situation through several days. The treatment of victims during this stage will set the tone for later recovery efforts. Though trained in active shooter response, the first responders to the 2015 San Bernardino attack described how sensory stimuli and the victims impacted them deeply. “It was the worst thing imaginable. Some people were quiet, hiding. Others were screaming or dying, grabbing at your legs because they wanted us to get them out, but our job at the moment was to keep going” (Braziel, 2016).

These officers further had to contend with the smell of gunpowder, a burst pipe that mixed water with blood, and the fire alarm’s sound and sharp, blinking light. Integrating a disaster recovery coordinator, with special attention to victim services, into the co-located Unified Command system early in the incident will help first responders, who themselves can be considered victims, while they are encountering and extracting victims. This will also assist with knowing what is important for crime scene preservation, which may be part of a trial or District Attorney’s report later, and the handling and returning of personal effects.

Historically, a pre-determined or otherwise selected location, separate from Unified Command, is quickly established and staffed by credentialed individuals after the incident to serve as the point-place for reunification if needed. However, we have been moving away from the solitary use of the term reunification, as semi-automatic assault rifles and other weapons

⁶ The deviation as found by the authors, not DHS, is the precise timeline. We find that the intermediate and long-term recovery stages start is slightly earlier.

frequently used in these incidents inflict serious, often fatal, harm on the human body resulting in higher deaths and injuries (Santhanam, 2018). Calling these “reunification and notification” locations, instead, allows for the possibility that not everyone will be reunited. Today’s reality needs to include a plan for death notification with compassion. Death notifications should be coordinated and implemented as soon as is possible by qualified individuals or teams including the law enforcement agency and medical examiner (FBI, 2012). The team may additionally include victim advocates, mental health professionals, crisis counselors, and faith or spiritual leaders. Notification about deaths, as well as injuries, should be conducted by the relevant experts, rather than social media or politicians. Though Sandy Hook was an extremely difficult situation, then Connecticut Governor Dannel P. Malloy made the decision after several hours to tell two families that their children had “expired.” When asked “where did the other people go?” he replied, “nobody else was taken to the hospital,” then confirming that everyone not reunited had died (CBS, 2012).

From the first text or call, general information exchange, social media messaging and the press will be part of the response and recovery process. Efforts should be made to streamline official communication. Updates and instructions should be carefully coordinated and disseminated from Unified Command with a designated public information officer (PIO), while attempting to minimize the amount of inaccurate information that may be spreading.

Quickly evolving incidents with current communication technologies make pre-planning, plan execution, and subsequent instructions to the public and families, critical to maintaining control of the active scene. Families and victims will need to be prioritized and managed very early in the incident, to include receiving information first prior to large public release. While the perpetrator was still at-large, the news media and social media were sharing details about the

location of non-evacuated victims from the Parkland 2018 shooting. Later, some learned of deceased loved ones via social media. In addition, these families and victims may require shielding from the media. In the days following the 2018 Pathway Home shooting in Napa, media went to surviving employees' homes rather than going through official channels. Media descended upon the Virginia Tech campus, staging in the parking lot that families would cross to get to the Family Assistance Center. Similar situations have occurred in many incidents.

Intermediate recovery. In the days and months that follow, a number of new and continued activities will aid the victim during intermediate recovery. Victims and their families are often overwhelmed and uncertain how to navigate next steps. Continued victim assistance can provide an ongoing assessment and coordinate services for victims and their families, first responders and community members.

In more recent incidents, a trained victim services liaison, case manager or advocate (sometimes called a navigator) have played a key role in assisting victims and families, including those who are hospitalized. This can be an extended role that requires coordination with mental and emotional health services and treatments. Three models serve as examples. Boston used navigators after the 2013 marathon bombing. Following Sandy Hook, the Connecticut State Troops created a Family Support Liaison. Colorado instituted a family liaison program in response to the 2012 Aurora theater shooting. For both Sandy Hook and Aurora, the liaison assisted with media.

The reunification and notification center may transition quickly to a family assistance center (FAC) that will aid in ongoing assistance. The FAC provides necessary services and information, including about mental health counseling, health care, childcare, crime victim compensation, assistance with legal matters, travel, and financial planning to victims, family

members, and first responders. The FAC may be specific to the community. While many aspects of the FAC may be somewhat standard, a needs assessment can reveal real and potential physical, mental health, and emotional needs of first responders, victims, and others affected by the event. In addition, it can identify access and functional needs populations, or those unique to the situation. In Wisconsin, the FAC was set up at the Sikh Temple to reach families, many of which required international coordination through State Department, and to provide language and culturally appropriate victim services and resources after the 2012 shooting. The FAC was able to further prevent media from entering temple. In a second example, victim services specific to the LGBTQ community were needed following the 2016 Pulse nightclub shooting.

While volunteers and donations will begin to appear in the short-term recovery phase, the volume can increase during this stage. Organizations can plan for the management, screening and training, and oversight of credentialed volunteers who can be called upon in an emergency. Onsite, these individuals can report to a volunteer reception center that receives, organizes, and directs volunteers. There may also need to be a protocol for utilizing volunteers who have not been previously identified, screened, or trained, and for denying access to uncredentialed or unqualified individuals.

Based on the incident, the donations may be significant. Organizations can also plan for the acceptance, control, receipt, storage, distribution, and disposal of any donations, including monetary and other donor requests. This effort, coordinated through the PIO, may utilize media to instruct those wishing to donate about how to do so or about which donations cannot be accepted. Ideally, this should be done in consultation with the victims and their families. Rather than directly accept monetary donations, a central donation system and site should be established and run by an appropriate agency. Following the 1995 bombing of the Alfred P. Murrah Federal

Building, the Oklahoma City Disaster Relief Fund was opened. Today, the National Compassion Fund raises public donations that will be distributed directly to future mass casualty crimes. The management of volunteers and donations may extend months or years into recovery.

Long-term recovery. Long-term recovery covers the months and years that follow the incident, build on the previous two stages, and may require the establishment of a long-term recovery committee. As the community recovers, sustained considerations need to be made for long-term victim services and resiliency. The victim liaison(s) can continue to assist the victims and their families, including hospitalized victims, to ensure that physical, emotional, and mental health needs are being met.

Anywhere from one week up to three or more months post-incident, the FAC might evolve into a community resilience center (CRC) that provides ongoing services and assistance and can assist with memorial activities. Like the FAC, the CRC will need to consider access and functional needs populations, as well as ensure that symptoms of secondary and vicarious trauma are addressed for response and recovery personnel. The need to manage volunteers and donations may continue, with an emphasis on disbursement and proper disposal of donations. Newtown received more than 65,000 teddy bears and half a million letters that required large storage facilities and, eventually, a plan for the respectful incineration of the materials, termed “sacred soil.”

Coordination will be needed to assist local mental health and/or joint alcohol, drug addiction, and behavioral health services in the provision of support services and in the treatment of victims (Jacobson, 2001).

As and if the case moved through the criminal justice system, victims and family members will need assistance with the return of personal affects, victim impact statements,

media management, support during the trials, and access to ongoing notifications regarding the investigation and matters involving prosecution, adjudication, sentencing, and prisoner status, including parole hearings. Victims and family members will need access to and updates on incident hearings, criminal justice proceedings, and victims' rights, as well possible security when entering and leaving the courthouse or auxiliary facilities. Following the Oklahoma City bombing, The Safe Havens provided crisis counseling and served as a base for victims' family members and survivors attending the trial proceedings in Denver or viewing the close-circuited television trials in Oklahoma City (OVC, 2000).

Where there are still victim needs, additional funding and a needs assessment may be required. Community leaders can identify, review, and apply for direct financial assistance for individual victims, family members, local entities, and city, county, and state jurisdictions to meet victims' needs during recovery. In many of the cases mentioned in this article, supplemental funding was provided to support victims through the Antiterrorism Emergency Assistance Program (AEAP).

Limitations

There are several limitations to preparing for and responding to victims of mass violence and terrorism. First and as previously mentioned, data specific to this cohort is not as prolific as other areas of trauma. Thus, we are only beginning to learn about their unique needs and recovery trajectory. Second, states do not have a requirement to plan for victims of mass violence as part of their requirement to engage in all-hazard planning if they expect to receive certain federal disaster funding. Although all states engage in all-hazard planning, many do not yet include considerations for man-made disasters like an active shooter. Jurisdictions should aggressively and proactively expand their current protocols for disasters to include the Active

Shooter Hostile Event Plan (ASHERP) and eliminate the false comfort of “it couldn’t happen here”. It is imperative that jurisdictions and organizations engage in planning for these events using evidence-based practices, and not just the experiential and often flawed responses to previous incidents. Failure to properly learn from the past and prepare exacerbates the hopelessness when it occurs again.

Recommendations

Once issued, NFPA 3000 will provide guidance for organizing, managing, and sustaining an active preparedness and response program so that the risk, effect, and impact of hostile events can be reduced. Initially, this will be a voluntary consensus standard or best practice for those organizations and jurisdictions that choose to adopt the recommendations. As mass violence is an issue that seriously affects public health and safety, we encourage local, state, and national entities to implement NFPA 3000, as well as use the MVT, in planning for the worst. The government, both national and state-level, must carefully interrogate how to evolve this from a voluntary standard to a jurisdictional requirement. Government leaders will need to drive jurisdictions to see the incredible value in proactively addressing this issue by implementing an ASHER Program and to recognize there are steps to be taken, and resources available, to mitigate these horrific events.

More data is needed to make better victim-centric policies. The recently established National Mass Violence and Victimization Resource Center at the Medical University of South Carolina will help fill much of this gap, especially with respect to what works and does not work when it comes to helping people respond to and recover from mass violence. As part of this, research into mobile apps that provide psychoeducation and coping instructions to affected

community members will be examined. There is also great promise with tele-medicine to complement or, when face-to-face is not an option, supplant traditional therapy.

The requirement to plan for victims of mass violence and terrorism should be as standard as the plan for all-hazards, not least because this trend is going to continue for the foreseeable future. Tying this to the National Disaster Recovery Framework, and also the provision of federal funds under the Stafford Act, would ensure that more communities engage their partners and plan for what is becoming far too commonplace. The OVC has collected, analyzed and aggregated much on this subject and created the aforementioned MVT. Victim services for victims of mass violence and terrorism needs to be mandatory in the same way that all-hazard mitigation is.

Proper planning, with the help of the MVT and NFPA 3000, will make responding to and recovering from an incident of mass violence a slightly less daunting task. By thinking through the many issues that will manifest when the dust settles, victims will be better served and communities will become more resilient.

Author Biographies

Kathryn H. Floyd, PhD., is the Mass Violence & Terrorism Visiting Fellow at the U.S. Department of Justice, Office for Victims of Crime. Floyd has studied mass violence for over fifteen years. In addition to victim best practices, Floyd researches the underlying psychological and sociological processes of youths who become violent later in life. For assistance to Multi-National Force-Iraq and then-Colonel H.R. McMaster, Floyd received a “Certificate of Appreciation” from General David Petraeus. She received her Ph.D. in Strategic Studies (focusing on pre-radicalization) from S. Rajaratnam School of International Studies, Nanyang Technological University (Singapore) where she worked with the International Centre for Political Violence and Terrorism Research (ICPVTR). She holds an M.A. in War Studies from King’s College London and a B.A. in Government from William & Mary.

John Montes is an Emergency Services Specialist at the National Fire Protection Association, currently assigned as staff liaison to the technical committees for fire service training, EMS, fire service occupational safety and health, and the active shooter response standard programs. A nationally registered EMT, John has worked in EMS in several different roles, from the private service to Boston EMS, to serving as an EMS Specialist/EMS Duty Chief for the County of Santa Clara EMS Agency. In his role at the NFPA, John is assigned as representative to the Joint National EMS Leadership Forum, National EMS Advisory Council, and the Road to Zero Coalition.

Jamie Pianka is the Chief Operating Officer for Pro EMS in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Jamie’s background and experience were established primarily in government where his professional experience includes municipal, state, and federal work intersecting the disciplines of Emergency Management, Fire & Rescue, and Emergency Medical Services. He has served as an Emergency Management Director, career firefighter, and paramedic. Additionally, Jamie has been providing healthcare quality improvement consultancy domestically and internationally. Jamie served as the State Director of The Office of Emergency Medical Services (OEMS) for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts where he provided leadership at the Bureau of Health Care Safety & Quality. Jamie holds a BSBA from Northeastern University and has lived and worked for extended periods outside of the US.

J. Scott Quirarte is a Battalion Chief with the Ventura County Fire Department. He is a lead member of the Ventura County Interagency Active Shooter Hostile Event Response Workgroup. This workgroup developed coordinated response procedures including rescue task force operations, fire as a weapon, and Stop the Bleed. Chief Quirarte is a board member for the International Public Safety Association (IPSA) and member of the RTF and TEMS committee. As vice-chair of the RTF committee, he helped develop the IPSA RTF Best Practices Guide. He is the IPSA representative on the NFPA 3000 Technical Committee. Chief Quirarte is an Master Exercise Practitioner (MEP). He has developed and delivered numerous training programs/exercises across the country to a wide array of audiences and disciplines public, private, and military.

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Deliberate Gender Selection to Overcome Unconscious Bias

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Deliberate Gender Selection to Overcome Unconscious Bias

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Abstract

Most law enforcement organizations have diversity programs and work to ensure all positions are open to equally qualified persons regardless of gender. In this inquiry, I propose there are very limited circumstances when an agency should make a selection for a position based solely on gender. The majority of victims of sexual crimes are women and the majority of the offenders are men. Therefore, a law enforcement agency should deliberately staff their sex crimes units with more female detectives, in order to overcome the suspected unconscious bias of a female sex crime victim toward men. This review examines the current literature on diversity, unconscious bias, gender roles of detectives, decisions made during sex crimes investigations based on gender and if an unconscious bias exists by a female sex crime victims toward male detectives. The review of current studies and literature showed gender was not as important to the female victim of a sexual offense as was the training, competence, empathy and skill of the detective. No unconscious bias was found against male detectives based on gender. Finally this review offers a plan moving forward with respect to the issues discussed. It is important to note this inquiry is not about the broader topics of social equity or bureaucratic representation in law enforcement but rather a very specific look at the role of gender, if any, has on the investigation of sex crimes.

Keywords: unconscious bias, diversity, detectives, sex crimes, gender selection

Introduction

The Rape, Abuse, and Incest National Network (RAINN) reports an American is sexually assaulted every 98 seconds (RAINN, 2017). According to RAINN, ninety percent of those victims are female (RAINN, 2017). The Centers for Disease Control (CDC) reported in 2012 that one in five women reported experiencing sexual assault at some time in their lives as opposed to 1 in 71 men reporting the same (CDC, 2012). In a nationally representative survey of adults approximately 38 percent of women were sexual assault victims between the age of 18 and 24 (CDC, 2012). The Department of Justice, National Sex Offender Public Website (NSOPW) reports 82 percent of the juvenile sexual assault victims are female (NSOPW, 2017). In 2006, approximately 300,000 college women were sexually assaulted (NSOPW, 2017). Unfortunately, these statistics are hard to reconcile because it is estimated only 12 percent of the sexual assaults on college women and 16 percent of all other female sexual assaults were reported to law enforcement (NSOPW, 2017). The CDC further reported approximately 1 in 20 women experienced sexual violence other than rape in the 12 months leading up to the study (CDC, 2012). A CDC study from 2010 found 81 percent of the women who were sexually assaulted reported significant short and long-term effects from the assault (NSOPW, 2017). This last finding from the CDC forms the basis for the remainder of this inquiry, specifically the short-term effects from the assault. Does the trauma from these horrific events form the basis of an unconscious bias against a male detective who investigates the assault? Would a female sexual assault victim be better served by a female detective? If so, how does this effect the diversity mandates within law enforcement organizations?

Literature Review

In July 2016, Harvard professor and researcher Frank Dobbin and Tel Aviv University

Professor Alexandra Kalev published their findings from a study on diversity programs in the Harvard Business Review. According to their research most diversity programs are not increasing diversity in organizations but are in fact having the opposite effect (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Dobbin and Kalev found after analyzing three decades of data from more than 800 firms they found more success with programs that were not mandatory. They found since most programs mandated training which use negative messages, such as enumerating punishments, trainers and participants reported more animosity toward other groups afterward (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Dobbin and Kalev advocate instead a holistic approach focusing on voluntary engagement, cross trained diversity task forces, diversity managers, mentoring programs and college recruitment programs. They state, “The problem is that we can’t motivate people by forcing them to get with the program and punishing them if they don’t.” (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016) They go on to state, “Your organization will become less diverse, not more, if you require managers to go to diversity training, try to regulate their hiring and promotion decisions and put in a legalistic grievance system” (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Therefore, based on the findings and theory of Dobbin and Kalev, a law enforcement agency would, in theory, be able to select female detectives over male detectives to staff a sex crimes unit without an impact to their overall diversity philosophy.

Discussion

In January 2017, the Pew Research Center quoted the Bureau of Justice Statistics from 2013, which found women accounted for only 12 percent of full-time local police officers which was up from 8 percent in 1987 (Stepler, 2017). They also found women made up a smaller share of departmental leadership with only 1 in 10 being a supervisor or manager and only three percent being police chiefs (Stepler, 2017). The Pew Research Centers own January 2017, study

of approximately 8,000 officers in departments with more than 100 officers, found 43 percent of female officers reported they felt their department treated men more favorably than women when it came to assignments and promotions (Stepler, 2017).

In her 1996 study, Dr. Gayre Christie studied the role of male and female police officers in Queensland, Australia. Christie found there was no difference in the reasons men and women joined the police service but women were more motivated by the chance to fight crime (Christie, 1996). Another study from the United Kingdom found despite much controversy concerning sex differences, there is ample research evidence to support the view that females are superior to males in decoding emotional messages (Noller, 1986). There is also evidence to support females are superior to men in decoding emotional messages from other women (Noller, 1981). Given the presence of this evidence, women should therefore be able to better “decode” the spoken and unspoken messages of a female sex crime victim and overcome any unconscious bias.

A Primer in Unconscious Bias

A simple way to illustrate an example of unconscious bias is to tell the story many may have already heard but it is an excellent illustration as quoted from Harvard Professor Iris Bonet’s 2016 book, *What Works: Gender Equality by Design*. A father and his son are in a car accident. The father does not survive, and the son is badly injured. An ambulance takes the son to the hospital, where the surgeon cries out, “I cannot operate because this boy is my son!” (Bonet, 2016). Some, at first, would be confused and then settle on the fact the surgeon would be the boy’s mother. That initial confusion is because some people generally consider surgeons as male without really thinking about it. This is what is known as unconscious bias. A more formal definition is a process whereby a person has an unwanted judgement, emotion or behavior because of mental processing that is unconscious or uncontrollable (Wilson & Brekke, 1994).

It is estimated we receive about 11 million pieces of information every second with our brains only capturing 50 pieces and then, of those 50, only seven are processed in our working memory (Notebaert, 2017). Our brain filters this information using mental shortcuts which can unconsciously lead to bad or ineffective decisions forming a bias (Notebaert, 2017).

Psychologists now understand that conscious replies to questions are only half of the story and bears little resemblance to how prejudiced we may be for or against another person on an unconscious level (Paul, 1998). Eric Kandel, a neuroscientist from Columbia University and the 2000 Noble Laureate in Physiology or Medicine states that 80 to 90 percent of the mind works unconsciously (Bonet, 2016).

According to Bonet, biases about whether a person “fits” or not matter and depressingly unlearning this unconscious bias is basically impossible. Bonet states once an initial impression is made when new information is received about a person it will still be interpreted in a biased way favoring consistency with the initial impression (Bonet, 2016). Therefore, if a woman has just been traumatized through sexual violence by a male, will she prefer to describe the incident to a female or a male detective?

Detective Gender in the Investigation of Sex Crimes

According to Dr. Daniel Silverman, clinical experience indicates that female sexual assault victims may prefer to relate to women during the initial phases after an assault because they assume a woman will offer them empathy and understanding in these situations (Silverman, 1977). Silverman further states a male responding to a female victim may feel he symbolizes the “masculinized” aggression from which the victim has suffered and as a result alter his approach to the victim attempting to ensure her she need not fear all men (Silverman, 1977). Dr. Joeanna Jamel of Kingston University found female victims may prefer female officers to handle sexual

assault cases (Jamel, 2010). This preference for female officers arises from the belief female officers are less likely than male to believe rape myths (Rich & Seffrin, 2012). It is also believed female officers will be more sympathetic and less likely to blame victims (Jordan, 2001). Some people also believe that the presence of male officer especially one in uniform may be upsetting for some victims (Archambault & Lonsway, 2015). Archambault and Lonsway go on to state male detectives may have a difficult time identifying with female victims of sexual assaults because women's reality and behavior are often so different from men's. It can be challenging for male detectives to make sense of certain victim behavior such as not resisting or reporting immediately because men and women have very different scripts for socially acceptable behavior in sexual situations (Archambault & Lonsway, 2012). Finally, women are more accustomed to talking about personal things with other women and may tolerate tougher questioning from another woman (Archambault & Lonsway, 2012).

Dr. Megan Alderson and Dr. Sarah Ullman conducted a study in 2012, of detective gender in sexual assaults and found some surprising results. Alderson and Ullman found male detectives were more likely to charge suspects over female detectives with all other things being equal. Their study also helped confirm some earlier thoughts that women detectives may treat female sexual assault victims more harshly than male detectives which results in worse processing outcomes for the victim (Alderson & Ullman, 2012). Alderson and Ullman attacked the notion that an agency will be more sensitive to the needs of women victims if more female detectives work there, because it assumes that being a female has more influence on attitudes than being a member of a criminal justice organization (Alderson & Ullman, 2013). Victims have reported what is most important to them is not the gender of the investigating detective but the detectives demeanor and show of respect for their recent trauma (Jordan, 2001).

Many victims have also said it was important to come into contact with a compassionate man in the aftermath of the sexual assault (Archambault & Lonsway, 2015). Archambault and Lonsway state there is no clear answer if a victim prefers a detective based solely on gender. They say what is clear is a detective's competence and compassion in interviewing a female victim that will determine their effectiveness. There is no reason to believe a female detective will be more effective with a female victim just because they are a woman (Archambault & Lonsway, 2015).

Recommendations

Arguments that sex crimes units should be staffed with more females under the premise as a group will be more sensitive to female victims may do more harm than good (Alderden & Ullman, 2012). Selecting detectives just because they are female assumes they have an interest in working sexual offenses when they may not which may result in problematic outcomes (Alderson & Ullman, 2012). Agencies should focus more on sexual assault training and partnering with victim advocates than gender of the detectives. Detectives should learn specific interviewing skills required for victims of sexual assaults regardless of gender.

Professor Iris Bonet believes agencies can design out bias. She mentions a study of the parole rulings of Israeli judges. Bonet found differing degrees of leniency were the unintended result, or design, of the number and frequency of the breaks they took. Bonet concluded the judges were more deliberative after the breaks and therefore reached better outcomes by design. Bad designs, whether consciously or unconsciously chosen lead to bad outcomes (Bonet, 2016). Bias is built in to our practices and procedures and not just into our minds (Bonet, 2016). Therefore, agencies when possible should form gender diverse teams, by design, to investigate sexual assaults thus harnessing the collective intelligence of the group and overcoming any possible unconscious bias.

Conclusion

A review of the current and historic studies on the possible unconscious bias of a female sexual assault victim against a male detective proved opposite of what my original thoughts were. My original hypothesis was that female sex crime victims would prefer female detectives handle the investigation and have an actual but unconscious bias against a male detective. Instead, victims preferred a detective who was properly trained, open to listening, had empathy for the victim and wanted to actively investigate the truth of the matter. Some victims reported they preferred a safe male to discuss their assault with.

A review of the studies showed mandatory selection of females for sex crime units had the opposite effect of serving female victims. Female detectives brought fewer cases to the arrest stage and in some cases treated victims more harshly than male counterparts. Some this could be attributed to the selection of female detectives for the sex crime unit solely based on gender and not on the interest or other intrinsic motivators to work very difficult cases. Again, the review showed these selections on gender simply did not guarantee success or fix any problems of the under reporting of sex crimes.

Mandatory selection on gender coupled with mandatory goals and training to increase diversity were called into question on their success rates as well. Moving forward, I recommend law enforcement agencies design gender diverse teams to handle these types of investigations so the collective assets of both genders are harnessed. In the end, what matters most to female victims is the same that matters to us all: the female victims want someone who will listen to them without forming or having a preconceived notion of what actually took place and will genuinely take an interest and exert effort to help them.

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Benefits of Higher Education for Public Safety

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Benefits of Higher Education for Public Safety

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Abstract

This meta-synthesis literature review is a qualitative analysis that looked at the problem that relatively few public safety employees hold four-year college degrees. This research focused on analyzing and synthesizing primary studies related to the general and specific benefits of higher education for police officers, firefighters and emergency medical services personnel and their respective employers. Where other research has been limited to law enforcement this research looked at the fire service and emergency medical services (EMS). It was discovered that research and data relative to higher education for firefighters and fire officers is limited and virtually non-existent with regards to (EMS) personnel. The analysis revealed some potential unintended consequences of college degrees. Legitimate concerns were revealed with regard to requiring college degrees for new public safety applicants including limiting the applicant pool and potential disparate impact on minorities. However, there is strong evidence to suggest there are many general and specific benefits, for public safety employees and their employers to be derived from a higher education. Some of the benefits include being less likely to smoke, more likely to exercise, more civic participation, more open minded, innovative, ethical, tolerant and diverse, better use of discretion, improved communication and problem solving, fewer citizen complaints and less authoritarian. Evidence suggests the best approach may be to make college degrees a preferred qualification as opposed to a minimum required qualification for new hires and to incentivize employees to obtain college degrees post-hire and to require college degrees for promotion.

Keywords: Associate, Bachelor, College Degree, Higher Education, Public Safety, Fire, Police, EMS

Background

Should public safety employees including police, fire and emergency medical services (EMS) personnel hold four-year degrees? If so should college degrees be a minimum requirement for hire and promotion? What are the general benefits of earning a college degree? Are there benefits specific to police officers, firefighters, EMS personnel and their agencies? Are there unintended consequences of requiring a college degree for recruit police officers, firefighters and EMS personnel?

Relatively few public safety employees hold four-year college degrees. The purpose of this research is to determine what general and specific benefits can be derived from college degrees for public safety employees and their employing agencies. Also, what agencies can do to increase the number of public safety employees with college degrees. This research consists of a meta-synthesis literature review, whereby a review and qualitative analysis of relevant primary source studies will be conducted to draw inferences, recommendations and conclusions with regards to higher education among public safety employees.

There is considerable literature on the benefits of college degrees for police officers and their departments, but the literature pertaining to the benefits of college degrees for firefighters is sketchy at best and generally limited to studies of specific departments or regions, and even more limited for EMS. Also, literature is limited that combines an analysis of general benefits of college degrees and the specific benefits to police, fire and EMS agencies. This research will attempt to bridge that gap.

Literature Review

Baum (2005), reports that there is a correlation between higher levels of education and higher earnings for all racial/ethnic groups as well as for men and women. Also, the income gap

between high school graduates and college graduates increases significantly over time. This is supported in a report by Abel and Dietz (2014) that the college wage premium between those with degrees and those without have remained at an all-time high. Their report also concludes that the return on investing in a college degree remains high on average regardless of the college major in which the degree was earned. However, Abel and Dietz qualify their results by stating that their analysis is based on historical earnings of college and high school graduates that entered the job market at different points in time and that there is no guarantee that these earning patterns will hold in the future (Abel & Dietz, 2014).

However, data from the U.S. Census Bureau indicates that the salary differential between those with a college degree and those with a high school diploma has existed since 1975. According to the U.S. Census Bureau in 1975 full-time workers with a bachelor's degree earned 1.5 times the salary of a worker with only a high school diploma. The U.S. Census Bureau reports that this ratio had risen to 1.8 by 1999 (Lee, 2003).

Baum's research also indicates there are societal benefits that results from higher education, as higher levels of education correspond to lower levels of unemployment and poverty. College graduates also have lower smoking rates and more positive perceptions of personal health. This results in positive effects for individuals, employers and society in general. Higher levels of education also correlate to higher levels of civic participation, volunteering and voting (Baum, 2005).

These findings are supported by the work of Mortenson, as cited by Lee, who finds a strong relationship between baccalaureate degrees and measures of health, community involvement, and cultural participation. Some of the outcomes that correlate with having a bachelor's degree include: more likely to do volunteer work, more likely to have regular medical

and dental check-ups, less likely to be overweight, less likely to smoke, more likely to exercise, more likely to have knowledge about government and more likely to read books (Lee, 2003).

Though Trostel concludes that many of the benefits of a college education cannot be measured adequately, he opines that “the lack of quantification does not make the benefits any less real or less important” (2012). Trostel acknowledges that measurability does seem to affect the perceptions that some people have regarding the benefits of college education. Trostel writes that the most important virtues of a college education include learning how to think critically, self-examination, open-mindedness, cultivates creativity, innovation, tolerance, inclusivity and diversity. Some of the more tangible and measurable benefits of a college education included in Trostel’s report are the reduced likelihood of smoking, obesity, heavy drinking, being disabled and the probability of divorce. Trostel’s report continues that there is an increased likelihood of those with college degrees to be healthier, happier, charitable, more willing to volunteer, and being involved in school, community service, civic and religious organizations (Trostel, 2012).

Benefits of Higher Education to Law Enforcement

According to Schneider, numerous authors argue that law enforcement is not unlike other professions and possesses features such as specialized bodies of knowledge and skills, orientation to clients and service, job discretion, ethics and accreditation through professional associations all of which may benefit from higher education of employees (Schneider, 2009). Schneider reports that a survey conducted by the *Police Executive Research Forum* found that law enforcement agencies that hire college educated officers benefit by better written reports, enhanced communication with the public, better job performance, fewer citizen complaints, more initiative, better use of discretion, more sensitivity to diversity and fewer disciplinary issues (Schneider, 2009).

Rabecca Paynich Ph.D. (2009) reports that college educated police officers have better communication skills including writing better reports, are more tolerant with citizens, display clearer thinking and have better understanding of civil rights issues from multiple perspectives than do non-college educated officers. Paynich also found that college educated officers are more professional, adapt better to organizational change, have fewer administrative and personnel problems, are better able to utilize innovative techniques, receive fewer citizen complaints and disciplinary actions, have fewer preventable accidents, use less sick time, perform better in training, are less likely to use deadly force, are more open minded and less cynical and place higher value on ethical conduct.

College educated officers according to Paynich report that they are better able to utilize employee contacts, have an greater knowledge of the law and are better prepared for court, have higher levels of problem solving abilities, communicate better, have better interpersonal relationships, are better at resolving conflicts, and are better equipped to deal with criticism, workload, change, stress and make better discretionary decisions.

Similarly, research conducted by Telep (2011) found that police officers with pre-service bachelors' degrees held attitudes that were less supportive of the abuse of authority. Telep's findings also reveal that the effects were present with those officers that have an associate's degree or some college, and regardless of when the officer received their degree. However, the magnitude of the difference was most sizeable when officers with bachelor's degrees were compared to officers with only a high school diploma. Telep's findings suggest that higher education is beneficial regarding police officer attitude on abuse of authority.

Similarly, Smith et. al. found based on their study of authoritarianism among college and non-college educated officers that while there were different facets of personality measured by

the Rokeach and Piven scales that overall college educated police officers tended to be less authoritarian than non-college educated officers. Their findings also revealed that among the college educated officers that the older group is more authoritarian than the younger group (Smith, 1969). Being this is an older study it could signal a point where law enforcement was starting to evolve to a less authoritarian approach. Another explanation is that older officers, who in general have more time on the job, have become more cynical and are suffering from “burnout” resulting in a more authoritarian demeanor. Also, these officers were likely trained and mentored by authoritarian supervisors leading them inherit authoritarian traits. And, many older officers do not hold college degrees. Smith concludes that completion of a bachelor’s degree results in a “notable diminution of authoritarian attitudes in a police population as contrasted to a matched group of non-college educated police” (Smith, 1970).

Many of these benefits are supported in a qualitative study conducted by Bruns (2010). In her study six themes emerged from analyzing the data as to why departments have degree requirements. These include: degree holders carry a level of expertise, knowledge, and perseverance that represents departments well in the community, education levels of the police force should mirror the education level of the communities they serve, degrees make a difference in performance, degrees promote professionalism in the community and the field of law enforcement generally, and officers with degrees are more mature and have stronger goal-reaching abilities (Bruns, 2010).

Rydberg and Terrill examined the effect of officer education on key decision making points including arrest, search and use of force by relying on observational data from two medium sized cities. The results of their analysis indicate that “higher education carries no influence over the probability of an arrest or search occurring in a police-suspect encounter”

(Rydberg & Terrill, 2010). The authors indicate that this finding supports previous studies which have found a null relationship between officer education level and arrests. However, the analysis by Rydberg and Terrill did conclude that a college education did significantly reduce the likelihood of the use of force occurring. This conclusion is consistent with the finding of Paynich and Telep.

However a literature review conducted by Richard Albarano (2015) suggests there is not a consensus in the literature regarding whether or not college educated police officers perform better than those without college education. According to Albarano a college education does not necessarily counteract personality related attitudes about populations, individuals and behaviors. This seems to be contradictory to the research findings of Paynich and Telep. Albarano does state that his research clearly indicates that a college education can enhance performance particularly with regard to writing, communication and problem solving skills but does not make police officers more compassionate, empathetic or socially aware.

Research by Greene and Kamimura (2003) paints another picture concerning college education and social awareness development. Their findings support the hypothesis that “interaction with diverse peers is positively related to social awareness development.” According to their findings, social awareness development stems from classroom interactions as well as the number of diversity courses taken. Many colleges and universities are now requiring at least one diversity course as a requirement for many degrees. It could be that those who have earned degrees in law enforcement or fire administration may have a more limited interaction with a diverse group of students. The reason for the more limited diversity in these programs is that most of the students attending are police officers or firefighters. However, those that have earned degrees in public or business administration, management, political science or other degree

programs that attract students from a broad population are more likely to have interacted with a more diverse student population.

Higher Education and Officer Satisfaction and Attitude

Studies on the relationship between possessing a college degree and officer satisfaction have mixed results. While some scholars argue there is a relationship between education level and job satisfaction, others argue there is not (Balci, 2011). To determine if such a relationship existed between education level and job satisfaction among Turkish National Police, Balci conducted research to determine what impact college degrees had on officer's job satisfaction with work, supervisors, colleagues and promotion. The research found no statistical significance between education level and satisfaction with work or supervisors. The research also found a slight negative correlation between education level and satisfaction with colleagues and promotion (Balci, 2011).

However, Balci points out that according to some research "education may in fact be a poor predictor of job satisfaction". Research shows there may be many variables that affect job satisfaction among workers including, the number of police officers, working hours, sick time, policies, personal lives, family and child assistance, and the value placed on education by the organization (Balci, 2011).

Likewise in a study conducted by Truxillo et.al, (1998) the authors concluded that college is relevant to many aspects of police work but should not be presumed to predict all areas of job performance. Specifically Truxillo and colleagues found a statistically significant relationship between college education and police promotions and supervisory ratings of job knowledge. However, there was an inconsistent relationship between a college education and measures of disciplinary action.

Regarding feelings that police officers have about the core characteristics of their jobs, Sherwood (2000) found that higher education appears to have no effect on the officer's feelings. For the purpose of Sherwood's research core characteristics included: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Sherwood concludes that higher education may not be as strongly associated with knowledge and growth need moderators as may have been suspected, and that other life experiences and personality characteristics may also be important in preparing individuals for an enriched job in law enforcement. It should be noted that this study was limited to data collected from only two urban police departments in the northeast.

Worden's (1991) findings that the effects of a college education on the attitudes of police officers are small are consistent with other research. Worden indicates that his analysis suggests that police officer's performance and morale will not be affected by either in-service education or entry level requirements that include a college education.

Concerns with Requiring Four Year Degrees

Another aspect of Brun's study was to determine why so few police departments have a four-year degree requirement. Bruns (2010) found that only 1% of 12,000 local police departments require a four-year degree. The study revealed that many police departments are hesitant to adopt four-year degree requirements for fear of narrowing the applicant pool. This concern may be well founded. The United States Census Bureau as of 2010 reports that only 28% of the U.S. population over the age of 25 holds a bachelor's degree. Breaking these statistics down further, reveals that 29.3% of whites, 17.7% of African Americans and 13% of Hispanics hold bachelor degrees or higher. These statistics suggest that requiring a pre-employment bachelor's degree may well narrow the applicant pool and may have a discriminatory effect on minorities.

The United States Supreme Court has weighed in on this issue in *Griggs v. Duke Power Co.* 401 U.S. 424 (1971) holding that “neither the high school graduation requirement nor the two aptitude tests was directed or intended to measure an employee's ability to learn or perform a particular job or category of jobs within the company”. Based on this decision departments would need to prove that a college degree was a bona-fide minimum occupational requirement to be hired as a police officer, firefighter or paramedic.

However, even in light of possible fewer qualified applicants created by degree requirements for new hires, Koper (2004) suggests that departments need to consider that the demands on contemporary policing include “the need to work with new technologies, conduct community policy and problem solving activities and navigate complex legal rules” in planning organizational strategies to attract applicants.

Other concerns expressed in the study in opposition to four-year degrees include, higher degreed people are not satisfied with being a police officer, departments cannot afford wages that college graduates demand, police leaders who have not attained a college degree may not find them necessary and a college degree is not needed for the job of police officer.

These findings are supported in part by a study conducted by William Terrill a Criminologist at Michigan State University. Terrill found that college educated officers are dissatisfied with the job, have negative views of supervisors, and don't necessarily favor community policing. The negative views of supervisors may stem from a disparity between college educated officers and supervisors who are not college educated. Terrill is quick to point out that the results of his study tell only part of the story. His research has also found that college-educated officers are less likely to use force on citizens. With the recent high profile

cases involving use of force by police officers, Terrill states that by using less force departments are likely to be viewed as more legitimate and trustworthy by the community.

Benefits to the Fire Service

In a study of mid-sized North Carolina fire departments conducted by Geis (2012) fire chiefs were surveyed regarding their perceived value of higher education. In the survey the chiefs were asked to identify the extent that holding a college degree positively impacted nine factors. Those factors were: promotion potential, creativity, problem solving, motivation, communication skills, emergency response performance, attitude, reliability and quality of work. The two factors held by the chiefs to be most positively impacted were problem solving and communications skills with 95% of the chief's reporting positive impact. The area with the least positive impact was emergency response performance at 65%. However, the respondents to the survey perceived a positive impact that higher education has on all nine factors.

Moore (2002) conducted a study using action research and an inter-departmental questionnaire to determine the benefits of requiring a college degree for entry level firefighters in one fire department. Based on the analysis of the data Moore determined that requiring an associate degree for entry level firefighters would benefit the department as well as the individual firefighters. Moore's findings suggest that degreed firefighters would possess critical thinking skills, increase the professionalism of individual firefighters, justify the fire service as a profession and would help develop future leaders (Moore, 2002).

In a study consisting of a literature review and intra-department survey conducted to satisfy the requirements of the *Executive Fire Officer Program* (Stone, 2001) found that holding a college degree may better prepare fire officers for advancement. When surveyed, fire officers were asked "if you could go back before your promotion, what would you do differently? Ten of

fifteen respondents answered that they would complete their college education specifically citing management and budgeting courses (Stone, 2001). Stone, also reports that the Houston Professional Firefighters Association in their *Vision 2000* report notes the importance of college education in developing human relations and problem solving skills. Stone's recommendations for the Houston Fire Department include a departmental career development guideline and that an Associate's Degree be the recommended level of education for Captain, with a Bachelor's Degree recommended for Chief Officers below the level of Fire Chief, with a Master's Degree recommended for Fire Chief.

National Perspective

Ford (2003) indicates some national fire service programs are geared towards higher education. The education component of the Chief Fire Officer Designation considers higher education as the second most desired component of earning the CFO designation, with the minimum education requirement being a bachelor's degree. Based on his research consisting of a literature review, survey and interviews, Ford discovered that many newly promoted chief officers accept the promotion "not knowing all of the responsibilities of the position". Ford concludes that the responsibilities of today's fire chief are so diverse that candidates for these positions must prepare themselves by matching their training and education to the requirements of the position.

Higher Education and EMS

In one study related to the relationship between the level of paramedic's education and their degree of occupational commitment it was found that paramedic occupational commitment shows a statistically significant decrease as the level of education increases (Alexander, et. al.,

2009). The authors believe this finding suggests that higher levels of education lead to a greater number of employment opportunities.

A study conducted in England attempted to assess the professionalism of paramedics relative to education level, specifically four year degrees. The Authors found that university education provided greater employment opportunities for graduates, but like the study by Alexander and colleagues found a negative impact on job-retention and sustainability of the paramedic workforce (Givati, 2017). As the authors of this study indicate, “the study of paramedic practice is still in its infancy” (p. 353) which may explain why virtually no literature is available relating to higher education and the benefits for EMS personnel

The findings of these two studies suggest that unlike law enforcement where there is a concern that requiring college degrees narrows the applicant pool, that college degrees may actually broaden the applicant pool for EMS agencies. Because EMS degrees are more technical and skill related in general, the negative aspect is the problem of retaining these highly educated individuals who have greater opportunities for other jobs in the health care industry that offer higher pay, better schedules and less job-related stress.

Support for Human Capital

Organizational culture has a profound impact on the value placed on higher education within an organization. Investment in human capital should not be overlooked by any organization. As the demands and challenges become greater so is the need for employees with the broader set of skills that higher education provides.

Smith et. al. (1970) indicates that improper decisions by police officers can trigger riots or exacerbate social unrest. Though this was written in 1970 its applicability is still valid today. Smith continues that the need for well-educated police officers to deal with complicated social

problems is great, concluding that opportunities for college educations for police officers appear to be the socially advisable course (Smith, 1970). But what are some of the options that organizations may use to invest in the human capital of police, fire and EMS agencies?

Geis reports that of the North Carolina fire departments he surveyed 17% offered full tuition reimbursement, 57% offered partial tuition reimbursement, 39% offered time off to attend classes with no make-up of time, 4% offered time off to attend classes with a requirement to make-up the time, and 22% of the departments offered no educational benefit (Geis, 2012).

These findings appear to be behind the private sector where it is estimated that 85% of firms offer tuition reimbursement programs (Manchester, 2010). One concern related to tuition reimbursement programs is employee turnover after earning a degree. This concern however, is allayed by at least one study that found tuition reimbursement programs actually reduce turnover rates (Manchester, 2010).

Using a descriptive research method (Koellner, n.d.) set out to analyze the cost effectiveness of providing financial support to employees, in this case firefighters, seeking higher education. Koellner's research found that of eighty-two fire departments responding to his research questionnaire 100% responded that they believed a college education is beneficial to firefighters, 75% responded that it is easier to train college educated firefighters, 55% responded that college educated firefighters are more likely to follow safety procedures and 58% responded that it is easier to resolve labor-management issues involving college educated firefighters (Koellner, n.d.). As rank increases so does the need for a college education, based on the responses 17% believe a college education is important for a firefighter, 27% for a firefighter/paramedic, 61% for company officer, 79% for battalion chief and 81% for fire chief (Koellner, n.d.). Interestingly, even though there is substantial support for college education,

only 26% of responding departments give extra points or preference for college degrees during the hiring process and only 35% for promotional processes, with 42% requiring a college degree for advancement in rank. (Koellner, n.d.). Based on his overall research Koellner recommends that the fire service should implement policies designed to promote higher education in the fire service, and that such policies would be most effective if they are designed to require higher education for promotion to certain ranks and outline a plan to assist employees in their quest for promotion. Key points to be included in policies are preference points for applicants with college degrees; clearly define minimum education requirements for promotion, tuition reimbursement for approved college courses, and incentives for earning a college degree. Koellner, also recommends that the fire service should consider providing monetary and time assistance to firefighters who choose to take advantage of preparing themselves for promotion by earning a college degree.

Truxill and colleagues (1998) based on their research suggest that law enforcement agencies may be justified in requiring college education or providing additional hiring or promotional credit or compensation for college degrees. However, they caution this should not be done without appropriate validating evidence as the “results may not generalize to all law enforcement jobs and organizations” in other words, caution should be used in assuming a relationship between a college education and all aspects of police work. Truxill also suggests that because many police officers are hired at a young age without college degrees, it may be useful for departments to consider supporting college education among current officers to help support their development.

Likewise Kennedy suggests that there is no one model that fits all police agencies and that a graduated model may be considered as a baseline approach (Kennedy, 2010). Kennedy

states that the primary goal for recruiting police officers is to recruit individuals that possess the traits of responsibility, maturity, initiative, good judgment, tact, courage, objectivity and integrity. These traits are not achieved through college education alone and may be achieved by previous law enforcement or military experience. Kennedy recommends for entry level police officers that an associate's degree from an accredited college or two years of experience as a full time certified police officer or active military be required. After hire an associate's degree would be required within four years. Failure to obtain a degree within the specified time frame would result in termination. Kennedy also recommends incentives be provided by the department to include tuition assistance, incentive pay and time to attend courses. For promotion eligibility to first line supervisor and middle management positions, Kennedy recommends that a bachelor's degree be required, and the requirement of a master's degree for upper management positions (Kennedy, 2010).

Discussion

This research reveals that studies related to higher education and law enforcement far exceed studies relating to higher education and the fire service and EMS. This could be a result of higher education being a philosophy of law enforcement for a much longer period of time compared to the fire service. As far back as 1931 the Wickersham Report provided early support for the idea that police officers should hold a four-year degree as an entry requirement (Comotter, 2007). This philosophy was reinforced with the reports from the *President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice* and the *Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968*. The Commission recommended that educational standards for law enforcement officers be raised with the ultimate goal of requiring a bachelor degree as a minimum qualification for employment (Comotter, 2007).

Conversely, no national commission reports could be located that have advocated college education for fire service or EMS personnel. In fact, as reported by *Inside Higher Ed* firefighters could climb the career ladder through training and experience and only since the last decade or so have degrees become important. Granted, community colleges have offered two year degrees in fire science since the 1970's but these are primarily technical degrees. The first serious focus on higher education in the fire service came about with the creation of the United States Fire Administration and National Fire academy in 1974. This evidence suggests that the fire service is decades behind law enforcement in recognizing the importance of higher education and could account for the fewer number of studies. However, being both police and fire are public safety agencies demanding the same level of professional service, discretionary authority and split-second decision making the law enforcement studies would appear to apply equally to the fire service and vice versa.

While there is some divergence in the research findings the scales tip toward the positive indicating that there are benefits of higher education both generally and for police and fire agencies. And, while the general benefits of higher education are fully applicable to EMS personnel, due to the lack of studies specifically related to EMS no inferences or correlations could be developed beyond the general benefits. The degree major does not appear to make a difference as the return on investment in a college degree remains high regardless of the major according to Abel & Dietz. Also, the positive effects of a college degree including higher lifetime earnings appear to exist regardless of the level of degree or when the degree was obtained either before or after hire (Abel & Dietz) (Telep).

A number of studies found a lower incidence of smoking rates, and more positive perceptions of personal health including being more likely to exercise as well as increased civic

participation including voting and volunteering among college educated workers (Baum) (Lee). This could result in less use of sick time and lower health insurance and workers compensation premiums for departments. And, Trostel found that college graduates are more open minded, innovative, tolerant and more open in inclusivity and diversity. These are all traits that are important to police officers and firefighters in their decision making and interactions with citizens of the community.

Specific to law enforcement Schneider found that college educated officers have better written reports, enhanced communication with the public, better job performance, fewer citizen complaints and better use of discretion. These findings were supported in a number of other studies. These are all traits that fire departments could benefit from as well. A number of studies report that college educated officers are less likely to be authoritarian, less supportive of abuse of force and authority (Telep) and tend to possess higher levels of professionalism (Smith). These are all traits that can lead to a more supportive organizational environment and are more likely to lead to a participative management style compared to the traditional authoritarian style historically used in police and fire departments. However, studies on the effect of a college education on officer attitudes and job satisfaction, morale and attitudes about the job, populations, individuals and behaviors (Albarano) are mixed and inconclusive with most indicating a neutral or in some cases negative correlation. At least one study also found that college degrees may lead to increased job dissatisfaction.

However, these neutral or moderately negative factors are far outweighed by the positives of higher education including critical thinking, open-mindedness, creativity, tolerance, inclusiveness, diversity, more ethical behavior, better written and oral communication, fewer

citizen complaints, better problem solving and less authoritarianism including being less likely to use deadly force.

Regardless of the benefits some departments are reluctant to require college degrees over concern of limiting the applicant pool. Additionally, the practice of requiring a college degree could have a discriminatory disparate impact on minority groups. One option is to list a four year degree as a preferred rather than a minimum qualification in job descriptions for police officers and firefighters. Because the benefits of higher education result irrespective of when the degree is earned departments can offer incentives for current employees to earn degrees. Options include requiring a degree for promotion, offering tuition reimbursement, a wage premium or bonus after earning a degree and allowing time-off to attend classes. On the other hand, with the expansion of regionally accredited online degree programs, allowing time-off to attend class may no longer need to be an option. With most accredited online degree programs students work asynchronously and are not required to be in a class or online at any specific time which provides maximum flexibility for those doing shift work.

No specific degree majors were identified in the research and it appears that the benefits of higher education result from most college degrees. However, some degree majors that may be most beneficial to police officers and firefighters are: business administration, public administration, management, public policy and administration, political science, law enforcement, criminal justice, and fire administration.

Limitations

The main limitation in conducting this research was the fact that there is very limited research available on the benefits of higher education in the fire service and emergency medical services. The lack of relevant literature in relation to the fire service is largely due to the fire

service being decades behind law enforcement on understanding the value and importance of having higher education as an entry level requirement. As for the emergency medical services as the study by Givati et. al. indicated the study of the paramedic practice is still in its infancy. Another limitation of this research is that it was limited to a qualitative analysis of the subject.

Areas of future study include both quantitative and qualitative studies directly related to fire service and EMS personnel respectively. Also, further study is needed to resolve the conflicting findings on the impact of higher education on public safety employee attitudes, morale, and job satisfaction.

Recommendations

The first recommendation addresses the concern of limiting the applicant pool and the possibility of disparate impact on minorities by requiring a college degree for applicants to public safety jobs. It is recommended that college degrees be considered as a preferred qualification for these positions. The second recommendation is to require college degree for promotion to supervisory positions within public safety. The third recommendation is that public safety employers need to invest in human capital development and prepare police officers and firefighters for promotion. To accomplish the third recommendation a tuition reimbursement program should be developed accompanied by a detailed policy on how the program will be administered and the expectations of participants. The fourth recommendation is to offer annual incentives or premiums for those who have obtained a college degree. The fifth recommendation is to provide employees with paid time off to attend classes where feasible and to encourage employee to attend accredited online programs that provide the needed flexibility that those working shifts need and eliminating the need for time off to attend class.

Conclusion

Various research studies suggest that society, employers, and individual employees benefit from higher education. The benefits are generally applicable across all classes of workers including those in public safety positions. Though most research has focused on the benefits of bachelor's degrees a reasonable inference can be made that there are similar benefits for those that have earned an associate's degree. However, because associate degrees tend to be more technical and cater to a narrower group of students there may not be as much benefit provided by a diverse student population as might be expected from a non-technical bachelor's degree. What specific benefits are provided by associate's degree in comparison to bachelor's degrees may be an area worthy of future study.

To avoid concerns regarding the narrowing of applicant pools and potential discrimination against minority groups the best approach may be to give some credit for college degrees as a preferred qualification as opposed to being a minimum requirement for entry level positions. College degrees should be strongly considered as a requirement for promotion giving all employees equal opportunity to earn a degree by offering tuition assistance, monetary incentives, and time off to attend courses.

Because of ever evolving new technologies, complex community and social problems requiring tolerance and problem solving abilities, diverse communities and workforces, and the ability to navigate a myriad of legal rules the need for highly educated public safety employees will only increase into the future.

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Examination of Factors for Workplace Satisfaction of Millennial-Aged Police Officers

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Abstract

Contemporary generational literature identified persons born since 1980 as the Millennial Generation. Millennial-aged police officers have quickly gained a large percentage of nationwide police employment positions. Police organizations and the communities they serve could benefit from identifying factors that maximize workplace satisfaction for millennial-aged police officers. Presently, there is a low reported workplace satisfaction among millennial-aged police officers. Current police workplace research indicates it may be a Millennial Generation issue. Failure to address this problem and identify the perception of workplace satisfaction for millennial-aged police officers will serve to maintain the current negative morale present in police culture. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of millennial-aged police officers. Studying the perceptions of workplace satisfaction for millennial-aged police officers served to identify specific motivators and hygiene factors that leaders may implement to positively affect their organizations. A purposeful sample of participants for this case study research included 12 Glendale Police Officers with a minimum of 1 year of police experience, born since January 1, 1980, and currently commissioned by the State of Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board (AZ POST). Millennial-aged police officers were very willing to share their ideas for workplace satisfaction and organizational improvement. This study identified factors for workplace attraction, satisfaction and retention of Millennial-aged officers. Police leaders may utilize the following 13 themes to improve their respective organizations: (a) general excitement, thrill and variety of police work, (b) serve the community and help people, (c) interact with people as a team (d) legacy career – previous family member in policing, (e) pay and benefits, (f) opportunities for lateral job movement, (g) recognition for work and praise, (h) respect for input, new ideas and ways, (i) best technology and equipment available, (j) micromanaging and poor supervision, (k) leadership development for sergeants (l), negative police culture and (m) increased vertical communication. The most prevalent responses from the Millennial-aged police officer interviews were daily job variety, internal movement opportunities and praise.

Keywords: Millennials, Generations, Policing, Leadership, Police Culture, Police Leadership, Generational Communication, Generational Leadership, Multigenerational Workforce

Introduction

Contemporary generational literature identified employees born since 1980 as the Millennial Generation or Generation Y (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). Millennial-aged police officers are quickly gaining a large percentage of police employment positions (Szoltysik, 2014). Millennial-aged employees expect high workplace satisfaction (Herbison & Boseman, 2009) and this generation of sworn police officers are the future of policing. Police organizations could benefit by identifying factors for Millennial-aged police officers for maximum workplace satisfaction.

Research in the private sector has shown the impact of generational differences from a workplace satisfaction viewpoint, which directly correlated to business practices reflecting organizational success and failure (De Muese & Mlodzik, 2010; Greengard, 2011; Hira, 2007). Current public-sector research discovered leaders have a responsibility to Millennial employees to provide satisfactory workplace environments, as current practices are not retaining the best talent (Kane, 2011). The Millennial Generation, those born since 1980, is willing and able to fulfill the duties of public service (Della Volpe, 2010); however, policy makers need to identify increasingly beneficial workplace environments for greater employee effectiveness. The rigid, policy-laden, pseudo militaristic, culture of policing must adjust to the newest generation (White & Escobar, 2008) and improve the current low satisfaction often found in Millennial-aged employees (Eldridge, 2012; Wasilewski, 2011).

Background

Research has been conducted on the perceptions of workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged employees, but policing offers a vastly different work culture to study. Workplace satisfaction contains internal and external factors for individuals. According to Frederic Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory for employee satisfaction, internal factors such as personal growth and happiness are known as motivators and external factors such as policies and pay are hygiene factors (Guha, 2010). Proper identification of how factors satisfy employees is important for leaders to provide motivating work environments.

Lublin (2010) suggested the real problem may not be the generation, but the possibility current management does not manage or lead Millennials for prominence. Current police culture appears to be old practices disguised as best practices and it is postulated a more satisfying workplace environment could be found for Millennial-aged officers. Johnson (2011) reported that employers should examine their current work climate and identify methods of satisfaction that allow Millennials to perform best. Workplace environments such as permission to think and work outside the traditional constraints of the current organizational culture are most effective (Behrens, 2009).

This study identified perceptions of workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers to assist police managers with morale, recruitment, and retention of Millennials through a better understanding of their shared insights. Researching Millennial-aged police officers identified specific satisfaction factors unique to policing when compared to the current literature. Resultant data was synthesized with current Millennial Generation Theory research and was coded through Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory.

Statement of the Problem

The problem examined in this qualitative case study was the perceived low workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers (Eldridge, 2012; Wasilewski, 2011). Current police workplace research indicates it may be a Millennial Generation issue (White & Escobar, 2008). Failure to address this problem and identify the perception of workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers serves to maintain the current negative morale present in police culture. Maintaining low satisfaction as status quo for future policing is negative for all communities.

Contemporary peer-reviewed literature and popular media sources report Millennial employee work behavior as wearisome to employers (Frost, 2011; Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). Millennials would like to have long careers with the same employer, but they do not believe this to be a viable option in the world today (Tulgan, 2009). Additional research that identifies the workplace issues affecting the morale and satisfaction of Millennial-aged police officers will assist police executives with current and future employment decisions (Frost, 2011) to improve the quality of service. Internal toxic work environments often result in bad police services (Orrick, 2013). Millennials appear to measure success by enjoying what they are doing and consider job satisfaction as important as pay and benefits (Trulock, 2011). Identifying specific Millennial-aged police motivators through Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory will provide specific indicators of workplace satisfaction for organizational leaders to implement. This research explored new ways of satisfying police officers in a rigid, old guard style of management commonly found in policing which dissatisfies Millennial-aged officers (Kane, 2011 and White & Escobar, 2008). Communities demand high-quality service from their police officers, and police leaders are not integrating the workplace satisfaction needs of succeeding generations

(Behrens, 2009), and this study specifically explored the Millennial-aged police-officer satisfaction problem in an attempt to close the gap in the research. All factors identified by the participants were collected and examined.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of Millennial-aged police officers. Researching the perceptions of workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers identified specific motivators that leaders may implement to positively affect their organizations (Frost, 2011). Examination of the research findings from individual interviews of Millennial-aged officers may greatly benefit leaders as they develop satisfying workplace environments for Millennial officers. When Millennials discuss important job characteristics, they appear unafraid to give candid responses (Trulock, 2011); therefore, interpersonal interviews were used in the study.

Interview and protocols directed information to be collected in Glendale, Arizona from a sample of 12 Millennial-aged police officers from the Glendale Police Department. The participants' contact information was obtained from a public records request through the Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training (AZPOST) Board. The availability of this new data was to provide nationwide police employers with information specific to the police culture that will assist them with making better employment decisions the satisfaction of policing's future.

Theoretical Framework

Based on a review of relevant literature, the theoretical framework for the study was Millennial Generation Theory and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. Generational Theory literature was prior and provided the parameters for the selection of the participants based upon age and work experience, as well as bounded contemporary philosophies on work and personal

life. The two-factor theory was minor and provided the focus of the research to identify factors for job satisfaction through recognized hygiene factors or motivators among the Millennial-aged participants.

The Millennial Generation is defined as those born since 1980 (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). The private sector is inundated with articles and research regarding the different characteristics of generational workplace satisfaction (Altes, 2009; Aryafar & Ezzedeem, 2008; Barford & Hester, 2011; Behrens, 2009; Borges, Manuel, Elam, & Jones, 2010; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; DeMeuse & Mlodzik, 2010; Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010; Emeagwali, 2011; Ferri-Reed, 2010; Greengard, 2011; Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009; Hulett, 2006; Taylor & Keeter, 2010). Government employment, more specifically policing, should be further researched regarding generational workplace satisfaction (Frost, 2011; Kane, 2011; White & Escobar, 2008). This research intended to add to the current body of knowledge through heuristic inquiry, through deeper understanding of the public-sector employee as Millennial police officers.

Millennials are the most widely defined generation. Landcaster and Stillman (2010) described Millennials as high-speed members of society who are technologically dependent seeking environments that offer them greater number of choices. The authors also discussed Millennials as educated, satisfied by a fun work atmosphere, highly mobile, informal, and utilizing work to add friends to their social network. Satisfying factors for Millennial-aged police officers appears to be different from previous generations (Frost, 2011).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory posits that employees are satisfied in the workplace by external, job-context, reasons such as pay and working conditions that are known as hygiene factors. They are also satisfied by internal, self-directed reasons such as happiness and personal

growth called motivators (Guha, 2010). More specifically, the study attempted to identify the external hygiene and internal motivators for Millennial-aged police officer satisfaction. A list of Frederick Herzberg's common hygiene factors and motivators was applied to policing and examined through the Millennial-aged police participants to identify their specific factors for job satisfaction. Analysis of the discussion for this case study obtained clear meaning of the shared workplace satisfaction of Millennial-aged police officers.

Millennial Generation characteristics identified in the research was synthesized with the current generational research. Workplace motivators were identified through the Two-Factor Theory to provide conclusions for this study. The future of police staffing will be mainly comprised of Millennial Generation officers who are prepared to replace previous generations in the American workforce (Hulett, 2006). Studies found with the emergence of the Millennial-aged police officer, the current bureaucratic workplace culture appears to be incongruent with high workplace satisfaction of this youngest generation (Behrens, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Della Volpe, 2010; Ferri-Reed, 2010; Greengard, 2011; Hulett, 2006; Welsh & Brazina, 2010). Utilizing generational theory and identifying contributing factors for Millennial-aged police officers for greater satisfaction framed the study.

Research Questions

Aligned with the problem statement, research questions served to identify perceptions of satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers. Research questions attempted to identify shared qualitative phenomena of workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers in line with Herzberg's hygiene factors and motivators. Each of the questions had supporting follow-on questions designed to delve further into the problem. It was the intent of the main research

questions to stimulate individual interview dialogue specifically focused toward the problem and purpose of the study.

Q1. What specific factors draw Millennial to work as police officers?

Q2. What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

Q3. What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

Q4. What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

Nature of the Study

The study utilized a qualitative case study research method to examine the shared factors for satisfying workplaces of Millennial-aged police officers. The qualitative research described in-depth, lived experiences of the participants (Groenewald, 2004) to specifically address workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers. The case study approach obtained and identified wide-ranging participant descriptions providing a foundation for insightful analysis as the real meaning of the experience (Groenewald, 2004; Moustakas, 1994; Waters, n.d.) and brought to the forefront the participants' perspectives (Lester, 1999).

After receiving Northcentral University IRB approval, one-on-one interviews with 12 participants of purposely selected Millennial-aged police officers from the City of Glendale provided rich qualitative data increasing the strength of the inferences with multiple participants (Lester, 1999). The interview protocol directed participants to identify any factors relevant to their workplace. This data was hand-coded and analyzed in comparison to specific Herzberg

hygiene factors and motivators. The qualitative research design was best suited to identify phenomena specific to this case study for job satisfaction of the Millennial-aged police officers.

Qualitative research explains what the researcher has learned through collecting data of shared experiences of purposely selected participants. A balance of information obtained from the case study participants with the interpretation and analysis of this data provided insight for this research (Groenewald, 2004; Waters. n.d.). The interviews were audio recorded and the participants were coded with numbers and letters to maintain confidentiality; the resulting patterns were reported straightforward from the collected data (Groenewald, 2004). Copious notes were taken as a redundancy to protect the data from electronic equipment failure. Both forms of data collection received the highest security to protect the identities of the study participants.

The advocacy/participatory worldview provided the lens for the Millennial-aged police officers. This study sought to understand shared work experiences of those who are currently serving their communities from a Millennial Generation perspective through Hermeneutic analysis of their specific police culture and practice (Shank, 2006). Workplace satisfaction phenomena specific to the generational cohort were addressed in-line with the problem statement. The study endeavored to positively impact communities by assisting the police policy makers with improved satisfaction to assist with recruiting, training, and retaining of Millennial-aged police officers with the collected data.

The individual interview questions for the study oriented the writer's interests while maintaining direction (Schram, 2006). Bracketing the writer's and participants' opinions directed the participants within the boundaries of the study. The questions specifically addressed workplace satisfaction of the Millennial-aged police officers currently employed by the City of

Glendale, Arizona. The research questions were developed to obtain information necessary to analyze the factors and to answer the research questions (Lester, 1999; Waters, n.d.). The writer posits that obtaining feedback from the interviews of Millennial-aged police officers about their workplace satisfaction, in fact, connected the data to the purpose of the study. The research questions were properly directed with the support of contemporary peer-reviewed literature and research. The defined locus of the study obtained qualitative data to assist organizational leaders with the recruitment, hiring, training, and retention of its youngest and fastest growing pool of officers (White & Escobar, 2008; Udechukwu, 2009).

Significance of the Study

This case study research is significant to police leadership and the community at large. The Millennial Generation is the latest generational cohort to take its place in the American workforce, including law enforcement (Altes, 2009; Barford & Hester, 2011; Behrens, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010; Emeagwali, 2011; Ferri-Reed, 2010; Greengard, 2011; Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009; Hulett, 2006; Taylor & Keeter, 2010). The command and control law enforcement industry has failed to properly prepare future generations within the police culture (Behrens, 2009; Johnson, 2011; Lublin, (2010). The internal and external pressures common in the police culture reduce workplace satisfaction (Cruickshank, 2013).

Historically, police departments are reactive to community concerns, therefore, reactive to employment concerns. Workplace satisfaction and retention are both police and community issues that should be proactively solved together. Examination of millennial-aged perceptions of low workplace satisfaction is significant for police leaders. The millennial-aged police officer participants in this research study assisted in identifying workplace satisfiers to include factors

for retention to possibly avoid losing the best talent (Kane, 2011), which saves time and money while improving community service levels.

Definition of Key Terms

Advocacy/Participatory Worldview. Research contains action agenda for transformation that may change the lives of the participants, organizations, or industries (Patton, 2002).

Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board (AZ POST). The Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board is responsible for establishing and maintaining minimum standards for peace officers in Arizona. AZ POST is also charged with the responsibility of administering the Peace Officer Training Fund (Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board, 2013).

Baby Boomer Generation. Individuals characterized in the workforce with birth-year period of 1946-1964 are Baby Boomers. Birth rates, contemporary events, and similar world views define a generation (Beekman, 2011; Clare, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Simons, 2010).

Community Policing. A policing philosophy which advocates police and citizen cooperation regarding problem solving and improving quality of life within the community is community policing. Horizontal communication is promoted with increased authority of line officers (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009).

Entrepreneur. One who portrays individual initiative, independent judgment and acts as a revolutionary innovator is an entrepreneur (Kane, 2011).

Generation X. Individuals characterized in the workforce with general birth-year period of 1965-1979 are members of the Generation X cohort. Birth rates, contemporary events, and

similar world views define a generation (Beekman, 2011; Clare, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Simons, 2010).

Generational Culture. Intensity and consistency of generational norms displayed by members of a generation defines their culture (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Greengard, 2011; Simons, 2010).

Generational Literature. Generationally focused popular press and peer-reviewed literature is written and published (Meuse & Mlodzik, 2010).

Generational Norms. Formal or informal standards of behavior shared by a generation of individuals are their norms (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007).

Generational Values and Attitudes: Values and attitudes are shared by a generation due to influences during their formative years. These values and attitudes are reflected in the individual's core beliefs (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007).

Heuristic Inquiry. A type of phenomenological inquiry that brings into account the personal experience and insights of the researcher is a Heuristic inquiry (Patton, 2002).

Hygiene Factors. Part of Frederic Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory regarding job-context related dissatisfaction as hygiene factors: (a) organizational policies, (b) unfair work practices, and (c) unhealthy relations of peers and supervisors (Guha, 2010).

Market Alternative. Choosing to abandon current bureaucratic personnel system for one that balances individual requests with needs of the organization while developing careers based upon future trends and technology (Kane, 2011).

Millennial Generation. Individuals characterized in the workforce with birth-year period of 1980-1999 are Millennials (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). Birth rates, contemporary events, and similar

world views define a generation commonly known as Generation Y (Beekman, 2011; Clare, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Simons, 2010).

Millennial-aged Police Officers in Glendale. The number of sworn police officers working for Glendale born since 1980 is 117 of 423 as of August 25, 2014. Millennials comprise 27.7 percent of total sworn officers in the City of Glendale (Szoltysik, 2014).

Morale, Motivation, Satisfaction. Defined as emotional or mental condition with respect to cheerfulness, confidence, and zeal, especially in the face of opposition or hardship. Morale, motivation, and satisfaction may be used synonymously. The focus will be satisfaction. (<http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/morale>, 2013).

Motivators. Part of Frederic Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory regarding job-content related self-direction and productivity satisfaction as motivators: (a) interesting work, (b) advancement, (c) opportunities for learning, and (d) achievement (Guha, 2010).

Paramilitary-Bureaucratic Structure. Organizational command structure featuring hierarchy, explicit rules, and complex labor division and specialization is paramilitaristic (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009).

Phenomenology. Philosophical tradition first utilized in scientific study by Edmund H. Husserl (1859-1938). The study of how people make sense of their described experiences. Attending to perceptions and meanings of experiences. To gain meaning of direct lived experiences from participants (Patton, 2002).

Phenomenological Analysis. Study design focused on how humans make sense of experiences and convert experiences into consciousness, individually and as shared meaning. Seek to obtain and make clear meaning, structure and the fundamental nature of the lived experience of a phenomenon of a person or group of people (Patton, 2002).

Philosophical Worldview. A general view about the world and a basic set of beliefs that guide action shaped by a discipline or area of scholarship is one's philosophical worldview (Creswell, 2013).

Qualitative Research. A means for exploring and understanding meaning of individuals or groups attributed to a social or human problem is qualitative research (Creswell, 2013).

Recruit, Police. Individuals who are exposed to intense police training and socialization prior to full-time employment or appointment are police recruits (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009).

Social Constructivism. Postulation that humans seek to understand the world in which they live is social constructivism. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences (Creswell, 2013).

Traditionalist Generation. Individuals characterized by general birth dates prior to 1946 sometimes are also referred to as Veterans or Silents (Frost, 2011).

Two-Factor Theory. Frederic Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory regarding job-content and context revealing motivators and hygiene factors. Narrative study in 1957 encompassing 200 participants from nine U.S. companies described job incidents that made them feel exceptionally good or bad. Job-content items involve internal, self-direction and productivity that were satisfying or dissatisfying were labeled motivators. External job-context items that were satisfying or dissatisfying were labeled hygiene factors. Herzberg perceived these items as separate. Therefore, the presence of a motivator resulting in job satisfaction did not lead to job dissatisfaction when absent, and vice versa (Guha, 2010).

Workplace Age Gap. Philosophical difference between generational work norms, tools, and technologies creates a workplace age gap (Greengard, 2011).

Summary

Perceived low workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers (Eldridge, 2012; Wasilewski, 2011) is a problem. Examination of this perception of low workplace satisfaction for millennial-aged police officers is important for retention and service to the community. Carefully designed research questions and follow-on questions guided participant responses through individual interviews. A purposefully targeted sample of Glendale Police Officers provided factors for workplace satisfaction that can be categorized through Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory as external hygiene or internal motivators. Armed with this information, police and community leaders can proactively work together for greater effectiveness.

Literature Review

Contemporary generational literature identified employees born since 1980 as the Millennial Generation or Generation Y (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). Millennial-aged police officers are quickly gaining a large percentage of police employment positions (Szoltysik, 2014). Millennial-aged employees expect high workplace satisfaction (Herbison & Boseman, 2009) and this generation of sworn police officers are the future of policing. Police organizations could benefit by identifying factors for Millennial-aged police officers' maximum workplace satisfaction. The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of Millennial-aged police officers. This literature review discussed the historical perspective of policing, community policing, police culture, and generational research. The literature review finished with a discussion presenting Millennial workplace satisfaction, police culture's incongruence with Millennial behavior, and workplace methods for improved Millennial-aged police officer satisfaction.

Documentation

The literature for this research was obtained from multiple sources to identify specific workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged employees. The historical and contemporary perspectives of generational diversity were included in the literature review. The key terms for this review assisted in the search criteria to specifically define the areas to explore directly in line with the statement of the problem.

The online library at Northcentral University (NCU) was the main source for peer-reviewed articles from EBSCO Host and ProQuest. Additional contemporary online and print articles were obtained from Google Scholar, the International Association of Chiefs of Police

(IACP), the Federal Bureau of Investigation National Academy (FBINA) and PoliceOne.com written by prior and current law enforcement leaders and researchers.

Historical Perspective of American Policing

Contemporary American policing is structured from an evolution and mixture of styles from old English and Colonial America (Archbold, 2013, Johnson, 1981; Police History, n.d.). Early American policing was carried out by volunteers from the community in order to police their own members. This style of policing was unorganized, without many rules, without purposeful policies. It appears early law enforcement was informal and communal, designed to meet the needs of each community with varying cultures, rather than utilizing wide-reaching policies, rules, and laws (Potter, 2013).

Johnson (1981) stated the disorganized policing of early America derived out of necessity in the port town of Boston, Massachusetts in 1631. Local ordinances were enforced by appointed constables who were just neighboring townspeople. These early lawmen were responsible for alarming the town of fires, maintaining health and sanitation, as well as capturing and bringing suspects to magistrates. This primitive style of law enforcement generally ran through the entire American Revolution. An innovative and organized law enforcement became necessary and was born out of the disorder of this historical time period (Potter, 2013).

The organized policing movement in America followed the British style known as the frankpledge system (Archbold, 2013; Potter, 2013). In Britain, this semi-structured community policing was responsible for enforcing the local laws and dealing with stray animals. Men living in each of the communities would loosely organize in groups of ten called tythings with ten of these groups referred to as hundreds and then finally organized into shires. The shires of the time were similar to modern day counties in America. All law enforcement was in the

responsibility of the shire reeve; hence the title sheriff was born in the United States (Archbold, 2013; Johnson, 1981). These new policing concepts shaped and evolved into constables, sheriffs, and community watchmen of Colonial America.

As new racial and ethnic group conflicts arose in Colonial America, slave patrols were created in the South. These patrols were specifically designed to maintain control over the slave population and evolved into policing indentured servants and then whites (Archbold, 2013; "Early Colonial Policing," n.d.). Some literature identified these slave patrols as the first major organization of policing in America, while other literature points to the early development of urban police departments. Either way, American policing continued to grow and evolve from contemporary issues.

Sir Robert Peel, the Home Secretary of England, is credited as the father of modern policing. He is the author of the Metropolitan Police Act to Parliament in 1829 which also led to the creation of the London Metropolitan Police that same year (Archbold, 2013). The following nine Peelian Principles of Modern Policing are the foundation for all contemporary westernized law enforcement today:

1. The basic mission for which the police exist is to prevent crime and disorder.
2. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police actions.
3. Police must secure the willing co-operation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain the respect of the public.
4. The degree of co-operation of the public that can be secured diminishes proportionately to the necessity of the use of physical force.

5. Police seek and preserve public favour not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law.
6. Police use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice and warning is found to be insufficient.
7. Police, at all times, should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence.
8. Police should always direct their action strictly towards their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary.
9. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it (*Nobility of Policing Training*, 2013, p. 44).

The nine Peelian Principles of Modern Policing directed early organizations, and they continue to be the cornerstone for contemporary law enforcement. Peel's principles are cross-cultural and relevant to all generations. The principles are timeless and universal, therefore just as applicable and necessary in today's historical and progressive police organizations alike.

Rapid urbanization of the early-established United States necessitated local and incorporated police organizations. The New York City Police Department was unified in 1845, followed by St. Louis in 1846, Chicago in 1854, and Los Angeles in 1869 (Archbold, 2013, Potter, 2013; Johnson, 1981). These departments were developed more as a need to maintain order than they were as a response to criminal activity (Potter, 2013). During this rapid expansion of more modern police departments, the Peelian Principles were instrumental in the development of police responsibilities and new organizational policies. The early police

departments all shared similar building blocks: (a) publicly funded, (b) bureaucratic in form, (c) full-time police employees, (d) department policies, and (e) accountable to the sponsored governmental authority (Potter, 2013). The publicly funded, bureaucratic police departments were established with community tax dollars and all organized in similar fashion. Full-time employees were accountable by rule of law under legal color of authority rather than untrained community volunteers. It is very likely that the Peelian Principles of modern policing were instructed to early police officers, and they continue to be taught in police academies nationwide as a historical perspective still valid today.

The direct involvement of politics in mid 1800s policing is evident in the historical literature. Politicians preferred police department to emphasize social control over labor workers rather than emphasis on controlling crime rates. The American Industrial Revolution brought about a class system of employers and employees sometimes found conflict with the local law enforcement (Potter, 2013). Therefore, business owners and politicians developed a reciprocal relationship with the police forces to keep the employees under control. Sometimes, entire police forces would change personnel with the new political leaders (Archbold, 2013). Police departments of the time clearly worked for the business owners and politicians.

Police departments would work under the authority from a local government and its politicians as an illusion of maintaining law and order. Public disorders such as drunkenness, political protests, and labor riots were classified as social disorder. Some literature posits the politician-controlled police of the time were actually the henchmen for early class warfare. The inferior of society were identified by their lack of skill or education or maybe by their foreign status, ethnicity or skin color (Lundman 1980 as cited in Potter, 2013).

During the earlier days of modern policing, politicians became so powerful within police organizations; they directly their own police chiefs. These chiefs found they had very little influence over their own organizations due to the political stronghold of the politicians who appointed them (Archbold, 2013). The tenure of a police chief was directly connected to the ability and willingness to play the political games of the time. The continued rise of police corruption at the organizational level was exacerbated by the direct connection to the politicians and wealthy business owners of the time.

Limited leadership and supervision of the police officers' daily duties led to further corruption and brutality in early American policing. No training or prerequisites existed for early police recruits. Hiring able-bodied males from the general community or relatives looking for work was standard practice. New police candidates and recruits who were willing to do the political bidding of the time were drawn in and hired. Workplace satisfaction and retention literature from early policing appears to be only about individuals willing to take orders from corrupt leaders and politicians were subsequently allowed to keep their jobs. When the only accountability for a police department's actions came from the elected politicians who controlled them, little to no trust was developed with the communities they served.

Alcohol, bribery, gambling, prostitution, organized crime and intimidation of political party opposition became commonplace in many of the police department nationwide throughout the remainder of the 1800s (Walker, 1996 as cited in Potter, 2013). Unfortunately, policing had become embedded in the social behaviors of the time that they were entrusted to combat rather than strict adherence to the Peelian Principles of Modern Policing.

The early 1900s brought about police reform through the development of multiple commissions to investigate the efficacy of modern policing. Archbold (2013) posited the

mission of the police reform commissions was to remove as much as possible the politicians and politics from American policing. Standards for hiring police recruits and administrators were now established rather than political appointees following a political agenda. The commissions were developed to clean up the current police organizations while creating professional police departments for the foreseeable future.

August Vollmer (1933, as cited in Archbold, 2013) outlined very important changes that occurred within American policing in the early 1900s. Civil service systems were put in place for the hiring and promotions of police officers. This novel idea was designed to place the community internal to police departments and further remove the politicians. The civil service boards and rules also created hiring and training standards for police department through a series of best practices nationwide. Use of force training was also an instructional standard along with the other established police-specific training lacking from the past. Police communications also greatly improved. Call boxes and a two-way radio system began to emerge, which drastically improved efficiency and safety. Police administrators began to utilize a strategic police presence as a new model for proactively policing neighborhoods rather than the historically reactive style. These innovative changes in policing and police behavior were identified and necessary to combat the rampant corruption internal to organizations nationwide.

Police departments continued to face investigations designed to further professionalize and modernize them. Potter (2013) described the entire 1900s as commission after commission investigating, cleaning up, and prosecuting police individuals across the entire United States. Some examples include: (a) Curren Committee in 1913 citing collusion with gambling and prostitution, (b) Seabury Committee in 1932 for prohibition corruption, (c) Knapp Commission in 1972 for gambling and drugs, and (d) Mollen Commission in 1993 investigated organized

crime, excessive use of force, and drug use by police officers. These examples are provided in this research study as evolutionary and historical accounts of improved police services that continue today.

Historically, organizations have attempted to improve themselves from within the ranks as well. Police chiefs and leaders often appointed during or after scandals have made efforts and had successes in improving their police departments as well as the bureaucratic system itself (Potter, 2013). The continued improvements of police organizations from within were also directed at hiring practices, training standards, police policies, and the reduction of politics. Organization objectivity rather than political subjectivity became the new policing standard.

Potter (2013) explained the 1950s appears in the literature as a historical mark on American policing. The central theme for police departments of this time was crime control in a new paramilitary style. Police departments evolved into armed government officials in uniform with a rank structure that split their communities into beats for greater efficiency. Greater accountability and supervision arose from the new-found professionalism, and command and control of the police forces were centralized to a headquarters administration.

Over a relatively short period of time, the aggressive paramilitary style and tactics of the 1950s police departments clashed with the members of their communities, especially minority citizens. When Rosa Parks was arrested in 1955 for failing to follow a segregation ordinance on a city bus, a community-organized boycott was instituted, and race relations with police greatly suffered. Whether protests were peaceful or not, some police agencies chose to arrest protest participants.

The extremely expanded media outlets of the United States brought attention to this dire police and community conflict in which the Kerner Commission identified police actions as the

major cause for igniting civil disorder (Archbold, 2013). Aggressive stop and frisk procedures among minority males through the paramilitary police model developed a police repression that extended throughout the next decade. During this historical time of policing, the vast professionalism of the police departments was inward looking which isolated communities rather than include them until forced through federal and state legislation (Potter, 2013). Community-based policing was created as another evolution for the way law enforcement organizations should operate.

Community Policing

Community policing was developed as a result of lessons learned throughout the history of American policing. This policing method is not an altogether new style of policing, as some would label it, but it is a continual development of police operations as based on best practices nationwide ("BJA Community Policing," 1994; Patterson, 1995). Sir Robert Peel's innovative principles of policing from 1829 are the cornerstone of contemporary community policing methods (Patterson, 1995). Law enforcement officers during Peel's era were directed to be recognized in the public, obtain local information from the citizens, as well as recognize strangers from known faces in their assigned areas. Officers were supposed to be familiar with the neighborhoods and its normal activities to better identify deviant criminal behavior. This philosophy and proactive application of policing birthed the police beat system that is so familiar in American policing today.

When the Peelian Principles of Modern Policing are combined with police policies and practices, community policing ensues. "Community policing is, in essence, a collaboration between the police and the community that identifies and solves community problems" ("BJA Community Policing," 1994, p. vii). Community policing, community-based policing, and

community-oriented policing are the most popular terms used to describe these modern police tactics, philosophies, and strategies. Other terms such as postprofessionalism and neotraditionalism are also found in the literature (Patterson, 1995). Whichever term is most appropriate or popular, they all illustrate police officers are no longer working to solve crimes and problems independently; the community is instrumental at all levels when community policing programs are active.

With an innovative emphasis of community members interacting with police officers, problems can be solved for current issues and create future community programs. An environment of trust between the community and its police officers is paramount for the success of community policing. Some communities may take longer to develop trusting partnerships for the full benefits of community policing ("BJA Community Policing," 1994). As stated previously, the historical perspective of policing amongst minorities and labor workers would explain how some communities or cultures are suspicious of police organizations and their efforts to integrate community policing.

Potter (2013) stated genuine working relationships between the police and the community could alleviate many community issues such as: (a) improved police community relations, (b) police decentralization, and (c) impact on how citizens feel about their communities rather than just focusing on crime rates. Historically, American policing reactively responded to all exigent issues in the community in conjunction with political bureaucratic changes (Kania, 2004; Patterson, 1995) rather than work with the community. Policing today is clearly more than dealing with criminal issues, but working hand in hand with the community for all issues.

Improved police community relations come from building trust through implementation and practice of the community policing model (Chapman & Scheider, n.d.). More frequent

interaction between police and the community will develop closer interpersonal relationships. Daily activities that place police officials and community members together to problem-solve develops greater trust. This trust, in turn, enhances daily communication as well as during times of crisis and chaos.

Police decentralization is a means of putting the problem-solving of community issues back into the hands of the community, such as Arizona's Silent Witness. Silent Witness is a member of both Crime Stoppers USA and Crime Stoppers International. This program utilizes television and radio media outlets as a force multiplier for police agencies seeking help. The police department point-blank asks for the community's help in solving a recent or unsolved crime. Limited information about the crime is released to the community in effort to obtain greater leads for investigators to follow. Silent Witness offers communities members to assist in criminal investigations while maintaining their anonymity. This program also offers rewards to those who provide information that leads to arrests of suspects outstanding in criminal cases (Silent Witness, 2015).

Social media outlets are another example of police decentralization with community assistance. Millennial-aged police officers are clearly comfortable with multiple versions of social media (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010), and they have found a way to increase communication efficiency with the community. Crime tips, traffic jams, and Amber Alerts for missing children have changed community policing through social media networks (Basu, 2012). Social media appears to be raising community policing to a new level by assisting direct communication between police departments and its citizens.

Community policing can greatly impact how citizens feel about living in their communities. Community policing is cooperative across a broad spectrum of issues affecting

quality of life through community partnership and problem solving. As the social environment of America changes, so do the community policing philosophies. Single parent households have become more normal in society and children continue to be left alone more often. Immigrants, minorities, and ethnic groups are defining American life differently ("BJA Community Policing," 1994), and community policing efforts may qualitatively change community perceptions when appropriately launched and managed in the community.

Community policing is more than a philosophy. Practical application of programs supporting the philosophy is important to the success of community policing. Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, President George W. Bush created the USA Freedom Corps to develop greater volunteer programs nationally focusing on acts of service, sacrifice and generosity. VIPS (2015) described the Citizens Corps provides volunteer opportunities to make communities safer and stronger with partnerships with local police agencies. This partnership became the Volunteers in Police Service (VIPS) which is managed by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP). The Citizens Corps and the VIPS program build on successful efforts in nationwide communities to prevent crime and responder to disasters and emergencies ("VIPS," 2015). Police departments can contact the IACP for free information and policies for setting up VIPS programs in their communities. Online video training is also available for no charge to organizational leaders. Successful implementation of the VIPS programs requires relationship building and leadership.

Another popular and well-known community policing program is Neighborhood Watch by the National Crime Prevention Council. Released in 1972, Neighborhood Watch relies on citizens to organize themselves and work closely with local law enforcement to reduce crime and improve community awareness ("Neighborhood Watch - National Crime Prevention Council,"

2015). The program is currently sponsored by the National Sheriffs' Association (NSA) which finds its roots back to Colonial America and the volunteer watchmen of the time who protected the community. The NSA uses the historical watchmen model with contemporary tools and technology through the community to improve community way of life.

Community policing does not mean police officers are no longer dedicated to fighting crime. Fighting crime should be incorporated into the goals and application of community policing with decentralized decision-making lowered to the street cop and community member ("Crime Fighting Community Policing," 2005). A combination of community input with police statistics and investigations may be the best combination for crime fighting and improving the way of life in the community.

With the rapid police organizational and cultural changes, community policing has the ability to evolve with the people and the issues while continuing to solve problems and developing public trust ("Community Policing Defined," n.d.). A genuine community policing effort is necessary from police leadership, officers, and the community for maximum effectiveness. A change in police tactics and philosophies usually goes hand in hand with a modification in police paradigms and culture.

Police Culture

Culture is loosely defined as the acceptable way of thoughts, beliefs, and behavior of a particular group which is passed on to succeeding generations (Welsh, 2005). The police culture is unique to those who work in a law enforcement capacity. Often the police culture characterizes the public police administration, and other police officers as hostile, not trust worthy and out to get them due to aspects inherent to the three forms of organizational culture (a) artifacts, (b)

embedded values, and (c) ethos or fundamental assumptions (Scaramella, Cox, & McCamey, 2010).

Artifacts are tangible items that promote the police structure such as the badge, gun, marked patrol cars, and methods of coded speech. Police artifacts are highly recognizable and support pride and honor across the law enforcement industry. These items appear to be utilitarian and passed on through generations of peace officers. For example, the culture of a police officer's uniform is different than a costume, because the uniform represents an entire industry and is role-filling rather than role-playing (Scaramella et al., 2010).

Historical artifacts for policing have both positive and negative effects on specific police agencies and the entire law enforcement industry. From the Colonial American slave patrols to the police conflicts of the American civil rights movement, analysis of police tools by many minority cultures has been negative (Potter, 2013). For example, a police baton carried for hundreds of years by police officers worldwide can be viewed as a negative artifact by community members due to historical events such as slave control, union busting, and the highly publicized Los Angeles Police Department Rodney King incident in 1993. Whether positive or negative, these tangible artifacts of policing should support the optimistic and constructive embedded values of the industry.

Embedded values, such as integrity and justice guide the police subculture. New officers learn rules and procedures from the policy manual, but they learn the ways of policing from trainers and fellow officers (Scaramella et al., 2010). The Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board is an example of a statutory government agency that develops and maintains the embedded values of sworn peace officers. The AZPOST was originally developed to attend to the need for minimum peace officer selection, recruitment, retention and training standards.

AZPOST also provides curriculum and standards for all certified law enforcement training facilities statewide. The mission of the AZPOST Board is to foster public trust and confidence by establishing and maintaining standards of integrity, competence, and professionalism for Arizona peace officers and correctional officers, and its vision is to produce and maintain the most professional peace officers in America (Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board, n.d.). The embedded values within the police culture of Arizona begin with AZPOST, when properly nurtured by police organizations should then become fundamental assumptions for all police officers.

The fundamental assumptions or spirit of policing such as courage, autonomy, and confidentiality are the ethos of policing. When confidentiality is turned into secrecy to protecting one's self or partner, this becomes a negative infestation in policing (Scaramella et al., 2010) and violates the fundamental core of police culture. The spirit of policing is service and sacrifice. This sacrifice is often manifested through the officer's health or life.

Police work environments are filled with daily stressors both internal and external to the organization. Cruickshank (2013) stated it is reasonable to assume the command and control structure of policing negatively affects the overall morale and satisfaction of police organizations. Officers often historically reflect internal departmental issues as the greatest area of dissatisfaction in their careers (Cruickshank, 2013; Orrick, 2013).

Organizational trust is a fundamental element of any police agency. Ralston and Chadwick (2009) explained current literature demonstrates many organizational benefits, such as employee commitment, satisfaction, and performance, are directly linked to trust. Police organizations are unique in daily operations when compared to civilian due to the very nature trust is understood and engaged. Historically, police organizations' handle decision-making,

discretion, and control through centralized and paramilitaristic means (Groeneveld, 2005 as cited in Ralston & Chadwick, 2009).

Many typologies of police culture exist that separate officers and explain a cultural phenomenon of us versus them. Reuss-Ianni's Typology 4-World Syndrome for police divides officers from each other inside the department as well as from the community in which they serve (*Police Culture*, 2005). A quick-responding street cop is opposed to a paperwork-driven desk cop which creates the internal us versus them, and those who are viewed as cooperative versus defensive create the external opposition.

This typology explains how officers must be able to exist and survive in four distinctly different worlds. An us versus them and we/they worldview is pervasive in policing and anthropologically passed on through generations of cops internal and external to the organization. Generationally speaking, communicating the typologies across all of the generations appears to be an issue due to distinctly different worldviews.

Policing is mainly a paramilitary-bureaucratic culture rather than collaborative (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009). In the military, members are trained to deal with the intense stressors of the job knowing it most likely will be for a few years. Unlike the military, police departments train their personnel for the unique job stressors for what could be over 20 years. Many cops would say they are just learning the job after four years, so how does a member of policing go from rookie status loving the job to veteran status hating the job excited to leave? (Gilmartin, 2002).

The hierarchical police structure is designed to instill discipline throughout its ranks (Wexler, Wycoff, & Fischer, 2007). Discipline to follow orders and tow the company line can cause internal organizational strife. In an occupation such as policing, severe extremes exist in

the daily work from boredom to sheer terror (*Police Culture*, 2005). Policies and procedures combined with police embedded values do not always properly address the negativity. More progressive departments could find success by adopting mentoring styles of action to repair trust rather than direct behavioral change through discipline (Wexler, Wycoff, & Fischer, 2007).

Military and police-type organizations develop and maintain trust as a vital part of their culture. Ralston and Chadwick (2009) found increased mutual interdependence is mandated in police culture due to increased personal risk and vulnerability to daily tasks. Sworn officers' exposure to high risks daily greatly impacts interpersonal relationships and trust. The authors discovered three trust aspects unique to policing: (a) friendships with other officers outside of work, (b) procedural justice, and (c) supervisory behavior.

Research indicated sworn police officers spend more time with other police officers outside of the work environment when compared to their civilian counterparts. Ralston and Chadwick (2009) posited this extended hours created stronger social relationships, therefore greater trust. The social cohesion developed in police organizations is vital to maintain positive culture.

The idea of procedural justice refers to one's perception of fairness and decision-making within an organization. Research of paramilitary organizations has identified a level of dependence from employees to employer for daily activities, pensions, and healthcare benefits that fosters a strong identity and loyalty (Siebold, 2007 as cited in Ralston & Chadwick, 2009). When police officers lose faith in their leaders or the system they depend upon, satisfaction and loyalty are diminished.

Trusting relationships between police officers and their supervisors is paramount for a positive organizational culture. The high level of stress in police work makes this relationship

especially important. The positive and negative perception of police supervisors is impactful on employees. Perceived negative feelings toward a supervisor become a burden, while the presence of an engaged and personable leader positively affects organizational commitment and morale of police officers (Ralston & Chadwick, 2009). A police organization void of trust amongst its members could result on a very negative culture and low employee satisfaction and morale.

As noted earlier, the historical shift to police professionalism had unintended organizational culture consequences. Agencies became divided into old-timers and more progressive college-educated officers (Patterson, 1995). The us versus them mentality historically socialized officers to rely on a cop versus criminal culture, yet a new divisive culture has shifted inside police organizations based on seniority, education, sworn status, and rank. Internal organizational strife has become the norm in American policing.

Organizational stress and line employee opposition has a historical stronghold on police culture. More recently, Cruickshank (2013) reported a survey of 2,500 police officers by Neal Trautman, PhD found the majority of the 10 greatest sources of anger and low satisfaction came from police administrators, not daily police duties or citizens. A culture of low job satisfaction appears to be greatly affected by police decision-makers through poor communication, inconsistent employee discipline and supervisory politics within the organization.

Toxic relationships have permeated law enforcement organizations Orrick (2013) stated the most fastest growing and most prevalent toxicity is a sense of entitlement among police officers. (Orrick, 2013). These individuals are described as low value and entitled to differential treatment. The author stated these police officers believe they are above employment performance assessment, and when confronted they claim being mistreated. No demographic

information was offered about these individuals to determine generational cohort other than fastest growing.

Generational Research

Generational research has an abundant footprint on classic and contemporary literature. A generation is defined as a group of people who have similar life experiences concurrently developed due to historical events (Mannheim, 1936; Massey, 2006). These similar life experiences affect an individual's worldview both personally and professionally. Individual anomalies may exist within a generation, but this research focused on generational commonalities. Members of a generational cohort are generally bound together by historical world events that create a context for life, and this context appears to be carried and replicated through life.

The private sector has more generational literature than the public sector, and policing has nearly none. This research combined generational literature of private industries with many civilian public sectors to include military and correctional references similar to policing. Generational divides appear to exist in all American workplaces, yet policing is different because of its culture (Cappitelli, 2014).

The four major generations currently in the American workforce are the (a) Traditionalists, born prior to 1946, (b) Baby Boomers, born 1946-1964, (c) Generation X, born 1965-1979 and, (d) Generation Y or Millennials, born after 1980. Often the research literature has slightly differing demarcations for the generational cohorts, but the previous dates are generally accepted (Cogin, 2012; Kaifi, Nafei, Khanfar, & Kaifi, 2012; and Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012). Generational diversity in the workplace is not a new subject, but it has become a highly investigated topic in contemporary peer-reviewed and popular media

literature (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). Each generation possesses and exhibits unique beliefs and values in the workplace developed from their shared life experiences (Lester et al., 2012) through the history of the time. These unique beliefs and values may positively or negatively affect the workplace through lack of understanding or communication. It is clear that the literature on generational differences is growing, but it is unclear if generational differences and characteristics are identifiable and generalizable across a single or multiple work industries.

Literature suggests distinctive expectations and motivators exist amongst each of the diverse generations: (a) Traditionalists, (b) Baby Boomers, (c) Generation X, and (d) Millennials. Organizational decision-makers would benefit by identifying genuine generational differences through research data rather than relying on popular media literature. A legitimate research study might assist in identifying generational characteristics that organizational leaders could utilize for hiring, satisfaction, and retention. Each generation exhibits unique strengths and weaknesses in the American workforce.

Members of each generation are subjected and influenced by cultural, societal and family events that occurred during their formative years. The formative years are generally accepted across the literature as pre-teen through teenage years of life. (Massey, 2006). As individuals develop through their formative years, various historical events impact each generation differently and are displayed open or latently for a lifetime. These historical events are what usually bind an individual to a particular generational cohort. Again, anomalies may exist due to life events that differ from the general generational population. For example, generational cuspers may not fall in line with the norms and characteristics of a single generation. Individuals born somewhere near the widely-debated birth-year demarcations or within a few years of the generational split are known as cuspers. Cuspers sometimes have the ability to move between

two different generational cohorts due to the historical events that bind cuspers during their formative years. But, these individuals usually identify with the generation that most closely fits their underlying values and lifestyle characteristics (Hammill, 2005) identified throughout their lifetime.

Traditionalist Generation. Members of the Traditionalist Generation are usually defined by the Great Depression. These individuals grew up in an era of great economic hardships and self-sacrifice. Their core values are usually a life sacrificed to an employer and conformity to the general society. Traditionalists are described as patient, loyal and they put work before play (Clare, 2009).

Cates (2010) stated traditionalists represent over 59 million of the present-day employees in the workplace. They want to continue to make a difference in their organizations through challenging and stimulating work. Professional growth and learning for Traditionalists comes through hands on experiences, and they appear to have difficulty with the fast-paced changes in technology. Literature reveals that Traditionalists actually have a positive view of technology, but they may require more training (Cates, 2010) due to their unfamiliarity with the new and often changing technologies.

Emelo (2011) suggested members of the Traditionalist generational cohort appear to work well with patient Millennial mentors. Millennials appear to focus on their relationships with thus older generation as they explore technologies such as social networking with them. Matching Millennials with Traditionalists in law enforcement may have an immediate positive organizational impact.

Traditionalist employees often exude extreme loyalty, self-discipline, and organizational knowledge (Cekada, 2012) to their superiors. Many in this generational cohort have retired from

the workplace, but continue to value a working lifestyle through volunteer of part-time employment. The apparent diversity of blending Traditionalists with Millennial employees in the workplace could cause collaboration and conflict which required further research through this study.

Baby Boomer Generation. In contrast to the Traditionalist Generation, individuals from the Baby Boomer Generation generally grew up with drastically changing economic and political events (Dittman, 2005, as cited in Cates, 2010). For example, the formative years for a Baby Boomer likely experienced the Vietnam War, Martin Luther King, Jr. and John F. Kennedy assassinations, as well as Watergate, increased feminism, and Woodstock (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Baby Boomer family units also moved from urban to suburban areas into homes, and for the first-time families owned multiple cars. Raised by strong work-ethic parents, the almost 80 million Baby Boomers entered the workforce at a furious pace like never before in American history. To get ahead in the workforce, this competitive, hard-working generation started to work more than the standard 40 hours per week. Current literature exists with varying opinions about the positive or negative impacts of the increased work hours (Cekada, 2012) introduced and maintained by members of the Baby Boomer generational cohort.

Today, over 76 million Baby Boomers still occupy the American workplace, and they are often found in positions of higher authority in organizations due to workplace experience and seniority. They often define work ethic as long hours and face-time. This Baby Boomer approach to vocation and their definition of work ethic are displayed in both management and followership styles (Cates, 2010). Therefore, Baby Boomers are less likely to push against their superiors while spending long hours at work and away from their families.

Baby Boomers have created an organizational cultural value in the number of hours a person spends working as well as the amount of money paid for working (Cates, 2010). This face-time, butt-in-seat, at the workplace, organizational institutionalization is respected and desired by Baby Boomers, but not Millennials. Many Baby Boomer organizational leaders complain about Millennials who do not fit the company mold, yet they themselves created them as their own children (Scheef & Thielfoldt, 2004 as cited in Cekada, 2012) This workplace leadership incongruence can often conflict with the workplace behavior and acceptance of the younger Millennial Generation employees (Simons, 2010).

Generation X. The work-driven, many-hours working environment implemented by Traditionalists and Baby Boomers developed the unique members of Generation X through a pseudo-rebellion against the long work hours away from the family. As a result, Gen X members became independent and adaptable employees who saw their parents' loyalty to employers rewarded with layoffs and considerable cutbacks (Cekada, 2012). The increase of divorce and moms going to work evolved into latchkey kids who helped raise their siblings autonomously. These negative formative years experiences translated into the current informal, self-reliant Generation X employees and bosses (Hammill, 2005 as cited in Cates, 2010).

The constant need for independence in the workplace, and the dislike of micromanagement comes as a result of their lonely albeit autonomous upbringing. Gen Xers prefer to receive and give feedback immediately in an informal manner. Work must be fun, loosely structured and combined with many opportunities for personal and professional growth (Cates, 2010).

Career options are usually viewed as open to Generation Xers who watched their parents' reduction in force and layoff in the 1980s. They may prepare for their opportunistic departure

from an employer due to an economic downturn as a defense to their parents' negative experiences during the Generation X formative years (Cekada, 2012). A Generation Xer will often have an eye on a few new job opportunities or even an entirely new industry ready to go at a moment's notice.

Members of Generation X take their employment status seriously, but they are continuously building their personal resumes in preparation for lateral or external opportunities (Simons, 2010). This behavior may be a result of trying to obtain employment that allows the Generation Xer to maximize time spent with their families. Twenge (2010) stated in cross sectional data from the Families and Work Institute, 52% of Generation X was family centric as compared to the 40% of Baby Boomers. This may suggest some of the current conflict between work, life, and family balance Generation X experiences in the workplace with their Baby Boomers supervisors. These Generation X workplace satisfiers may also be in conflict with the Millennials, and is further discussed in this research study.

Millennial Generation. The literature commonly identifies the latest generation in the workplace to be the most diverse. More specifically, Millennials are identified by their unique dress, body piercings, tattoos and constant electronic connectivity (Cogin, 2012) rather than just race and gender. As a generation who was constantly showered with attention and praise, Millennials are often described from confident to arrogant (Cekada, 2012). Alsop (2008) referred to the Millennial Generation as self-absorbed trophy kids who aspire to be financially successful, with strong global/environmental and socially-responsible consciousness.

Millennials are uniquely different because their own goals and desires seem to conflict while interestingly working well together. For instance, Alsop (2008) also described how contemporary popular and research literature often depict Millennials as narcissistic and

egocentric, furthermore they are described as the most philanthropic generation in history as reported by the Pew Research Center (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). Maybe these contrasting behaviors and beliefs are why Twenge (2006) described today's youngest Americans as confident, assertive, entitled, and more miserable than ever before.

Incongruent behavior internal to the Millennial Generation is also described by Alsop (2008) because Millennials desire strong supervision and direction in the workplace but demand the flexibility to complete tasks on their own terms. Lancaster and Stillman (2010) further described the Millennial Generation as the most difficult generation to work with as reported by the Baby Boomers and Generation Xers interviewed, but further qualitative research is required to identify the root cause of this legitimate or perceived revelation.

According to a Pew Research Center report (Taylor & Keeter, 2010), the Millennials identify their generational uniqueness through (a) technology, (b) music/pop culture, (c) liberalism/tolerance, (d) intelligence, and (e) clothing. Values listed by the other three generations in the workplace included items such as (a) honesty, (b) work ethic, and (c) respect/morals. Without this deeper investigation and research directly from Millennials, it could be too easy to conclude their uniqueness would greatly contrast with the other generations in the workplace (Bristow, 2009; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007).

Millennial Workplace Satisfaction

The Millennial Generation is defined as a cohort of individuals born since 1980 (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). They are the latest generation impacting the workforce to include America's police departments. Researching the most recent generation of employees affecting the workplace is not unique, but

identifying the root causes of workplace satisfaction in policing through the Millennial voice is necessary for high customer service and retention (White & Escobar, 2008).

Contemporary literature supports the proposition that Millennial employees behave differently in the workplace, but most employers apparently fail to integrate the needs of successive generations (Behrens, 2009). Before even being hired, traditional thinking in policing instructs new employees to adapt to the existing organizational technology and culture or go away (Greengard, 2011). This workplace model is usually supported by police-themed television and movie culture, and it does not provide the best satisfactory workplace environment for high-speed Millennials yet to be immersed in the police culture. Creating the best environment for Millennials to want to become police officers and use their natural talents will increase workplace satisfaction and retention (Altes, 2009, Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007, Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010, Ferri-Reed, 2010, Siegfried, 2008).

Barford & Hester (2011) explained the work attitudes of Millennial employees are consistently compared to the two previous generations in the workplace; Baby Boomers and Generation X. The authors stated it is incumbent upon the leaders of the two older generations to provide the necessary workplace environment for their youngest employees to not only succeed but thrive. As discussed earlier, Millennial employees viewed workplace responsibilities and compensation as lower factors for job satisfaction with personal and professional advancement potential and free time as higher factors. This workplace attitude is clearly different than Baby Boomers and Generation X. The common and rigid, rules-laden, command and control workplace currently in policing and legislated by the Baby Boomers and Generation X leaders does not necessarily satisfy Millennial employees.

The Pew Research Center (2010) published a study which identified specific Millennial Generation values, attitudes, and experiences. Technologically proficient, constantly connected to social groups through the internet, and highly educated describes this latest generation of employees (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). When compared to Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board's standards for educational requirements, the Millennial Generation generally exceeds the minimum qualifications of high school diploma or general equivalency diploma with some college (AZPOST, 2013). Barford and Hester (2011) suggested government work may present too few workplace opportunities and promotions, therefore failing to fully engage Millennials. The authors also stated Millennials may simply be bored with their current level of responsibility provided by their government jobs. Workplace challenges and genuinely solicited input are important to maintain Millennial employee engagement.

A much higher level of flexibility when communicating to bosses and a valid voice heard in the workplace is a Millennial assertion (Kaifi et al., 2012). Millennials wish their voices to be heard by their bosses as well as their teammates as factors for workplace satisfaction (Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010). Employers are willing to advertise, recruit, hire and train Millennial employees, yet appear unwilling to place them on committees or allow them organizational input. Therefore, the best talent is not always retained in organizations due to overly-stringent government workplace policies (Kane, 2011). Every Millennial-aged officer can be a leader in their organization to help propel workplace satisfaction of their peers (World Future Society, 2007). The Millennial Generation may have to take the lead in making workplace changes to provide the most satisfying workplace environment rather than waiting for current managers to act. These implications were acknowledged in this research through identification of Millennial workplace satisfiers and motivators.

Millennials rank benefits, praise/recognition, personal happiness as well as flexibility high for job satisfaction, and it should be noted that job security ranks at the bottom of their list (Trulock, 2011). Due to the recent blending of the industrial and mechanized era with the computerized information age, choices of contemporary American industries are plentiful for Millennials. Police leaders must be aware of the motivators for Millennial-aged employees, as Millennials today have choices of employers as well as industries to provide the job satisfaction they seek. Police organizations are not just competing for Millennial-aged employees with other police agencies. Millennials are willing to look across multiple industries to identify the employer and industry that meets their workplace satisfaction needs. Hira (2007) reported that Millennials have no reservations about quitting a job that does not satisfy their list of needs and moving back home with their parents to search for another job. There appears to be no stigma associated with such a decision for the Millennial Generation.

Technology is one of the great satisfaction dividers between Millennials and other generational cohorts. About 75% of Millennials are connected to the internet every day, while only 40% Baby Boomers tune in as often (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). The constant use of mobile cellular technology can be a point of contention for Millennials and their older bosses. The overwhelming majority of Millennials prefer to communicate via text messaging at 87% (Cekada, 2012) and they often prefer to only communicate in this manner. This communication divergence can cause organizational conflict that leaders must better comprehend for organizational effectiveness. Technological communication in the workplace must be further researched to identify workplace behaviors and tools to improve communication and satisfaction.

The technological, external hygiene factors for Millennials in the workplace are plenty. Because Millennials were raised during the digital age, they have a unique and competitive edge

with contemporary communication and computing (Kaifi et al., 2012). Technology often increases the speed of decisions and deliverables, and this quickened pace can often result in Millennial employees appearing to be impatient and unsatisfied to older generations (Bannon, Ford, & Meltzer, 2011; Johnson 2011). The advanced technological skill of Millennials sets them apart from previous generations in the workplace, but exists to support high job satisfaction. Proactive organizational leaders could blend technology ideas from Millennial employees in communication decision-making and budgets.

Millennials also enjoy working in teams as a job-context hygiene factor. Millennial employees have most likely been placed in team atmospheres by their parents their entire lives to this point. Working together to problem-solve has been the main learning point of their schooling, sports and extracurricular activities. Therefore, Millennials tend to look down upon the individualistic cut-throat political and bureaucratic rigor of the previous generations (Emeagwali, 2011). The author stated Millennials prefer workplace collaboration to the compromise of politics.

A more relaxed dress and workplace atmosphere are highly desired by Millennials (Welsh & Brazina, 2010) through dressed down work days or more relaxed work uniforms. A quick look at the laidback workplace environments of Google, Red Bull, Facebook and Zappos reveal employers very well known to Millennials who offer extremely informal workplace environments (Dunlap, 2014). Paramilitaristic workplaces may have to reexamine their utilitarian dress code to attract and maintain highly satisfied Millennial-aged police employees.

Some intrinsic workplace motivators for Millennials also exist. Johnson (2011) interviewed Millennial employees and discovered new information. Millennials embraced social networking as they appear always plugged in and using the latest technology. They strive for

self-improvement and advancement through employer-provided training, and they want to reach their career goals much faster than previous generations. This is often interpreted as impatience and entitlement to older generations of bosses and coworkers.

A work-life balance is also mandatory for Millennials. Work and the environment must be fun. They expect to work collaboratively with their bosses rather than just for their bosses, which can be a challenge for some older generation leaders. All of the extrinsic factors and intrinsic motivators for Millennial-aged employees are important for organizational leaders to know, because research indicates employees in their twenties can be expected to stay in one position for just 1.1 years (Johnson, 2011). This high-level of turnover will negatively affect organizations through budgets and reduced customer service unless transformational leaders identify the issues and make the appropriate adjustments.

Police Culture Incongruent with Millennial Satisfaction

It is not unusual for beliefs and values of succeeding generations to be incompatible in the workplace (Eldridge, 2012). Police agencies that espouse problem-solving community policing for their officers appear to be incongruent with their internal paramilitaristic, bureaucratic organizational structure, which reduces officer morale (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009). For example, asking officers to have high external kindness and customer service for those they serve while administration treats them bureaucratically and militaristically internally does not match the original message sent by the police leaders.

Entrepreneurial, individual initiative is not embraced in militaristic cultures such as police organizations (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007). Forcing the youngest generation of employees to adapt to the organizational tools and systems currently in place or get out of the organization may not be the most effective police business model (Greengard, 2011). The

intense managerial environment in policing targets workers' performance, establishes unclear work priorities, and engages in workplace practices that negatively affect officers (Patterson, 2010). Millennial-aged officers appear sensitive to this phenomenon, as it is incongruent with their worldview, beliefs, and values taught to them in the formative years.

Wasilewski, (2011) reported Millennial-aged police officers are frustrating today's police supervisors, which in turn contributes to low Millennial police officer satisfaction. The past two decades has drastically changed what is expected from today's police officers as well as shifting police culture philosophies (Libicer, 2013). Officers have been asked to shift from distant enforcers of the law to more friendly community-based police officers. Most law enforcement organizations failed to incorporate the desires and preconceptions of the Millennial Generation of police officer (Behrens, 2009) to these contemporary philosophies. For example, Millennial employees prefer flexibility, autonomy, and work-life balance from their employers, and they highly prefer a more informal work environment (Welsh & Brazina, 2010), yet the strict police culture of rules, regulations, and uniforms has negatively affected Millennial satisfaction. Police departments with flexible workplaces with opportunities for personal growth and freedom are the most satisfying organizations for Millennials (Hewlett et al., 2009). The specific workplace factors and personal growth motivators have yet to be identified for police organization dissemination and practical application.

Generational conflicts in policing are traced to differences in culture, values, and communication styles (Sharp, 2012) obtained during the formative years. Older generation police officers, generally Baby Boomers, are staying longer in workplace, therefore maintaining the cultural status quo (Etter & Griffin, 2010). This long-term workplace culture is in opposition to the short-term, immediate ideology of Millennial-aged employees. Police recruiters discuss

20 to 30-year careers and retirements with an entire generation of prospective Millennial employees who are very poor at long-term planning and may prefer multiple employers (Hulett, 2006) or careers. This generational conflict increases in strength due to a misinterpretation of Millennials' desire for multiple employers as a lack of organizational loyalty. Perhaps, it is simply a different view of employment that can be properly addressed by informed police leadership.

As community policing gained popularity over the past few decades, research indicates agencies continue to train police recruits within militaristic and bureaucratic cultures (Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2009). Millennials crave the structure but require higher levels of praise than previous generations, which frustrate older supervisors and coworkers. This is Millennial behavior is often misinterpreted by the police instructors as Millennial entitlement.

Millennials also reported being part of a group and personal achievement as high factors for satisfaction (Borges, N. J., Manuel, R. S., Elam, C. L., & Jones, B. J.), yet policing teaches an autonomous style of service delivery. Police officers are trained to work alone in patrol cars to answer calls for service. The real team effort only comes during training days together or on large crime scenes or calls for service. The strong desire to work as a team is an internal satisfier, yet riding around in a patrol car all shift alone may be a dissatisfier.

Leaders may also discover independent thought is lacking among the Millennial Generation due to overprotective parenting (Alsop, 2008; Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). A common term in the research literature as well as popular media for Millennial parenting is helicopter parent. This type of parent hovers over their children protectively making daily decisions and diminishing personal growth (Aryafar & Ezzedeem, 2008; Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). Proactive police organizations must be prepared for the new workplace challenges for

Millennial-aged police officers (Behrens, 2009) for greater customer service and employee satisfaction.

The usual government politics in policing are unappealing to this youngest generation. Because Millennials were raised on an equal playing field in which everyone participates and wins, internal competition and politics are dismissed for participative teamwork (Gentry, Griggs, Deal, Mondore, & Cox, 2011). To obtain or maintain Millennial employee satisfaction, teamwork should be the focus of police managers. Politics must be instructed as a form of social networking to Millennial officers, rather than the barrage of political negativity they have experienced through the news or from parents. Working and performing in these types of social groups and teams is natural for the Millennial (Aryafar, M. K., & Ezzedeen, S. R., 2008), so enhancing their satisfaction may improve customer service. The accepted police structure appears to be teamwork and changing it to a participative management style in which Millennials are heard and respected is necessary for high police officer satisfaction.

The bureaucratic organizational culture of contemporary policing is working against the retention of Millennial employees. Ferri-Reed (2010) stated the archaic philosophy of throwing employees into a job and letting them sink or swim simply does not make sense for Millennials. A great deal of research advises employers to create flexible environments for Millennial employees to flourish, contribute, and utilize natural talents and education (Emeagwali, 2011; Hewlett, S. A., Sherbin, L., & Sumberg, K. 2009; Gentry, W. A., Griggs, T. L., Deal, J. J., Mondore, S. P., & Cox, B. D., 2011; Greengard, 2011; Lublin, 2010; Yeaton, 2008). Policing policies, rules and laws allow for discretion, but are heavily regulated; therefore, the flexible desired work environment for Millennials will be a challenge for the proactive police department.

Workplace Methods for Improved Millennial-aged Police Officer Satisfaction

To recruit Millennials into government service, police departments must offer opportunities for innovation, serving others, and environments to best use their talents (Della Volpe, 2010). Millennials are optimistic, and have big expectations, but they do not believe they will have a career with just one employer; after hiring, satisfaction of employee retention should be the main focus for police leaders (Hulett, 2006).

Almost twenty-eight percent of police officers employed by the City of Glendale are Millennial-aged, born since 1980 (Szoltysik, 2014) with varied amount of tenure. Effective recruitment, selection, and training of police officers are more critical now due to the aforementioned changing philosophies, expectations, and professionalism of employers and employees (White & Escobar, 2008). Police academies send officers to agencies for on the job training; to succeed or leave. The most high-maintenance and high performing generation of employees are the Millennials, yet no stigma exists if they quit a job when unhappy (Hira, 2007). When a young officer decides to leave their employer, police administration may not appropriately address the reasons for the separation through effective exit interviews, if given one at all.

The financial cost of an officer leaving the agency early in their career is difficult to identify due to the large range of police salaries nationwide. Any tax payer dollars that are spent to recruit, hire, and retain the correct police candidates should certainly be extended to retain the correct police officers. Emphasis is placed on maintaining the right person for the job. As with any industry, not all police job candidates get hired, and not all new hires are capable of maintaining the job. Millennial-aged employees are not afraid to give their opinion when

provided the opportunity (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010) and employers should be seeking this data as while they are employed and upon separation.

Flexible work arrangements and opportunities to serve society are more important to Millennial police applicants than the initial size of the pay package (Hewlett, Sherbin & Sumberg, 2009). It is unclear what this work arrangement would look like in the police industry. Police work is a boots-on-the-ground career that requires human attention, action, and intervention. Proactive police organizations could discuss flexibility with their Millennial Generation employees to identify their definition of flexibility. It is quite possible to meet the needs of labor and management through this research.

Millennials are described as optimistic about their employment future, but they believe that they will have many jobs and possibly many careers (Bannon, Ford & Meltzer, 2011). Knowing Millennials believe they will have many jobs, organizations should market policing as many different jobs within the same career and organization. For example, police recruiters could solicit Millennials for a police career by laying out the different police careers such as community service through patrol, investigations, public information, and neighborhood outreach as well as offer flexibility through shift changes and rotating assignments. All of these police positions mentioned offer lateral transfer while maintaining a steady income, possible pay raises, and a single retirement without changing employers or having to start over. If the Millennial applicant does not expect to have a career with one employer, then perhaps recruiting them by emphasizing all of the careers within a single organization (Hulett, 2006) would prove beneficial. Opportunities within the same organization now become attractive multiple jobs without losing an employee who has to start over.

Police departments nationwide have reported difficulty filling available positions, but the number of qualified applicants has not decreased (White & Escobar, 2008) even though the Millennials are currently the largest generation in the American workforce. Creative recruiting styles and venues specifically selected for Millennials could be explored by police departments beyond the traditional military and college job fairs to community and gaming events. With the impending exit of baby boomer employees in the future, open-minded management will attract the best Millennial employees (Siegfried, 2008). Creating a flexible recruiting atmosphere at unique venues could attract the best Millennial employees for police work is, because traditional recruiting tactics are no longer working (Hira, 2007). Creative police recruiters and leaders could look to nontraditional venues with target-rich environments for recruitment such as video game conferences, sporting events and spring-breakers to best fill the police vacancies with Millennial-aged applicants.

A Pew Research Center study of Millennial culture discussed life cycle effects, period effects, and cohort effects on their environment (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). In their life cycle, parents and media continuously impact their worldviews. During their formative years, Millennials develop a sense of self and decide to give back to their society based upon their experiences (Lancaster & Stillman, 2010). All people with access to modern western media have life cycle effects that are shared by a generation. Older generations were shaped during their formative years and may fail to recognize or appreciate the life cycle effects of millennial-aged police officers. This lack of understanding will cause conflict. Learning about the formative years and life cycle of Millennials will improve supervisor and coworker interpersonal relationships.

Period effects for Millennials occur during different times/periods of their life. As with all generations, adolescence to teenager and adult cause dramatic changes in our lives. Environmental factors that occur during each period of life transition will affect an individual (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). For example, a Millennial teenager whose parents were divorced shortly after the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 may be greatly impacted during this exact period as opposed to a younger Millennial who learned about 9/11 years later in a history class. Personal and environmental events that can coincide with important periods in life may develop differing world views. A brief pre-hire interview could allow a police recruiter to communicate more effectively with the Millennial candidate to best meet their employment needs through identification of strong period effects. A similar approach could be used by police trainers and supervisors to identify personal satisfiers from their formative years.

Cohort effects are experiences generally shared across the entire generation. Increased technological speed and dependence, worldwide wars, and political scandals all shared across the Millennial Generation will develop similar worldviews. An entire generation may have similar opinions on certain topics based upon this cohort effect, and the Millennial Generation is prepared to make their unique impression on the America (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). Training for police leaders regarding historical Millennial cohort effects could reduce current frustrations and anxiety that cause organizational conflict.

A positive relationship has been reported between quality performance by the leader and commitment by their followers (Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009). Police leaders who create and maintain positive relationships with Millennial officers will have greater influence on these followers. Therefore, a more supportive culture modeled by optimistic senior personnel is important to morale, whereas non-modeling has a negative impact (Muller et al., 2009).

Competency, organizational context, leader performance, and follower commitment among police officers is connected to the established relationship (Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2007), as the leaders' psychological capital positively relates to follower performance in policing (Walumbwa et al., 2010).

Collaborative police environments may find greater acceptance from Millennial officers. Assessing officers' needs and assigning responsibility without assessing blame is a contemporary tactic in policing. Addressing shortcomings and failures as opportunities for learning and growth are much more effective workplace environments for the Millennial officer (Welsh, 2005).

Application of contemporary business management principles to policing could affect positive change (Wexler, Wycoff, & Fischer, 2007). Leaders need to teach and train the Millennial-aged officers to manage themselves (Eldridge, 2012) internal to the greater police culture. The development of a new organizational culture and positive climate in policing is emphasized for greater effectiveness (Loyens, 2009). As an example, the new concept of part-time policing could be offered as a flexible way to maintain employee satisfaction and retain talent (Hyde, 2008). A paradigm shift in current police philosophies is necessary to positively influence Millennial-aged officers toward greater workplace satisfaction.

Summary

The impact of a police culture with low satisfaction and morale can be devastating to the officers, organization and the community in which they serve. Police officer turnover, absenteeism, and low productivity negatively affect community taxpayers and the delivery of public safety service (Cruickshank, 2013). Collaborative police organizations with proactive administrators will identify cultural issues that can longer go unattended and make enormous positive changes in their organizations.

Multiple generations are working together for every industry in America. The communication effort portrayed by each of the generations, at times, appears to be in opposition. A conscious effort to identify what makes each generational cohort unique in the workplace could improve employee satisfaction and retention. Research specifically identifying the workplace satisfiers and motivators for Millennial-aged police officers is necessary for improved organizations which could ultimately enhance police culture.

Millennial employees are fast-paced, technologically proficient, and change-oriented. Identifying factors and experiences that improve workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers is paramount for the future of policing. According to Ekblad & Hathaway (2010) progress, change, and challenge have become the satisfying factors behind job selection and retention of Millennial employees. This concluded research will assist police leaders in identifying and developing the best organizational environments to address Millennial employees more effectively. It is necessary to recognize the culture-sharing patterns of satisfying work environments for Millennial-aged police officers to best serve their organizations and communities.

Research Method

Contemporary generational literature identified employees born since 1980 as the Millennial Generation or Generation Y (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011). Millennial-aged police officers are quickly gaining a large percentage of police employment positions (Szoltysik, 2014). Millennial-aged employees expect high workplace satisfaction (Herbison & Boseman, 2009) and this generation of sworn police officers are the future of policing. Police organizations could benefit by identifying factors for Millennial-aged police officers for maximum workplace satisfaction. The

problem examined in this qualitative case study was the perceived low workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers (Eldridge, 2012; Wasilewski, 2011). The purpose of this qualitative case study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of Millennial-aged police officers.

Research questions used to identify shared qualitative phenomena of workplace satisfaction among Millennial-aged police officers are in line with Herzberg's hygiene factors and motivators. Each of the questions had supporting follow-on questions designed to investigate further into the problem. It was the intent of the main research questions to stimulate discussion in the individual interviews specifically focused toward the problem and purpose of the study.

Q1. What specific factors draw Millennial to work as police officers?

Q2. What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

Q3. What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

Q4. What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

Research Methods and Design

The measurement for this qualitative research study revolved around dependability and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003) of the research methodology and collected data. A qualitative case study of currently employed, millennial-aged police officers was selected to obtain experiential data directly through an advocacy point of view through the millennial voice. A quantitative or mixed-method research would not have allowed the flexibility required to obtain

detailed descriptions from participants with appropriate follow-on questions directly related to an exploration of the problem of the study.

This case study attempted to understand specifically the identified problems (Gable, 1994) of perceived low millennial workplace satisfaction. A case study research concentrated on personal and shared experiences from specified participants bound by a specific time period (Creswell, 2013) through in-depth interviews. This case study examined participants' view of satisfaction within the police culture as bounded by the millennial-aged participants' law enforcement tenure. Data was obtained from the millennial-aged police officers' perspectives as an advocate for their voice. Data collected through personal interviews explored the shared experiences through the lens of the purposefully selected participants.

The design strategy involved purposeful sampling to identify millennial-aged law enforcement participants for the case study rather than a universal participant sample from the general population (Patton, 2002). The participants were currently employed, sworn peace officers from the Glendale Police Department born since January 1, 1980. Sworn peace officer participants are defined by the Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board (AZPOST) and Millennial-aged is defined as born since 1980 (Barford & Hester, 2011; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Howe & Struass in Balda & Mora, 2011).

The qualitative analysis of this data began during collection. Properly developed interview questions provided direction and focus in line with the purpose of the study. Face to face interviews allowed the researcher to observe body language, voice intonation, and facial expressions that were important to thick and rich responses to research questions (Opdenakker, 2006). The collected data created a complete picture from the sum of its parts and an emergent strategy will follow the data itself (Walters, n.d.). Consistent-themed data triangulation was

achieved through individual interviews, follow-up interviews as necessary for clarification, and contemporary literature. Consistent perspectives and themes across multiple sources increased the validity of the study (Creswell, 2013) through a saturation of information obtained.

Purposeful samplings of potential participants for the research were identified through a public records request to the AZPOST which maintains statewide police employment records. This homogenous group of similar-aged police officers in Glendale provided reliable data which focused specifically on the problem and purpose of the study.

Data interpretation involved the findings, answering why questions, attaching significance to particular results, and putting patterns into an analytic framework for reporting in order to identify hygiene and motivators specific to the participants. The coded answers were collated to determine significance to problem and purpose of the study. Qualitative case research utilized substantive significance found in collated common experiences as its measurement standard (Creswell, 2013).

Population

The intended population for the research case study was the Glendale Police Department. By nationwide comparison, the police officer population of the Glendale Police Department would be considered a large law enforcement agency (Szoltysik, 2014; "Number of Police Officers," 2012). There were 423 sworn police officers working for Glendale as of August 25, 2014 (Szoltysik, 2014). This large agency would allow for an appropriate sample for this case study research.

The Glendale Police department has continued to hire officers during the past few years of the recent American economic recession. This information was very important to the study, because Glendale provides a wider range of sample participants who met the specific research

criteria. Law enforcement agencies under a hiring freeze during the recession have eliminated 5 to 7 years of potential sample participants, therefore, the Glendale Police Department was selected due to its large population of potential participants.

Sample

The purposeful sample of participants for this case study research were approximately 30 Glendale Police Officers with a minimum of 1 year of police experience, born since January 1, 1980, and currently commissioned by the AZPOST. The purposefully selected research participants allowed the researcher to understand the problem directly in line with the purpose of the study (Creswell, 2013; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Individual interviews for this case study research did not require a large sample due to the bounded specifications of the purposeful sample of participants addressing the research problem (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002).

A request for all Millennial-aged Glendale Police Officers was completed through a public records request to the Information Technology Manager at the Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board. With 124 possible participants in Glendale, a 10 percent participation rate was desired to fill the individual interview requirements. Interest letters were hand delivered in sealed envelopes to the to the main Glendale Police address for interoffice dissemination. The letter informed the subjects that they had been selected as possible participants for individual interview seeking their input to improve policing as partial fulfillment to a doctoral degree. Site permission for Millennial-aged Glendale Police Officers to participate with this case study research was obtained from Chief Debora Black (D. Black, personal communication, July 31, 2014).

Materials/Instruments

The materials for this research study were the individual interview guide protocol with

open-ended questions to elicit written responses from participants. The interview questions were developed by the researcher to specifically address the problem statement in this qualitative case study research. The questions allowed for follow-up questions to maintain research focus to the problem and purpose of the study. The interview questions were field tested by three millennial-aged Phoenix Police Officers to diminish interviewer bias (Creswell, 2013). The intent of the field testing was to determine the appropriateness of the research questions in relation the problem and purpose of the study (Patton, 2002). The individual interviews were directed as practical, applied, and action-oriented to address the research problem.

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

After receiving Northcentral University IRB approval, the data collection began with a public records request submitted to the AZPOST Board for millennial-aged Glendale Police Officers. This sample of participants were informed via interoffice-delivered letter of the purpose of the research and provided with an informed consent letter at the time of the interview. Dates, times and locations for the individual interviews were determined and set within practical shift scheduling for those who responded. The personal interviews utilized different participants with the exact same question protocol. The interview locations were centrally located to the Glendale Police Department for ease of access, while also providing maximum anonymity.

The separate individual interview guide protocol channeled the interview procedure and data collection for processing. In each interview, the participants were welcomed and given an overview of the purpose of the research. Each participant was admonished as to the research questions until all interviews were completed and explained the ethical degree in which the researcher will protect their identity. Participants were afforded the option to choose not to participate during any questions and could terminate the interviews at any time. Copious notes

were taken by the researcher, and all interviews were audio recorded and coded with numbers and letters to maintain confidentiality. The audio recordings were professionally transcribed through a private transcriber utilizing the numbers and letters system assigned to each participant. Comprehensive and in-depth information was collected, reread, and documented from each individual participant as raw data (Patton, 2002).

Patton (2002) described the process of constructing qualitative case studies as assembling the raw case data, constructing a case record, and writing a final case study narrative. Processing the data included interpretation of participant answers for meaning to answer why particular cultural phenomena exist to support the statement of the problem and the purpose of the case study. The interview questions were designed specifically to analyze the narrative responses and reveal cultural and social patterns through the lens of their individual experiences (Patton, 2002). Sensitizing concepts and police vernacular familiar to the writer were used by the participants and then further defined while processing the data.

Construction of the case record began with hand-coding and collating participants' responses through inductive analysis with numbers and letters specifically designed by the researcher. Common themes and answers in line with the problem and purpose of the study were identified. Saturation of common themes found within the participants' answers were collated and coded specifically within the scope of Generational Theory and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory for analysis.

Coded sets of data, such as millennial-aged patterns and themes were analyzed with current Millennial Generation Theory. Generational literature for private and public sectors was utilized to compare contemporary themes of collected data. New or old millennial-aged themes were reported specifically within the scope of law enforcement and police culture.

The same coded sets of data were placed into one of Herzberg's categories for employee satisfaction; hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors are external, job-context, reasons such as pay and working conditions, and motivators are internal, self-directed reasons such as happiness and personal growth (Guha, 2010). More explicitly, this data identified the external hygiene and internal motivators for Millennial-aged police officer satisfaction. This list of Frederick Herzberg's common hygiene factors and motivators was applied to modern policing and reported to current police leaders. The analysis of the data for this case study obtained the shared workplace satisfiers for Millennial-aged police officers.

Assumptions

Given the integrity and oath of office for an Arizona Peace Officer, it was assumed the participants were honest in their responses to the research questions and follow-on questions with researcher. It was assumed participants in the interviews elicited rich and descriptive dialogue. The researcher continuously reminded the participants the purpose of the interviews in order to maintain direction and participation.

It was assumed the participants provided in-depth responses to the research questions when assured of their anonymity and the ethical steps to maintain recordings and notes secure. All participants understood the professionalism of the research and behaved as such. Descriptive and historical dialogue in the interviews was assumed and proper decorum was mandated.

Limitations

Some limitations were predicted for this case study research. First, the varying tenure for the police officer participants undoubtedly provided varying responses due to time exposed to police culture. Limited experience in the police culture may have reduced experiences to share in this study. Second, unique police assignments and shifts may have caused participants to limit

experiences to share. Limited exposure to typical police duties and supervision may have created outlying responses to the research questions. Lastly, the limited number of participants from the same agency may have reduced responses and dialogue.

The individual interview questions for the study oriented the participants' interests while maintaining direction and participation (Schram, 2006). Bracketing the writer's and participants' opinions directed the interviews within the boundaries of the study. Participants' worries were mitigated by the researcher's status as a retired police sergeant, therefore one of them in the police culture. Further limitation mitigation comes from constant security of participant identity.

Delimitations

The main delimitation for this qualitative case study research was removal of race, ethnicity and gender as a part of the researched demographic. All millennial-aged police officers were lumped together in the randomly selected sample. It may be of interest to research these separate demographics utilizing this research as the cornerstone.

This research was a qualitative case study rather than a phenomenological study because it aimed to identify shared experiences of a specific-aged group of participants working in an identical industry at the same organization. A case study is less of a methodological decision, but rather a choice of what is to be studied (Stake, 2000 as cited in Patton, 2002). This binding construct provided for a case study rather than phenomenology because the millennial-aged Glendale Police Officers were selected to be researched rather than the method.

Ethical Assurances

Three ethical assurances were made for this qualitative case study research as per the Belmont Report: (a) respect for persons, (b), beneficence and (c) justice ("Belmont Report," 2014). Respect for persons incorporates two ethical certainties; research subjects are

autonomous and persons with diminished autonomy require greater protection. This research intended to respectfully interview each individual in the same ethical manner. The interview participants were expected to maintain professionalism. This research did not include subjects with diminished autonomy.

The Belmont Report (2014) defined beneficence as persons treated in an ethical manner by respecting their responses, protecting them from harm, and making efforts to secure their well-being. Beneficence is a professional research obligation. Police rank and seniority could affect the individual participant responses. This research case study intended to do no harm while maximizing the possible benefits of the research outcomes and minimizing possible harm to research participants.

Justice was ensured in this research as each participant's responses carried the exact same weight. No participant was given more or less emphasis for their responses. Equality amongst the participants was paramount given rank and seniority are so powerful in the police culture. All participants in this research case study were given the same level of status and respect for their participation.

The questions specifically addressed workplace satisfaction of the millennial-aged police officers currently employed by the City of Glendale. The research questions obtained information desired to address the problem and purpose of the study (Lester, 1999; Waters, n.d.). The writer posits that obtaining feedback from the interviews from millennial-aged police officers about their workplace satisfaction connected the data to the purpose of the study. The writer properly directed the research questions with the support of contemporary peer-reviewed literature and research. The defined locus of the study obtained qualitative data to assist

organizational leaders with the recruitment, hiring, training, and retention of its youngest and fastest growing pool of officers (White & Escobar, 2008 and Udechukwu, 2009).

Interviews were one-on-one with the researcher and 12 participants (Ebrahim, 2006). Quotations and descriptions given by participants were audio recorded for review and collation. The recordings allowed for further exploration and deeper meaning of their common experiences. The qualitative individual interviews captured and communicated participants' thick and rich experiences in their own words with direct issues of central importance (Patton, 2002).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of Millennial-aged police officers to assist police leaders with creating satisfying workplace environments through identification of hygiene factors and motivators. The dependability and trustworthiness of the research study relied heavily upon the collection, coding, collating and final reporting of the captured data (Patton, 2002; Schram, 2006; Shank, 2006). The quality and rigor of the collected qualitative data lends to its validity and the credible and defensible result provided reliability (Golafshani, 2003). The qualitative case study research described contributing factors for workplace satisfaction for the Millennial-aged police officer in Glendale, AZ. From these classifications, the final case study record categorized shared experiences or phenomena that addressed the problem and purpose of the case study. Discovery of participants' understanding of satisfaction within their workplace through the research identified hygiene and motivators for the intended audience. Synthesis of all collected data with contemporary literature lend authenticity and trustworthiness to the qualitative study, as well as reduced the public-sector gap within the contemporary literature. The social construct

for the study revealed shared experiences of the Millennial-aged police officer that explained workplace satisfaction phenomena from the participants' perspective. It was the intent of the research study to seek unbiased, qualitative case study data to assist police departments with current and future workplace satisfaction of Millennial-aged police officers.

Results

The purpose of the qualitative case study was to examine perceptions of workplace satisfaction through the shared experiences of Millennial-aged police officers. The study attempted to identify specific factors that supported workplace satisfaction and retention of Millennial-aged police officers. The study also attempted to identify factors that reduced workplace satisfaction for the same population. To achieve the purpose of the study, in-depth one-on-one interviews involving both open and closed-ended questions were conducted with 12 Millennial-aged police officers in the City of Glendale, AZ. This section comprises a discussion of the results of the study. The sections will be structured around the research questions regarding Millennial-aged police officers: (a) factors for recruiting, (b) factors that increase workplace satisfaction, (b) factors that decrease workplace satisfaction, (c) factors that retain, and (d) summary.

All identified factors will be arranged according to Frederic Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory for workplace satisfaction. Internal factors such as personal growth and happiness are known as motivators and external factors are tangible like pay and policies are hygiene factors (Guha, 2010). All coded patterns and themes from the Millennial-aged police officer interviews were categorized within Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory.

Data Collection and Analysis

The qualitative case study applied in-depth interviews to examine factors for increased workplace satisfaction, decreased satisfaction, and retention of Millennial-aged police officers currently employed at the City of Glendale, Arizona with more one year of policing experience. The utilization of in-depth interviews was appropriate in this study, as this method permitted for collection of rich and descriptive information through shared experiences of the participants. An interview protocol was employed while interviewing the participants. The interview protocol contained the interview questions which focused on the purpose of the study.

The research questions for this study intended to specifically address the purpose of examining the workplace satisfiers and retention for the Millennial-aged police officers. The research questions and follow-up questions for this study were:

- Q1.** What specific factors draw Millennials to work as police officers?
- Q2.** What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?
- Q3.** What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?
- Q4.** What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for data analysis and hand-coding. After the data were collected and transcribed, it was hand-coded and analyzed using a thematic content analysis for this specific case study. Content analysis of the transcripts through hand coding allowed the researcher to identify patterns and nuances (Klenke, 2008) specific to the purpose of the study. When code was identified, a specific color was attributed to the pattern or

theme on the interview transcript. A color legend was created as patterns and themes appeared in the interviews. Each interview was reviewed five times until saturation was reached. Due to the small representation of females in policing, the gender of the participants was omitted to ensure anonymity. See Table 1 for demographics.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Participant Code	Age	Years Police Experience
PO #01	28	3
PO #02	31	5
PO #03	31	8
PO #04	31	9
PO #05	29	8
PO #06	24	1
PO #07	29	7
PO #08	29	7
PO #09	23	2
PO #10	32	10
PO #11	29	7
PO #12	29	8

Findings

This segment presents the data collected from the transcripts of the 12 Millennial-aged police officers. The researcher used pattern-producing, hand coding for the identified codes. The grouped codes were used to identify the patterns and themes. The patterns were then re-grouped to form labels of the study. In the analysis of the codes, the researcher utilized thematic analysis. All codes were categorized for analogous meaning. To be categorized as a theme and significant to this study, the researcher ranked all responses from the participants from highest to lowest. Participant descriptions containing police jargon and colloquialisms were defined and presented in more general terms. The themed categories were obtained within the research questions which supports the purpose of the study. In the following segment, the researcher will

discuss each themed category through a participant advocacy lens for the Millennial-aged police officers.

Research Question 1. What specific factors draw Millennials to work as police officers?

The data analysis produced five thematic categories critical to the first central question: (a) general excitement, thrill and variety of police work, (b) serve the community and help people, (c) interact with people as a team (d) legacy career – previous family member in policing, and (e) pay and benefits. Each of the themes will be examined and discussed. These following themes appeared from research question number one.

Theme 1. General excitement, thrill and variety of police work. The first theme immediately identified in the first research question was the general excitement, thrill and variety of a career in policing. PO #01 said:

My first thought would be just the general excitement of the job, doing something different every day...is what attracts people at a younger age right now, which are currently Millennials. We are doing something opposite of a monotonous job, doing. PO #10 echoed this sentiment, “I thought it was fun and exciting and it was something new. I went on a few ride-alongs and the job seemed to change from call to call.” This common excitement for a variety of calls appears to resonate throughout the Millennial-aged police officers. They communicated a need to avoid repetition and boredom. PO #09 stated:

what drew me to this job is that I wasn’t stuck at a desk doing the same thing every day....you get to meet new people every day in new places, you work at different times, meeting different individuals makes the job more interesting.

Theme 2. Serving the community and helping people. Theme two suggested Millennial-aged police officers have a philanthropic attitude about policing. More specifically, PO #11 stated, “If

you want to do something where you want to feel good about your job, a sense of fulfillment every day, this is it. But, we also make a difference.” Service to the community was a common comment from the participants as PO #05 said “we want to be part of something greater than my own good. You are a police officer, you are serving others. It is a pride thing.” The service aspect of policing appeared to be a deep concept for Millennials to work as police officers. PO #02 stated:

At the end of the day, I want to know that I affected change in someone’s life....what had I had to show for my work. I like to make a difference in someone’s life. I think collectively my generation...have seen the desire for community involvement. The desire to give back to the community. The conservation feel-good mentality like they’re contributing to the world.

Theme 3. Interacting with people as a team. Teamwork was a very popular theme for Millennials to come work a policing career. Teamwork was often reported using popular police vernacular such as squads, units, and brotherhood. PO #05 said: “We want to be part of something greater....It is a pride thing to be part of a group in a team setting, the brotherhood of policing is different across the country.” The participants all spoke of understanding what it is like to be part of a team throughout the interviews. “Protecting your family, the brotherhood....is a non-blood line of relatives. You go through things people don’t see on a regular basis” was expressed by PO #08 to further explain the depth of the Millennial-aged police officer definition of team. PO #03 stated said “the teamwork aspect (of policing) was important. I grew up in sports, it was familiar.” Teamwork has a deep sense of meaning for the Millennial-aged police officer participants as a factor for obtaining a career in policing.

Theme 4. Legacy career – previous family member in policing. A few of the participants had relatives ranging from parent, grandparent, uncle and cousin as police officers who inspired them to seek law enforcement as a career. PO #3 stated:

For me it was something that was prideful. I have police officers in my family so a sense of pride. Knowing that I lived my life right enough that I was able to be hired into this position and that I had what it took.

An interesting note is that the relative generally did not recruit the participant to policing, rather the participant looked up to the police relative and wanted to replicate the referent behavior. PO #11 said they came to a policing career because “it was more of a family thing.” With several family members in policing, the policing culture was familiar and comfortable. Yet PO #10 described the policing legacy as a sense of obligation, “my friends who are also here as police officers came here because of family members who had done this job before, like they were expected to do this.” Legacy policing due to a previous relative in the industry is still a factor for attracting Millennials.

Theme 5. Pay and benefits. Tangible pay and benefits of the job was not left out by Millennials as a factor for seeking policing for employment. The most mentioned benefits of a policing career were job security and retirement. PO #1 stated “I would have to say having a retirement system, a pension, something that is well-paying and comes with additional benefits like health care” are also enticing to Millennials. Mostly, pay referred specifically to starting pay as well as anticipated pay raises as attractive to Millennials. “Some guys (are) just there to get a paycheck,” stated PO #04. Yet the majority of the participants expressed a career in policing was (a) “something I could support a family with” PO #03, (b) “the pension is the most important” PO #07, (c) “it has good pension, great benefits” PO #06, (d) “the benefits are a huge part of it, it

was for me PO #05, (e) “the pay is decent (and) you get good benefits” PO #09, and (f) the most important aspect “I would say having a retirement system, a pension, something that is well-paying and comes with benefits like health care” PO #01.

Table 2

Factors that Attract Millennials to a Law Enforcement Career

Patterns and Themes	Herzberg Two-Factor Theory
General excitement, thrill and variety of police work	Motivator
Serve the community and help people	Motivator
Interact with people as a team	Motivator & Hygiene Factor
Legacy career – previous family member in policing	Motivator
Pay and benefits	Hygiene Factor

Research Question 2. What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

The data analysis produced five thematic categories critical to the second central question: (a) opportunities for lateral job movement, (b) recognition for work and praise (c) respect for input, new ideas and ways (d) best technology and equipment available, and (e) pay raises as promised when hired. Each of the themes will be examined and discussed. These following themes appeared from research question number two.

Theme 1. Opportunities for Lateral Job Movement. Availability to laterally move around the police department was the first theme identified for research question two. From the Millennial-aged officers’ perspectives, and directly in line with the second research question, job opportunities for lateral movement was overwhelmingly a workplace factor that increases job satisfaction. PO #01 stated instead of having multiple jobs like people in other careers, policing provides:

You can do something different but still have the same job for a significant amount of time....It is almost the same as having a variety of jobs, but it's the same actual career, same employment at every point in time.

Career mobility was identified as a factor for increased job satisfaction by all of the participants. It should be noted that the interviews of Millennial-aged police officers revealed the following words as synonymous with lateral job movement: (a) opportunities, (b) specialties, (c) shadow, (d) options, (e) advancement, (f) transfers, (g) promotion, and (h) mobility. PO #02 stated "I need to see a few new things in my career. I want to see opportunities to move around or shadow another department, taking a look at what else is out there." Internal and external motivation was achieved as the participants want to avoid a stagnant career by physically moving around the organization and personally enriching their careers. PO #06 stated Opportunities to move through other areas of the department is important....there are lots of things you can do."

Theme 2. Recognition for work and praise. Acknowledgement and praise was a very commonly discussed theme among Millennial-aged police officers for increased workplace satisfaction. The praise and recognition were desired by the participants because of a general negative culture that police officers work in the community and organization. PO #02 wanted supervisors and department administration to "let us know we actually matter." This sentiment was echoed by PO #05 who expressed "Awards, (and) appreciation, the Millennials are going to want the appreciation and they want to know why....Workplace environment is important." PO #12 explained a "balance of right and wrong recognition" does not exist. Several of the participants wanted more positive workplace environment in their negative-heavy law enforcement industry.

Theme 3. Respect for input, new ideas and ways. Receptive input for contemporary ideas and thoughts was a very popular theme from the majority of the Millennial-aged police officers. PO #06 expressed

We have different thought processes than even our parents or grandparents. As the generations go on, our thought processes change based upon our environments. We have to change because crime is different than the way it was 20 years ago.

The participants also expressed frustration with input received from supervisors and administration that apparently went nowhere. PO #02 said Millennials “are forward thinking and they have good ideas. They are not afraid to voice these ideas. This generation is the now generation.” The Millennial-aged officers still understood the rank and file system in law enforcement, but identified better feedback of their input would be a factor for increasing workplace satisfaction. PO #10 explained this phenomenon:

Administration listening better to us would create better satisfaction. Maybe if they came to us for input and then implemented those things we are suggesting. Just ask for our input and then do something with it. Don’t ask if you’re not going to do something with it.

Theme 4. Best technology and equipment available. PO #01 said ‘equipment is everything...to include technology like working computers in your vehicle....we can always do better with technology.’ The latest and greatest technology and police equipment available is a factor for increasing workplace satisfaction. Several of the participants referred mobile technology as necessary to fight today’s crime. PO #10 explained:

I feel like our generation has an understanding of the cyber-culture, like computers, internet-based technologies. I think technology is just one of the biggest parts of what we see nowadays. Most of the crimes I see have some type of internet factor to it.

PO #02 expressed utilization of technology as an increased satisfier when employers “effectively use technology to make their (Millennials) job more efficient, not necessarily easier.” It appeared Millennials felt negatively judged in their workplace for their technological aptitudes. PO #11 stated “We are more technologically savvy...it is more familiar to us.”

Theme 5. Pay raises as promised when hired. The researcher is unfamiliar with the budgetary issues of the sample population, so assumptions were made given the recent American recession that police departments have made pay, benefit, and other budget cuts nationwide. This phenomenon has not gone on unnoticed by the Millennial-aged police officers. “everything is budget related...and we did not get pay raises...it gets discouraging after a while,” stated PO #11.

Several of the participants stated decisions made before they were hired negatively impacted their merit pay increases. PO #01 stated “money after you’re here is far more important.” The Millennial-aged officers said they were not looking for extra pay, but wanted the pay they were promised when recruited to become officers. This factor would be both internally and externally satisfying. PO #08 wanted police agencies to “keep their promises (regarding pay). My agency is just now catching up on pay raises. I feel like I am expected to keep up my end of the bargain, but maybe they should too.” PO #11 echoed this pay sentiment:

This affects your morale. Money is a big thing for people my age, at my age especially we are starting to have a family. Money becomes a factor when you want to buy a house. These are things I did not have to worry about when I started.

The participants often purposely expressed that they did not enter law enforcement for the money, but hoped to be monetarily satisfied for their time and experience as promised when hired.

Another worthy note is that every Millennial-aged police officer interviewed described the importance of a satisfying work environment as very, pretty or extremely important. As with the contemporary literature on Millennial-aged employees, they are unafraid to give input to their organization. Factors for increased workplace satisfaction were clearly presented by the participants. A majority of the Millennial-aged police officers stated if the workplace satisfiers identified in research question number two were absent from their workplace, they would seek employment at another police agency through lateral transfers.

Table 3

Factors for Increasing Job Satisfaction of Millennial-aged Police Officers

Pattern and Themes	Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
Opportunities for lateral job movement	Motivator & Hygiene Factor
Recognition for work and praise	Motivator
Respect for input, new ideas and ways	Motivator
Best technology and equipment available	Hygiene Factor
Pay raises as promised when hired	Hygiene Factor

Research Question 3: What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

The data analysis produced three thematic categories critical to the third central question: (a) lack of lateral job movement, (b) micromanaging and poor supervision, and (c) negative police culture. Each of the themes will be examined and discussed. These following themes appeared from research question number three.

Theme 1. Lack of lateral job movement. Diminished opportunity of lateral job movement was listed as a major factor for decreasing workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police

officers. It would serve as logical that the absence of lateral movement in an organization would decrease workplace satisfaction because opportunities for movement was viewed as a workplace factor which increased satisfaction. This consistency lends validity to the participant interviews.

PO #07 stated:

A lot of guys are frustrated with the (lack) of shift change and schedules. We used to do it every year and now we are doing it every two years. A lot of Millennials are getting frustrated because they would eventually like to enjoy a weekend off. The bid is based upon seniority, and now it takes a lot longer to earn it.

The lack of mobility was expressed throughout the interviews. “If your department is stagnant, you won’t have the ability to go anywhere,” stated PO #08. Participants described decreased satisfaction from lack of job movement as stagnation, boredom, and burned out working the same job in the department. PO #11 said:

We want to learn new things about this job, so I don’t feel like I am just doing it again and again day in and day out. Opportunity, while that is starting to come back around, it is not as good as it should be or once was.

Theme 2. Micromanaging and poor supervision. A majority of the participants identified micromanaging and poor supervision as a workplace factor that decreased satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers. PO #02 said “maybe they don’t value me,” and PO #11 said they “want to feel appreciated as an employee.” This sentiment was a popular comment from the participants throughout the interviews.

The Millennial-aged officers were very vocal about creating supervisory standards especially at the rank of sergeant. PO #04 explained:

Poor supervision. You have guys who are micromanagers. I would say it is more specific to sergeants because they are in line with their staff.... You can actually bid around them or find a way to transfer out, away from them (when lateral job movement is available).

Poor leadership qualities from their direct supervisors was viewed as a factor for decreased satisfaction. PO #03 said “The sergeant has the biggest day-to-day impact with us.” The exact leadership qualities desired by Millennials for their supervisors were not revealed in the research. Almost all of the participants used past experiences to reveal what they believed to be the factors that decreased satisfaction.

Theme 3. Negative police culture. The overall negative police culture was viewed as a factor for decreased satisfaction by the Millennial-aged participants. They felt like administration and supervisors were heavy on the negative communication and almost void of the positive. PO #12 stated “the positive and negative affirmation was not balanced...it was heavy on punishment and criticism. Millennial-aged police officers desire an improved balance between positive and negative feedback at work. PO #03 stated negative police culture results are “disgruntled (police officers). I think there is a reduction in productivity. The feeling like, ‘why should I stick my neck out if no one is doing it for me?’” PO #06 explained further:

Hazing can mean a whole lot of things. Not in a sorority/fraternity kind of way, like they’re going to beat our asses, but more like you need to earn your reputation (in the department)....It (occurs) before they work with you. They (other officers and supervisors) make judgements on how you are as a cop.

All of the Millennial-aged police officers stated they are currently or had experienced the identified factors that decrease workplace satisfaction. More importantly, all but one of the

participants knew of several officers who are currently leaving the organization or quit a police career altogether due to workplace factors decreasing satisfaction.

Table 4

Factors for Decreasing Job Satisfaction of Millennial-aged Police Officers

Patterns and Themes	Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory
Lack of lateral job movement	Hygiene Factor
Micromanaging and poor supervision	Motivator
Negative police culture	Motivator

Research Question 4: What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

The data analysis produced five thematic categories critical to the fourth central question: (a) opportunities for lateral job movement, (b) increased recognition and praise (c) leadership development for sergeants, (d) pay raises as promised, and (e) increased vertical communication. Each of the themes will be examined and discussed. These following themes appeared from research question number four.

Theme 1. Increased opportunities for movement. PO #06 stated:

Having the opportunity to move and grow (was the most important factor for retention). I want the opportunity...Some people are willing to stay in patrol their whole careers. I think other Millennials feel exactly the same. They want to move to criminal investigations, K-9, court officers, narcotics, (and) under cover....Maybe chief one day.

The stagnation felt by the Millennial-aged participants often carried through the entire interview. It was very apparent that Millennials desire constant stimulus and novelty. PO #03 explained Millennials must “continue to provide opportunities....this is the generation who is coming up and who will eventually be the new leaders....we need to keep moving forward.”

All of the participants shared stories of friends and coworkers who have or are currently considering leaving the organization due to a lack of opportunity to move laterally in the department. PO #07 stated “the ability to move around the department...invest in the employee...send them to training...show them you want them here” as factors for retaining Millennial-aged police officers. Several of the participants had requested employment information from or applied to other police organizations. Some of the participants were not selected by the other agencies while others changed their minds and stayed with their current agency.

Theme 2. Increased Recognition and praise. Millennial-aged police officers desire recognition and praise for their work from their direct supervisors and administration. PO #12 wanted “leaders to communicate positive affirmation while holding them accountable.” The participants believed they were doing the same noble profession as their superiors, yet rarely received positive feedback. “If you have a high-performing Millennial (provide) constructive criticism, and invest in them so they feel like they are a contributing member,” stated PO #07. The perception of negative recognition appeared to greatly outweigh the positive, according to the Millennials. PO #09 stated:

The main thing would be to know that my organization has my back. Obviously, not if I violate policy. But, if I do what is needed to do, to stay within policy, I want to know they have my back. I would think they (administration) would want to keep us happy so we feel motivated to get up and go to work to get things accomplished.

Positive recognition and praise from supervisors and administration clearly was a factor for the retention of Millennial-aged police officers. “Make everyone feel like they have a vested interest,” said PO #04.

Theme 2. Leadership development for sergeants. PO #05 said they felt like supervision kept Millennials “bottled up and not able to live up to their greatest potential.” Participants referenced back to previous research questions and discussed a need for more trust and less micromanagement from the direct supervisors as a factor that promotes workplace retention. PO #03 said:

Good supervisors who always have the “good job mindset,” are so good at positive reinforcement and they make you feel worthy and wanted. Trust them (Millennials). The ability to let a Millennial go out, give them direction as to what you want them to do and trust them to go out and do it. If you are going to give them a task, let them do it right or wrong – without being up their rears...help them learn from it....This will continue to build your agency from the bottom, it will keep it new, it will bring new ideas.

Specific leadership training to standardize sergeants’ actions across the department was a consistent theme to retain Millennial-aged police officers. PO #04 explained that some supervisors “are great, but some feel like they have to be babysitters...they now feel like they have to control everything.” Leadership development for sergeants was a factor listed by Millennial-aged police officers which promotes workplace retention.

Theme 3. Pay raises as promised. The participants did not overtly complain or request more pay or benefits. However, the Millennial-aged police officers greatly desired the pay and benefits promised when they were recruited and hired. PO # 07 wanted “progressive pay” for their experience. The participants felt less appreciated than previous employees even though they understood the recession impacted the current budgets. Bringing back step-pay increases prior to the current budget freeze was a retention factor for POs #1. The consistent theme for pay and benefits as promised by the organization were pay Millennials for their continued

experience/growth, and they require more pay as my family grows. PO #06 succinctly stated, “it was pretty rough with the budgets, (but) you also need to get paid...maintain the benefits you’re promised when you come in, that needs to be done.”

Theme 4. Increased vertical communication. Supervisors and administration valuing Millennials’ input and communication while offering “why” something is or is not implemented describes increased vertical communication according to the participants. The terms “open lines of communication” and “open-door policy” were commonly discussed by the participants as important for workplace retention. PO #02 said it was imperative to “have a police department who can communicate and connect with those people (Millennials).” PO #02 said that better vertical communication from supervisors and administration would be better than relying on “a post on social media” from other Millennials.

PO #06 explained that sometimes “older folks get stuck in their thoughts and ways, you want a fresh outlook to mix it up,” but the input must be received by the supervision. The Millennial-aged police officers considered themselves diverse communicators with today’s technological advances. Yet, they want more effective vertical communication from their entire supervision chain of command.

Table 5

Factors for Retaining Millennial-aged Police Officers

Patterns and Themes	Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory
Opportunities for lateral job movement	Motivator & Hygiene Factor
Increased recognition and praise	Motivator
Leadership development for sergeants	Motivator & Hygiene Factor
Pay raises as promised	Hygiene Factor
Increased vertical communication	Motivator

Evaluation of Findings

The findings of this study found Millennial-aged police officers are not reticent about providing their opinions about factors regarding workplace satisfaction in a command and control industry like law enforcement. The analysis of the data identified specific workplace factors that police department leaders may use for organizational improvements.

Research Question 1. The findings on what attracts Millennials to work as police officers centered on the excitement for daily work variety of the work environment that a career in law enforcement could provide. Ekblad & Hathaway (2010) stated progress and change have become the satisfying factors of job selection and retention of Millennial employees. Participants in this study clearly expressed a desire to avoid boredom and office jobs. Johnson (2011) posited excitement for police work must remain new from the Millennials' perspective. The main theme of workplace novelty of the job also contributed to their sense of service to the community. There were several philanthropic and service-oriented comments that directly identified with the job of a police officer. Millennial-aged police officers want to feel a sense of fulfillment through helping others in the community. Serving the community comes through teamwork for a Millennial. Interaction with the community as a cohesive team supports their service mission. The teamwork aspect within police work gives Millennials a sense of brotherhood and a connection to a work family. Yet, some of the Millennials have previous family members that created a legacy for policing. From immediate to extended family, the policing lifestyle and career was comfortable to some Millennials who were attracted to policing. In addition to the excitement, service, and legacy of police work, Millennials-aged police officers also were attracted to the pay and benefits of the job. The immediate attraction of pay and benefits for the Millennials was often highlighted by the pension at the end of a successful

career.

Research Question 2. When increasing workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged officers, opportunities for lateral job movement was a very important finding. As Millennials were attracted to police work for the excitement and variety, increased satisfaction appears to share a similar theme; job mobility. The Millennials expressed a high desire to move around the organization for mainly personal reasons of learning new skills and staying motivated. The participants wanted to avoid a stagnant career in the same job function for too long. As the Millennial-aged officers' careers progress, they clearly want their supervisors and leaders to positively recognize their work. The Millennials explained praise and recognition as a validation for their effort and continued experience. A positive work environment through recognition and praise increases Millennial-aged police officers' workplace satisfaction. According to the participants, the positive workplace environment could also come through a respect from organization leaders about Millennials input and suggestions. The Millennials appeared eager and open to give their opinions in the workplace, and wanted their voices to be heard; to matter such as technology. The best technology and equipment made available to Millennials in the workplace increased their satisfaction and motivation to handle today's police issues. The participants expressed a desire to use technology in most aspects of their careers for greater efficiency. Pay raises as promised when hired was the final finding for increased satisfaction. The Millennial-aged police officers were not asking for additional pay for increased satisfaction, but they were asking the organization to provide them with the pay offered when originally recruited and hired. A Pew Research Center (2010) study identified similar Millennial Generation values, attitudes, and experiences in line with this specific research question.

Research Question 3. The findings for factors that decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers immediately identified a lack of lateral job movement. Behrens (2009) stated contemporary literature supports the proposition that Millennial employees behave differently in the workplace, because most employers seemingly fail to integrate the needs of these successive generations. Through a recession and organizational attrition, the ability to move around the police department to different specialties and units has been stifled for several years. The lack of workplace variety and the stimulus related to novelty, the participants shared a decreased workplace satisfaction. This decreased satisfaction has been exacerbated by their perception of micromanaging supervisors. The Millennial-aged officers believed poor supervision reduces workplace satisfaction. The participants also stated a lack of a sense of value for their work was portrayed by some supervisors. The Millennials clearly pointed out that not all supervisors acted this way, but those who did were avoided come time to bid or transfer around the department. The Millennials believe poor supervision adds to the overall negative police culture. A negative police culture was described as a workplace environment heavy on punishment and criticism and light on positive affirmation and praise.

Research Question 4. The findings for factors that promote retention of Millennial-aged police officers pointed directly to increased opportunities for lateral job movement. The desire to move around and experience new jobs in the organization was extremely important to the participants. Opportunities to shadow another unit of department was found in the interviews. Increased positive recognition and praise for their work was related by the participants. The Millennials stated they rarely received positive feedback for their work, which reduces personal value and in turn negatively affects workplace retention. Therefore, Millennial-aged police officers are looking for validation in their organizations through positive recognition and praise. Kane

(2011) stated efforts must be made to retain the best talent. The participants said the first-line supervisors should be provided leadership development training to increase Millennial retention. Their hope is a supervision standard for sergeants through leadership training to create a better work environment. Also, receiving pay raises as promised would retain the Millennial-aged police officers. To repeat from earlier, the Millennials only asked for the pay and benefits they were offered when recruited and hired to be fully restored. This process may be possible through increased vertical communication through the ranks. The Millennials often made suggestions and feel ignored by administration due to lack of implementation of their input. The participants asked the organizational leaders to just communicate why something was or was not implemented so that they know they were heard; valued.

Summary

The purpose of the qualitative case study was to examine factors for workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers. This section presented the result of the thematic analysis of the in-depth one-on-one interviews consisting of closed and open-ended questions with 12 Millennial-aged police officers currently employed with the City of Glendale, AZ. All interviews were transcribed for thematic coding.

With a thorough knowledge of police jargon and vernacular, the researcher utilized hand-coding to identify patterns and themes relevant to the purpose of the study. The themes were then grouped and tabled as motivators or hygiene factors from Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory. In the analysis of the codes, the researcher identified popular patterns and themes of shared experiences from the Millennial-aged police officers. The data analysis generated 13 thematic labels critical to the four central questions included in the tables. Similar or duplicated themes from different research questions were combined. The themes include: (a) general excitement,

thrill and variety of police work, (b) serve the community and help people, (c) interact with people as a team (d) legacy career – previous family member in policing, (e) pay and benefits, (f) opportunities for lateral job movement, (g) recognition for work and praise, (h) respect for input, new ideas and ways, (i) best technology and equipment available, (j) micromanaging and poor supervision, (k) leadership development for sergeants (l), negative police culture and (m) increased vertical communication. These thematic codes will be discussed further in the subsequent section.

Discussion, Implications, Recommendations

This section condenses the entire dissertation and discusses its conclusions relative to current and future research. The results of the study may help law enforcement leadership to identify workplace factors for recruiting, satisfying, and retaining Millennial-aged police officers. The current research lacks examination of the influence of generational theory specific to Millennials in law enforcement. The researcher will present a synopsis of the study, and then reiterate the purpose and implication of the research. The researcher utilized four central research questions that examined workplace factors of Millennial-aged police officers regarding attraction, satisfaction, and retention to police work. Next, the 13 themes generated from the in-depth interviews are discussed, in relation to each research question and to current research. Finally, the researcher delivers recommendations to expand the current study or to transfer the results for future research, then providing a conclusion.

Overview of the Study

Millennial-aged police officers have quickly gained a large percentage of police employment positions (Szoltysik, 2014). In the City of Glendale, AZ, Millennial-aged police officers comprise over 29 percent of the sworn officers (Szoltysik, 2014). These employees expect high workplace satisfaction (Herbison & Boseman, 2009) and this generation of sworn police officers are the now and future of policing. Police departments could benefit by identifying factors for Millennial-aged police officers for workplace satisfaction.

Private sector research has revealed the impact of generational differences from a workplace satisfaction viewpoint, which directly correlated to business practices and policies reflecting organizational success and failure (De Muese & Mlodzik, 2010; Greengard, 2011; Hira, 2007). Current public-sector research discovered leaders have a responsibility to

Millennial-aged police officers to provide satisfactory workplace environments, as current practices are not retaining the best talent (Kane, 2011). The Millennial Generation, those born since 1980, is capable of fulfilling the duties of public service (Della Volpe, 2010); however, department leaders must identify factors for workplace satisfaction and greater employee effectiveness. The rigid, highly-legislated, command and control culture of policing must adjust slightly to the Millennial generation (White & Escobar, 2008) and improve the current low satisfaction and retention often found in Millennial-aged employees (Eldridge, 2012; Wasilewski, 2011).

Four research questions were developed to examine the purpose of the study. All 12 participants participated in all four questions. The research questions for the study were:

- Q1.** What specific factors draw Millennials to work as police officers?
- Q2.** What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?
- Q3.** What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?
- Q4.** What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

A qualitative case study approach was utilized in the study to find evolving patterns of data. The sample population consisted of 12 Millennial-aged police officers with at least one year of sworn police officer experience. These individuals were selected through purposeful sampling from a public records request from the Arizona Peace Officer Standards and Training Board. Interviews used closed and open-ended questions to obtain patterns and themes of shared experiences of the participants directly in line with the research question to support the purpose

of the study. The data collection strategy was safeguarded to be easily understandable by any trained researcher to replicate and continue the study if so desired. Participant responses were hand-coded from the transcribed interviews and then divided into thematic categories.

Two assumptions were previously made to improve the credibility of the data used in the tests and the trustworthiness of the analysis. Given the integrity and oath of office for an Arizona Peace Officer, it was assumed the participants were honest in their responses to the research questions and follow-on questions with researcher. It was assumed participants in the interviews elicited rich and descriptive dialogue. The researcher continuously reminded the participants the purpose of the interviews in order to maintain direction and participation.

It was also assumed the participants provided in-depth responses to the research questions when assured of their anonymity and the ethical steps to maintain recordings and notes secure. All participants understood the professionalism of the research and behaved as such. Descriptive and historical dialogue in the interviews was assumed and proper decorum was mandated.

Summary of the Results

The theme analysis of the in-depth interviews from 12 Millennial-aged police officers resulted in 13 thematic categories. Some of the themes were repeated across more than one research question, which indicated very important patterns for the participants. The identified 13 thematic labels critical to the four central questions include: (a) general excitement, thrill and variety of police work, (b) serve the community and help people, (c) interact with people as a team (d) legacy career – previous family member in policing, (e) pay and benefits, (f) opportunities for lateral job movement, (g) recognition for work and praise, (h) respect for input, new ideas and ways, (i) best technology and equipment available, (j) micromanaging and poor supervision, (k) leadership development for sergeants (l), negative police culture and (m)

increased vertical communication.

The first theme, general excitement, thrill and variety of police work revealed Millennials are seeking police employment to maintain novelty in their careers. More specifically, several participants specifically stated police work was attractive because it is the opposite of a desk or office job. Many of the interviews revealed that Millennials want their police work environment to be fun and full of stimulus. These revelations indicate that Millennials who seek a career policing are purposely avoiding a repetitive, and monotonous job.

Interacting with other people as a team was the second theme presented in the study. Teamwork is a common pattern of behavior for Millennials in police work. Several of the participants described their work team as a brotherhood and second family. Teamwork appeared natural and a desirable workplace satisfier for Millennial-aged police officers.

The third theme identified in the study was Millennials have a desire to serve their community and help people. Millennials apparently see themselves as a philanthropic generation ready to take on the challenges that exist in law enforcement. A career in policing appears to fulfill the Millennials' need to make a difference in the lives of people in the community.

Albeit a bit smaller in scope, the fourth theme discovered was policing appears to be a legacy career when a Millennial has a relative previously in the career. Several of the participants expressed interest in a policing career due to exposure to the police culture as a child with an immediate or extended family member serving in law enforcement. Millennials who have relatives or close family friends in policing may be more likely to seek law enforcement as a career.

The fifth theme identified in the study was the importance of adequate pay and benefits for the Millennials. It was very clear that the participants were not asking for any extra pay and

benefits when compared to more senior officers. The concern raised in the study was the negative affect the recession and decisions made prior to Millennials hired had on reducing the wages and benefits promised to the participants before they were even hired. Millennials felt a loss of personal and work value due to the reduction of merit pay increases and other small monetary benefits removed after being recruited and hired by the department. Some of the participants indicated the pay seemed to be returning, but it was insufficient.

Opportunities for lateral job movement was the sixth theme discovered. This theme appeared across all four research questions. Ample opportunity to move around the organization to experience and learn new things attracted, satisfied, and retained Millennials in police work. Yet, a reduction in transfer opportunities in an organization clearly decreased Millennial-aged Police officer satisfaction.

The seventh theme discovered in the study was recognition and praise. This theme was discussed often and intermittent with most of the other themes. It appears a positive work environment in the command and control culture of policing is very desirable to Millennials. The Millennials want a more balanced work environment of positive recognition with the heavily legislated police culture. Validation for a Millennials hard work and dedication was a request from the participants.

Respect for input, new ideas and ways was the eighth theme identified from the interviews. Millennials expressed a need for more contemporary thought and processes in their organization. Respect for their input increased satisfaction, and ignoring their ideas decreased satisfaction. Millennials believe they understand the evolution and diversity of the community, but believe many of the work processes are outdated. They want a voice in the organization in which they have committed to have a lifetime of work.

The ninth theme discovered in the study was making the best technology and equipment available to the Millennial-aged police officers. The participants felt they are the best generation suited to utilize the latest technology in their jobs for maximum efficiency. A frustration looms with Millennials when the latest technology is unavailable. As technological natives, Millennials view contemporary technology as a necessary requirement for doing good police work.

The tenth theme identified through the interviews was micromanaging leaders and poor supervision which led to the eleventh theme of leadership development training for sergeants. The Millennials were clear to express that a standard for supervision consistency does not exist. The participants want their direct supervisors to give them clear direction and trust them to perform their duties. The Millennials understand the restrictions of policy and the necessity of policing within the rules, but they believe sergeants should have leadership development training to create more positive working environments which leads to the next theme. The overall negative culture of policing was the twelfth theme identified in the study. Millennials believe that their bosses and administration were more likely to deliver negative feedback than positive. The participants said it was difficult enough dealing with the negativity on the streets to have to continue to hear it from your own organization. A better balance of positive and negative information within the organization is desired by Millennial-aged police officers.

The thirteenth, and final theme discovered in the study was a request for increased vertical communication throughout the entire chain of command. Millennials believed the message whether carried up or down was not sufficiently delivered. The participants have no problem expressing their concerns to superiors with an open-door policy, but a perceived lack of follow-through or follow-up is common. Millennials desire explanations of principle or why a process is being implemented or ignored. The participants said more effective communication

from the top is better than learning about and issue through the rumor-mill or social media.

Discussion of the Results in Relation to Literature

The participants' responses for each theme were directly in line with the four central research questions. Each theme had provided interesting perceptions into the workplace satisfaction of Millennial-aged police officers. For the purposes of this section, only the themes that gathered the most number of responses shall be thoroughly discussed. The participants' responses will be synthesized in comparison or contrast to the contemporary research literature.

Q1. What specific factors draw Millennials to work as police officers?

Identifying the general excitement, thrill and variety of police work for Millennials appears to be police specific. The current literature did not discuss the thrilling and exciting daily police environment. However, the variety of jobs available to a Millennial-aged police officer over a long career could be synonymous to Millennials in the private industry job hopping every few years (Johnson, 2011).

Millennials are described as the most philanthropic generation in history as reported by the Pew Research Center (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). This contemporary research falls directly in line with the participant identified theme of serving the community and helping people.

Millennial-aged police officers want to make a difference in the world and positively impact people's lives.

Working in a teamwork atmosphere was a theme identified by the research participants for attracting Millennials to law enforcement. Millennial employees have most likely been arranged in team environments by their parents their entire lives. Emeagwali (2011) cited working together to problem-solve has been the main learning point of Millennials' schooling,

sports and extracurricular activities. This study and current research agree that Millennials prefer a workplace culture of collaboration.

Q2. What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

As a generation, Millennials were constantly showered with attention and praise, (Cekada, 2012). This sentiment resonated throughout all of the interviews encompassing each of the research questions. Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce (2009) stated Millennials require higher levels of praise than previous generations, which frustrate older supervisors. This is Millennial behavior is often misinterpreted by the police leadership as entitlement. The study revealed a high desire for recognition and praise are directly in line with the contemporary research.

According to a Pew Research Center report (Taylor & Keeter, 2010), the Millennials top identifiable generational uniqueness was technology. The Millennial-aged police officers interviewed clearly wanted the latest technology in the workplace. Taylor & Keeter (2010) described Millennials as technologically proficient and constantly connected through the internet (Taylor & Keeter, 2010). Because Millennials were raised during the digital age, they have a unique and competitive edge with contemporary communication such as social media and computing (Kaifi et al., 2012). Technology often increases the speed of decisions and deliverables (Bannon, Ford, & Meltzer, 2011; Johnson 2011) and the research participants requested for the best available to increase workplace satisfaction. The advanced technological skill of Millennials sets them apart from older generations in the workplace, but should exist to support their increased job satisfaction. Proactive organizational leaders could identify technology needs from Millennial employees in decision-making and budgets, because the

research theme collected regarding Millennials and workplace technology are directly in line with the current research.

Millennial-aged police officers wish to have increased respect for their input, ideas and new ways of doing things. Kaifi et al. (2012) advised organizations to have a much higher level of flexibility when Millennials collaborated with supervisors, and allow them to have a valid voice heard in the workplace. Millennials wish their voices to be heard by their administration as well as their teammates as factors for workplace satisfaction (Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010). Leaders should be willing to allow Millennials to have organizational input as supported by this study and current research.

Q3. What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

The negative culture of policing was a theme identified that decreases Millennial-aged police officer satisfaction. Before even being hired, traditional thinking in policing instructs new employees to adapt to the existing organizational technology and culture or go away (Greengard, 2011). This kind of organizational culture supports the findings of negative work environments in this study. Combined with a perception of poor supervision, negative police culture decreases Millennial-aged police officer satisfaction. Alsop (2008) stated Millennials desire strong supervision and direction in the workplace but demand the flexibility to complete tasks on their own terms.

Lack of lateral job movement was an identified theme that decreased workplace satisfaction in Millennial-aged police officers. Barford and Hester (2011) posited government work, such as policing, may present too few workplace opportunities and promotions, therefore

failing to fully engage Millennials. Millennials may simply be bored with their current level of responsibility provided by their government jobs as identified in the study and current research.

Johnson (2011) stated Millennial employees viewed workplace responsibilities and compensation as lower factors for job satisfaction. This current literature is in opposition with this research study. Millennial-aged police officers often cited pay, benefits and especially a retirement pension as attractive and satisfying. The pay and benefits as promised when recruited and hired was the main focus of the participants.

Q4. What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

Leadership development for sergeants was an identified theme for the study participants. Leaders must create the best environment for Millennials and use their natural talents to increase workplace satisfaction and retention (Altes, 2009, Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007, Ekblad & Hathaway, 2010, Ferri-Reed, 2010, Siegfried, 2008). Workplace challenges and genuinely solicited input from organizational leadership are important to maintain Millennial employee engagement Barford (2010). Multiple current researchers resounded the contemporary leadership development idea directly in line with the study.

Retaining Millennial-aged police officers incorporates many of the identified themes from this study. Hira (2007) reported that Millennials have no reservations about quitting a job that does not satisfy their list of needs and moving back home with their parents to search for another job, because there appears to be no stigma associated with such a decision for the Millennial Generation. They expect to work collaboratively with their bosses rather than just for their bosses, which can be a challenge for some current supervisors and administration. All of the extrinsic factors and intrinsic motivators for Millennial-aged employees are important for

organizational leaders to know, because research indicates employees in their twenties can be expected to stay in one position for just 1.1 years (Johnson, 2011). This high-level of turnover will negatively affect organizations through budgets and reduced customer service unless transformational leaders identify the issues and make the appropriate adjustments. Behrens (2009) explained contemporary literature supports the suggestion that Millennial employees behave differently than other generations in the workplace, but most employers seemingly fail to assimilate the needs of successive generations.

Limitations

The following limitations were predicted for this case study research. First, the varying tenure for the police officer participants undoubtedly provided varying responses due to time exposed to police culture. Limited experience in the police culture may have reduced experiences to share in this study. Second, unique police assignments and shifts may have caused participants to limit experiences to share. Limited exposure to typical police duties and supervision may have created outlying responses to the research questions. Lastly, the limited number of participants from the same agency may have reduced responses and dialogue.

The individual interview questions for the study oriented the participants' interests while maintaining direction and participation (Schram, 2006). Bracketing the writer's and participants' opinions directed the interviews within the boundaries of the study. Participants' worries were mitigated by the researcher's status as a retired police sergeant, therefore one of them in the police culture. Further limitation mitigation comes from constant security of participant identity.

Ethical Considerations

Three ethical considerations were made for this qualitative case study research as per the Belmont Report: (a) respect for persons, (b), beneficence and (c) justice ("Belmont Report,"

2014). Respect for persons incorporates two ethical certainties; research subjects are autonomous and persons with diminished autonomy require greater protection. This research intended to respectfully interview each individual in the same ethical manner. The interview participants were expected to maintain professionalism. This research did not include subjects with diminished autonomy.

The Belmont Report (2014) defined beneficence as persons treated in an ethical manner by respecting their responses, protecting them from harm, and making efforts to secure their well-being. Beneficence is a professional research obligation. Police rank and seniority could affect the individual participant responses. This research case study intended to do no harm while maximizing the possible benefits of the research outcomes and minimizing possible harm to research participants.

Justice was ensured in this research as each participant's responses carried the exact same weight. No participant was given more or less emphasis for their responses. Equality amongst the participants was paramount given rank and seniority are so powerful in the police culture. All participants in this research case study were given the same level of status and respect for their participation.

The questions specifically addressed workplace satisfaction of the millennial-aged police officers currently employed by the City of Glendale. The research questions obtained information desired to address the problem and purpose of the study (Lester, 1999; Waters, n.d.). The writer posits that obtaining feedback from the interviews from millennial-aged police officers about their workplace satisfaction connected the data to the purpose of the study. The writer properly directed the research questions with the support of contemporary peer-reviewed literature and research. The defined locus of the study obtained qualitative data to assist

organizational leaders with the recruitment, hiring, training, and retention of its youngest and fastest growing pool of officers (White & Escobar, 2008 and Udechukwu, 2009).

Interviews were one-on-one with the researcher and 12 participants (Ebrahim, 2006). Quotations and descriptions given by participants were audio recorded for review and collation. The recordings allowed for further exploration and deeper meaning of their common experiences. The qualitative individual interviews captured and communicated participants' thick and rich experiences in their own words with direct issues of central importance (Patton, 2002).

Implications for Practice

Police organizations nationwide should review the 13 identified themes presented by the Millennial-aged police officers. This study acts as an advocacy voice for the Millennials currently employed and those who will soon enter the law enforcement industry. The researcher hopes to obtain transferability of the information to other police organizations as well as other command and control industries.

Police organizations should create opportunities for lateral job movement. When budgets are reduced, progressive leaders can be creative with their transfers. Consider partnering with neighboring or larger organizations for temporary transfers and shadowing opportunities. The quasi-opportunities should have no impact on the budget, and creative manpower scheduling is easier than continuing to lose qualified officers due to lack of lateral job movement.

Because police sergeants have the most interaction with the Millennial-aged police officers, organizational leaders should consider identifying desired leadership skills and purposely develop their leaders. Many organizations offer free leadership and sergeant training to outside agencies and a partnership. Organizational leaders can also seek qualified and vetted

private companies that cater specifically to law enforcement leadership needs. Generational leadership and communication could be a great place to start.

Regardless of budgets, recognition and praise of Millennial-aged police officers is always free. For some tenured officers, this recommendation may seem ridiculous. The current literature and this study clearly identified recognition and praise as important workplace satisfiers for millennial-aged police officers. Recognition of work well done as a consistent police leadership skill could go a long way to reversing the perceived poor supervision and negative police culture held by Millennials.

Specifically staffing Millennials on organization committees would help with vertical communication, pay/budget and technology/equipment issues. Committees that are designed to deal with each of the important identified themes should purposefully include Millennial-aged police officers. Expanding their education and experience with organizational decisions would create a positive work culture. Millennial-aged police officers could offer budget, technological and equipment recommendations directly to executive decision-makers on the committee. It would be wise to include Millennials in any implementation strategies and plans developed by the committees as well.

Recommendations for Future Research

The scope and limitations of the study focused specifically on workplace satisfaction of Millennial-aged police officers. Recommendations for further research are as follows:

1. It would be insightful for future researchers to broaden the scope of the study to more finite research to include gender, race and culture. Themes that attract Millennials to police work may be different with more diverse demographics. This information would be especially useful for police recruiting efforts.

2. The structured interview questions were developed by the researcher who is not Millennial-aged. It may prove useful to have the interview protocol developed from the Millennial perspective. Also, 11 of the 12 the one-on-one interviews were conducted face to face and the final one telephonic. Answers to Millennial-developed questioned asked by a Millennial-aged researcher may produce different results.
3. The Millennial-aged participants often discussed new ideas and ways of conducting police services. Further research could probe into the specific ideas the Millennials have about contemporary policing.
4. The Millennial-aged police officers also identified recognition and praise as a major factor for workplace satisfaction. Further research should identify what Millennials perceive as appropriate praise and recognition. What are the complimentary preferences of the Millennial cohort?
5. Millennial-aged police officers should have input on the future of supervisory leadership development programs. A researcher could identify skills and abilities best suited for sergeants and above to best lead the Millennial Generation.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study revealed 13 thematic categories for factors affecting workplace satisfaction and retention for Millennial-aged police officers. These factors include: (a) general excitement, thrill and variety of police work, (b) serve the community and help people, (c) interact with people as a team (d) legacy career – previous family member in policing, (e) pay and benefits, (f) opportunities for lateral job movement, (g) recognition for work and praise, (h) respect for input, new ideas and ways, (i) best technology and equipment available, (j) micromanaging and poor supervision, (k) leadership development for sergeants (l), negative

police culture and (m) increased vertical communication. Contemporary law enforcement leadership must continue to progress and integrate Millennial-aged officers into the decision-making culture of their organizations.

Through a qualitative case-study approach, the researcher was able to identify the aforementioned themes from the responses from 12 interviews of Millennial-aged police officers. Each of the interviews were conducted in line with four central questions. Millennial-aged police officers are attracted to law enforcement because of the general excitement, thrill and variety of the work. Once employment is obtained, Millennials want to be provided with a myriad of lateral job opportunities to maintain novelty. Millennials also expect the organization to provide them with the pay and benefits that were offered when hired. Millennial-aged officers want to avoid stagnant careers that limit transfer opportunities. They also want to avoid micromanaging sergeants who do not allow them to work at their full potential. A more positive work environment full of recognition and praise that exceeds the negative feedback would be the correct step for changing police culture and retaining Millennial-aged police officers.

These results showed Millennial-aged police officers to be valuable assets to police organizations. The research allowed the current Millennials to have a voice and be an impetus for change. Organizational leaders and Millennial-aged police officers both have a lot to learn from their respective generations. Further research to identify specific areas not discovered in this research regarding Millennial-aged police officers would be beneficial for organizational leaders.

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Appendix B: Interview Guide Protocol

The researcher will ask the participant if they have any questions regarding the research or interview. Second, the researcher will proceed to ask for a signature and begin the interview.

Q1. What specific factors draw Millennials to work as police officers?

1. Please take a moment to tell me about factors you believe draw Millennials to become police officers (focus on like-aged individuals).
2. Do you consider these personal or professional factors?
3. Why is it important to attract Millennials to the LE profession?

Q2. What specific workplace factors increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

1. Please take a moment to tell me about specific workplace factors you believe increase job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers (focus on like-aged individuals).
2. Which of the factors you cited is the most important to you and why?
3. If that factor were not present, would you remain in LE or seek employment elsewhere?
4. How important is it for you to be satisfied in the workplace?

Q3. What specific workplace factors decrease workplace satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers?

1. Please take a moment to tell me about specific workplace factors you believe decrease job satisfaction for Millennial-aged police officers (focus on like-aged individuals).
2. Are you now, or have you in the past, experienced those factors?
3. Did it cause you to question whether you should remain in LE?

4. If you experienced these factors, why did you stay in LE?
5. Have you witnessed others experiencing these factors?
6. What did they do as a result? Stay or leave LE?

Q4. What specific workplace factors promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers?

1. Please take a moment to tell me about specific workplace factors you believe promote workplace retention for Millennial-aged police officers (focus on like-aged individuals).
2. Have the factors you cited affected your retention?
3. Have you witnessed Millennial-aged officers leaving the LE profession as a direct result of a lack any of the factors you cited? Can you explain this?
4. What can an organization do to retain Millennial-aged officers?
5. Why is it important to retain Millennial-aged officers?



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